



HUMARA BACHPAN

Rapid Child Impact Assessment of Master Plan of Delhi 2021



Chapter 1: Introduction

Children growing up in India are going to witness the biggest urbanization drive the country and even perhaps the world has ever seen. According to new forecasts the current 377 million urban population of India will increase to 590 million by 2030 (McKinsey 2010) implying an increase of over 200 million people in cities in about 20 years. India which is 31% urban today is thus slated to make the biggest contribution by a single country to the increase in global urban population in the future. However due to India's unrivalled youth demographic: 65% of its population is 35 or under, and half the country's population of 1.25 billion people is under 25 years of age, 41% of the population is under 18 years of age (Census 2011), India's new urban population is also going to be young.

The current imagination of India's urbanization is framed through the lens of "planned urban development". This may be good news for millions of Indian children are growing up in slums and other adverse living environments, in poor quality and overcrowded housing, without adequate provision of municipal services, in neighbourhoods which are often unsafe (high levels of crime and violence) and hazardous (polluted water, open sewer systems, poor lighting, congested streets, lack of local safe play areas etc). However formal planning processes are typically blind to the rights and needs of most vulnerable children and tend to particularly fail children in poverty as formal processes have very little knowledge about the lived reality of these young lives. Standing at the threshold of delivering more and better cities, India has no option but to cater to the youth demographic and mainstream children and youth concerns in planning to deliver

cities that work for all young people.

The UN Child Friendly Cities initiative strongly recommends carrying out child impact assessments and evaluations assessing the impacts of policy, law and practice on children's lives, in advance, during and after implementation. India today is poised to plan and build more cities than in any other period in its history. The current NDA government's proposal to build 100 smart cities is an indication of the official embrace of planned urbanization. If these cities have to adequately cater to children's needs and fulfill their rights, there is a dire need to adopt a child-centred approach to planning and provide inputs to the master planning process from children's perspective. A child-centred approach embeds the rights and needs of children in the process of development and promotes the best interests of children in all aspects of planning and development as children live and grow up as part of a family, community, society, city, town, village and a nation. Such an approach also sees the child as an active social agent capable of participating in decisions affecting their lives and making informed choices.

Delhi is the most master-planned city in India. All other Indian cities refer to the master plans of Delhi as a default guide. Delhi is in the process of creating its fourth masterplan that will direct the future of Delhi's development for 20 years after 2021. To provide any inputs to the new master plan and subsequent zonal plans, it is imperative to analyze the impact of previous master plans to understand how they had served or failed children. This report is an attempt by Action for Children's Environments to conduct a rapid child impact assessment of the Master Plan of Delhi 2021.

Chapter 2: Background

2.1 What is a master plan?

A master plan is a long-term planning document that establishes the city's vision for planned urban development by stating goals and objectives, laying out frameworks for different sectors such as transport, health, education, housing and proposing integration of landuses, sectors, social policies and the environment. This manner of planning has different names in different contexts: comprehensive planning in the United States, Strategic Planning in Canada and so on. As Urban planning is concerned with both the development of open land ("greenfields sites") and the revitalization

of existing parts of the city, the process of producing a master plan involves goal setting, data collection and analysis, forecasting, design, strategic thinking, and public consultation. Typically a master plan does not get involved with direct regulation of development by including development controls which are typically separate documents, often longer the plan document itself. The Master Plan of Delhi 2021 is an anomaly as it includes development controls which form the bulk of the plan document.

2.2 History of planning in India

Indian cities and towns are distinct due to simultaneous co-existence of planning patterns spanning several centuries and their expansion often is characterized by a form of urbanization that is made possible without industrialization. Colonial governance in India affected the morphologies of Indian cities in significant ways: 1) it made the ownership of urban land permanent and transferable; 2) it introduced a distinct planning ideology based on the British Town and Country Planning Act 1909, which anticipated and planned the expansion of towns, and the New York Ordinance of 1916 on zoning, which segregated city space on the basis of landuse zoning (Gupta 2003).

Under British colonial rule, Improvement Trusts were established in many Indian cities in the late 19th and early 20th century with the primary aim of sanitizing native living conditions through planning and programmes for decongesting cities (Priya 1993), and executing hygienic disposal of waste and control of diseases (Sharan 2006). Patrick Geddes was the most vocal critic of this colonial approach to town planning that imported "western industrial town bye-law sanitation" to redesign parts of

existing Indian cities to create "new sanitary layouts" which often followed a rigid grid design to lay straight roads through the hearts of indigenous neighbourhoods (Goodfriend 1979).

The word planning in India refers to not only urban planning but also socio-economic planning through the Five Year Plans developed by the planning commission to strategize and formulate policies at the national level for funding development through a sectoral approach. In India, land is a state subject and thus implementation of spatial plans for economic and social development comes under the domain of state governments. Master Plans or Development Plans that govern the growth and development of cities are Spatial Plans prepared by the municipal corporations and the Urban Development Authorities. There is almost no integration between the spatial plans and state sectoral and national five year plans. This leads to lack of financial support in the implementation of spatial plans which has resulted in no master plan of an Indian city achieving full implementation till date.

Box 1: Criticism of master planning approach in India

(Source: adapted from report of Working group on Urban Strategic Plan, 12th Five Year Plan, MHUPA, 2011.)

Lack of regional planning approach: The present masterplanning approach generally focus on only the core area of the city without proper urban growth vision and strategy to connect/integrate the peri-urban and rural areas within a regional framework. This has led to haphazard growth and proliferation of slums around industrial locations and peri-urban areas and randomly located new developments such as SEZs and new townships.

Rigid master planning process: the planning process carried out through masterplanning in India's cities is rigid and deterministic. It lacks the integration of spatial planning including transportation and landuse planning with sectoral planning.

Avoidable details: Materplans have aimed to be too detailed with avoidable inclusion of development controls. Therefore even after years of plan preparation exercise zonal plans have not yet been completed resulting in city growth overtaking planners by surprise, livability of cities degrading with unplanned urbanization, congestion and environmental degradation.

Lack of plan-finance linkage: Mater plans in the past have been utopian without linkage to any financing and operating strategy. Planned urban development leads to increases in tax bases, especially those related to land. Master plans did not address financing issues in meaningful manner as a result of which plan implementation has lagged behind planned target significantly.

Inadequate institutional clarity: the existing institutional framework of urban planning and governance does not specify clearly the roles and responsibilities of the state government, parastatals like water supply and sewerage boards, improvements trusts, urban development authorities, district planning committee, metropolitan planning committee, urban and rural local governments, in plan preparation, implementation , enforcement and monitoring.

Lack of capacity and enabling tools: A major impediment to effective regional and urban planning systems in India is the lack of human resources and enabling tools such as GIS and GIS enabled management information systems. The plan process is often not participatory. The lack of accountability and the participation of people and elected local government representatives in the planning process also hinder the effectiveness of the plan making and implementation processes.

2.3 History of Master planning in Delhi with implications for the urban poor

Delhi has often been described through the metaphor of an onion due to the many urban layers acquired in different historic periods and under different powers. However following the partition of India in 1947 after independence from British rule, an unprecedented exodus of refugees from Pakistan added almost a million people to Delhi in a matter of weeks. This completely overwhelmed and stretched the carrying capacity of the city. The planning of New Delhi under Sir Edwin Lutyens (1913-32) produced a city that stood apart from the Mughal city of Shahjehanabad which contrasted in every which way to the new imperial Delhi. This polarized urban structure of Delhi in the 1950s was further tested with the mushrooming of refugee camps and industries without any rules. The first Prime Minister of India, Jawaharlal Nehru, on witnessing firsthand the appalling conditions in the slums and poorer areas of Delhi took firm steps towards planned improvements. The Town Planning

Organization was set up and it produced the Interim General Plan for Greater Delhi by 1956 (Goodfriend 1979). The purpose of the interim plan was to guide city development till a more comprehensive regional plan was developed. The government formally approached the Ford Foundation to organize a team of US experts to advise and guide the planning and development of Delhi.

In this task, the foreign experts had two divergent planning models to study and choose from: 1) the model of Shahjehanabad with mixed landuses and building uses which allowed functions to overlap in space and through this complex urban structure encouraged the flourishing a multi- ethnic, multi-class society (Bavishkar 2003), and 2) the modernist planning model of spatial segregation of populations and functions. Even though urban thought leaders who have travelled widely and

worked in India like Patrick Geddes widely espoused the first planning imagination for the new city, the US experts entrusted with the job of creating Delhi's first master plan chose to embrace the modernist imagination of an orderly, planned and prosperous city by creating and separating zones partitioning work and residence,

2.3.1 MPD 1962

As the first and perhaps the only comprehensive plan of Delhi (all later master plans had simply been "modifications" of the first plan), The Master Plan of Delhi (1962) promoted the idea of a zoned city through allocation of land uses and their strict control. Delhi in the 1950s already had two distinct urban morphologies- the planned imperial city of New Delhi and the historic, walled city of Shahjehanabad. The master plan in its pursuit of imposing planned order on the many existing haphazard settlements scattered around these two cores, also sought to decongest the walled city and its surroundings. Several urban renewal plans for different parts of the city were developed falling in two predominant categories: 1) a "conservative surgery plan"

2.3.2 MPD 2001

The second master plan of Delhi, MPD 2001 that was notified in 1990 (delayed due to the Asian Games preparations) was a modification of MPD 1962 based on new population projections of 128 lacs (12.8 million) upto 2001 and the changing realities of the city in the 1980s. The plan talked about maintaining the ecological balance of the city with its region, and promoting low-rise high density development.

The main concepts in MPD 2001 is summarized below:

- The plan proposed urbanization of further 18000-24000 hectares of land to accommodate additional population in urban extension areas called subcities such as Dwarka, Rohini and Narela.
- The city in general is to be densified by following a pattern of low-rise high-density development
- The central city area (walled city and its extension and Karol Bagh) to be treated as special areas with appropriate regulations
- Development of new district centres, freight complexes and directional terminals to decentralize the city centre.
- Mass Transport system to be multi-modal e.g. MRTS, Ring Rail, road based public transportation

industry and commerce, education, administration and recreation. Critics have questioned the choice of this urban imagination and accused that planners did not consider other models and their suitability to Delhi's needs (Goodfriend, 1979, Bavishkar 2003).

as advocated by Patrick Geddes for rehabilitation areas that are partially blighted and 2) clearance of areas with major dilapidation by demolishing existing houses and redeveloping small units on the plots or rehabilitating in off-site locations using state funds. The second concern of the first master plan was to anticipate future change, ranging from new growth by colonizing rural land and "rebuilding and modifying what exists to integrate with what is to be" (p. ii).

To sum up, the MPD 1962 interpreted its role as a comprehensive plan to provide guidelines for new growth at the same time making proposals for the correction for the consequences of past growth.

- Urban development to be hierarchical containing essential facilities at each level e.g. housing cluster, housing area, neighborhood, community and district.

Similar to the failures of the MPD 1962 to provide for the urban poor, MPD 2001 too fell short of meeting its stipulated targets for urban poor housing. For the period 1981 to 2001, the MPD 2001 had stipulated a housing target of 16.5 lakh units of which:

- 25 percent (4 lakh plots) were for EWS
- 3 percent (49,000) were for resettlement units
- 43 percent built housing (LIG was included)
- 4 percent was for employees' housing
- 25 percent was for individual plots.

By the end of 2003, only 36,000 resettlement plots had been handed over. If the master plan had indeed been able to provide the 4 lakh plots for the EWS it would indeed have eased the housing situation for the urban poor in the city.

2.4 City Development through International Sporting Events

2.4.1 Asian Games 1982

When the Asian Games returned to its original home, New Delhi in 1982, India had an opportunity for the first time since its independence from British rule in 1947 to play host to a major international event. Many Delhiites comment that Delhi finally began to develop because of the 1982 Asian Games. Even though India won the bid in 1976, work on preparations could only start in 1980 because of the emergency years and political turmoil which finally settled in 1980 with Mrs. Gandhi coming back to power. The city witnessed unprecedented

construction activities with stadiums, the games village, hotels, flyovers and roads, even Pragati Maidan being built in the followup to the 1982 deadline. The skyline of the city changed dramatically. To build at an unprecedented rate to preserve national prestige meant violating the master plan such as bypassing requirements of landuse changes to speed up development. The entire infrastructure for the games were largely built in the last 2 years leading up to the games.

2.4.2 Commonwealth Games 2010

Immediately after winning the right to host the 2010 Commonwealth Games (CWG) in 2003, Delhi embarked on transforming itself into a world class city with the stated objectives of stimulating economic growth and development and improving city infrastructure (Uppal 2009). The latest master plan of Delhi, notified on 7th February 2007, legally mandated that vision by stating up front in the introduction: "Vision 2021 is to make Delhi a global metropolis and a world class city".

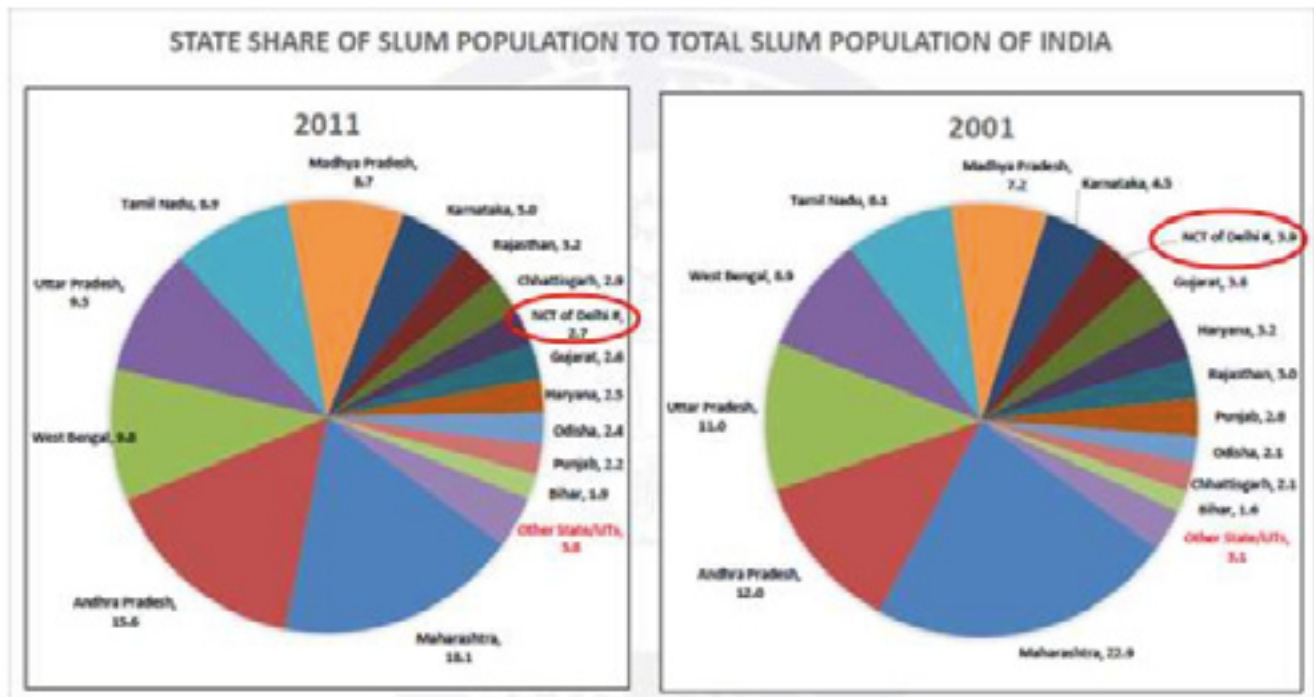
The government of Delhi seized the opportunity of the games to transform the physical infrastructure of the city and allocated significant resources to infrastructure provision, urban renewal and environmental improvement. To finish the projects on time, cash strapped Delhi government hiked the prices of essential commodities by increasing the value added tax (VAT) on diesel, CNG and luxury items, and by removing all subsidies from cooking gas in the 2010 Delhi Budget. Delhi residents paid the price for the expensive makeover of Delhi into a world class city. Additionally funds marked for essential social sector spending have also been used to meet the budgetary shortfall for the Games. The Scheduled Caste Sub Plan (Special Component Plan) had been reallocated to cover CWG related expenditures in Delhi in 2009-10 (HLRN-HIC 2010).

Besides the development of competition and training venues, several different place specific projects contributed to the makeover of Delhi. Some of these projects included: facelift of two of the main commercial areas of Delhi, Connaught Place and Gole Market; restoration of 46 monuments across Delhi to showcase Delhi's vast history; different types of city beautification projects including widening, strengthening and resurfacing of roads, development of parking facilities,

better street lighting, modern bus shelters, new international standard signage, and streetscaping of roads within 2 km radius of all Games venues. To handle these diverse projects, several different governmental organizations were involved in delivering Delhi as a world class city ahead of the Commonwealth Games.

A fact finding report by HLRN-HIC confirm that the claim that the CWG would create a "clean, beautiful, vibrant, world class" Delhi was wrong as development involved grave human costs in the form of slum demolitions, arrests of homeless citizens and beggars, destruction of livelihoods of the urban poor, and environmental degradation. According to Delhi Shramik Sangathan, in the five years from 2003 to 2008, close to 350 slum clusters housing nearly 3 lakh people were demolished in Delhi and only about one-third of these families have been resettled. According to data compiled by Hazards Centre, a Delhi-based organization, between the years 2000 and 2006, over 100,000 families were forcibly evicted from their homes in Delhi, the majority without any resettlement provisions. In June 2009, MCD demolished a slum cluster alongside a drain behind Jawaharlal Nehru Stadium, which included over 50 people suffering from a high degree of disability. Delhi has actually witnessed a decline in its population as revealed in the 2011 population census: a 25% fall in population in central New Delhi vis-a-vis 2001 even as the overall population of Delhi exhibit a decadal growth rate of 21%. This decline in population is attributed to the widespread slum removal initiatives since 2001 and in particular in the follow-up to the Commonwealth Games in 2010 from the most prominent locations of the city. Most people who are evicted do not receive rehabilitation from the state.

Figure 3: Declining slum population in Delhi between Census 2001 and 2011.



More slums and shatis were inevitable and in fact predicted by the WHO and the central and Delhi governments due to the influx of migrant labor into Delhi for the city development work leading up to the Games. The Union Minister for Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation, and Tourism, Kumari Selja had claimed that,

“The Commonwealth Games will act as a boon for poor people. Both the Delhi government and the ministry will do whatever we can in planning and providing funds to ensure that they have better houses.” This did not translate into reality despite new slum redevelopment schemes such as BSUP under JNNURM or RAY.

2.5 Slums and MPDs

MPD 1962 was a foundational master plan for the most planned city of India, its capital, but realizing its legally mandated visions proved to be problematic as was evident in its 10 year review. The review noted that neglecting provisions for low-cost housing for the urban poor as clearly outlined in the master plan and failure to renew blighted urban areas led to proliferation of more slums. Slum clearance was taken up on a war footing by Delhi Development Authority following these findings on a scale unprecedented in India’s urban history particularly during the period of “Emergency” in 1975-76 when President’s Rule was imposed on the country and all normal functioning suspended with the ruling party appropriating autocratic control of the state. What ideas and policies could not achieve for over a decade, autocratic political power achieved in a few short years. Political power had also tried to provide housing to India’s urban poor: in 1990, the pro-poor government led by Prime Minister V. P. Singh earnestly tried to amend India’s Constitution to make the right to housing a fundamental

human right but unfortunately this government did not last long enough to constitutionally provide housing security to the urban poor (Ramanathan 2006).

Slum clearance drives became fewer in the eighties following more benevolent slum improvement programs adopted by the state. However, post India’s economic liberalization in 1991 economic growth fuelled the aspirations of the growing middle-class which believed in the official narrative of world-class cities and the power of aesthetic transformation of Indian megacities into global cities. They filed public interest litigations seeking to delegitimize the rights of the poor to urban land, which led to the second wave of mass slum clearance drives particularly in Delhi following judicial rulings while city governments remained silent (Bhan 2009). In the newest master plan of Delhi, the struggle to create a more inclusive city imagination that represents the concerns of the aspiring middle classes and the needs of the growing urban poor continue.

2.6 Master Plan of Delhi (MPD): A snapshot

2.6.1 Vision

Vision-2021 is to make Delhi a global metropolis and a world-class city, where all the people would be engaged in productive work with a better quality of life, living in a sustainable environment. This will, amongst other things, necessitate planning and action to meet:

- The challenge of population growth and in- migration into Delhi;
- Provision of adequate housing, particularly for the weaker sections of the society;
- Addressing the problems of small enterprises, particularly in the unorganized informal sector;
- Dealing with the issue of slums, up-gradation of old and dilapidated areas of the city; provision of adequate infrastructure services;
- Conservation of the environment;
- Preservation of Delhi's heritage and blending it with the new and complex modern patterns of development;
- All the above to be achieved within a framework of sustainable development, public-private and community participation and a spirit of ownership and a sense of belonging among its citizens

2.6.2 What's new in MPD 2021?

- Decentralized Local Planning by participatory approach (has not happened for various reasons as discussed below)
- Performance Oriented Planning and development with focus on implementation and monitoring (no clear structure or process outlined as discussed below)
- Housing for Poor
- Increase in Density
- Sustainable Development

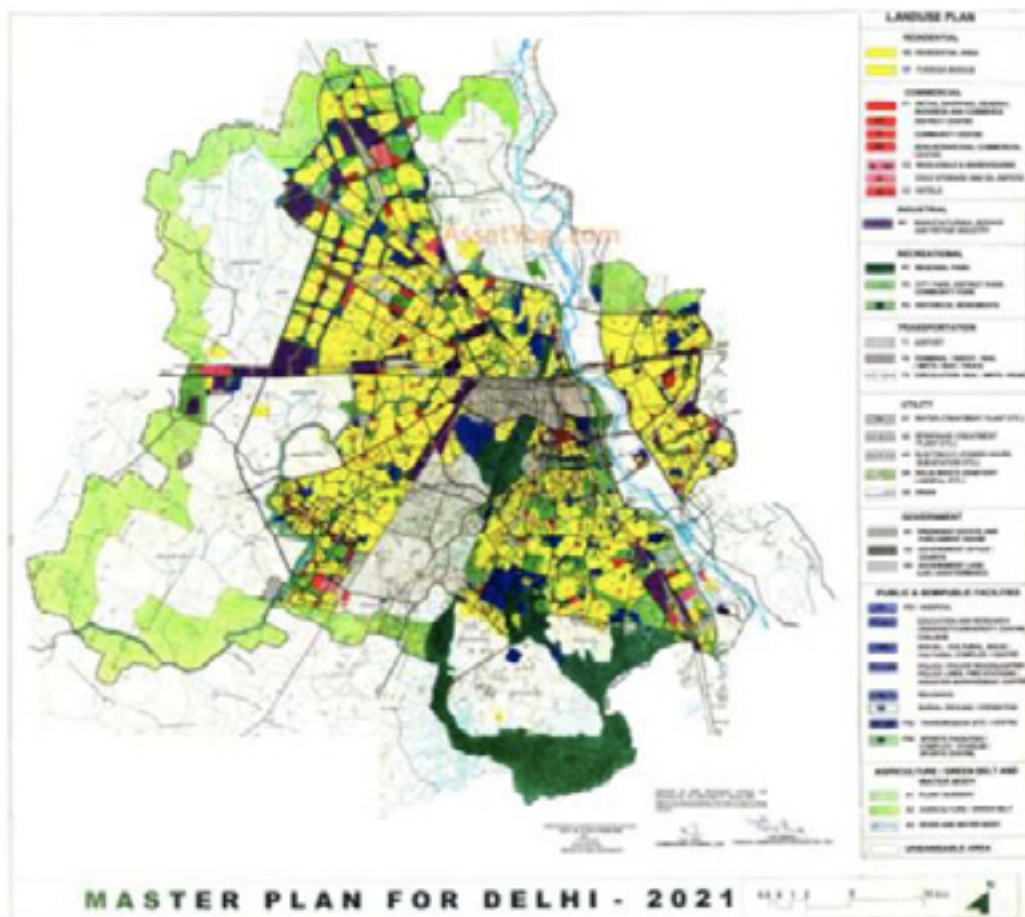


Figure 4: Land use plan in MPD 2021

2.6.3 Criticisms

Reviews by urban think tanks and civil society groups have criticized the draft MPD 2021 for several omissions in the process of its formulation as well as the content and form of the plan itself. Some of these omissions continue even in the final version. These include but are not limited to:

- **Lack of research and studies:** The plan did not conduct adequate research or adequately use contemporary tools such as Geographic Information Systems (GIS) to understand the reality of Delhi's urban complexity both in term of land and its population. Many areas which are demarcated for urban growth have unauthorized settlements on the ground and are not empty land.
- **Backlog of previous plans:** Backlog of incomplete development activities from previous Master Plan periods are not included. In the context of immense shortfalls from previous MPD periods in housing and other sectors such as commercial land development etc, MPD 2021 does not provide any vision or guidance on of how to meet backlogs and the new projected development targets till 2021.
- **No integration of what already exists:** MPD 2021 does not provide a comprehensive vision for the city as it fails to understand in an integrated way the current demands as well as operational practices in different sectors. It instead focuses on development controls which typically are stand alone documents and not part of comprehensive plans.
- **Participation:** The idea of people's participation in planning though mentioned in MPD 2021 is yet to be

realized in the context of Delhi. The only scope people have for giving inputs is in the local area plans or the layout plans for local areas which are at the bottom of the urban hierarchy of planned areas (see table 1). Even though Residents Welfare Associations are gaining legitimacy for local area decision-making in partnership with local councilors and MLAs, planning issues are not typically taken up by RWAs and no layout plan has been prepared in Delhi through this structure. Perhaps the lack of representation of the "ward" in the planning hierarchy is a missed opportunity for strengthening decentralized local planning. According to the 74th Constitutional Amendment the decentralization of local governance is upto the WARD level with resource allocations for urban development according to the schedule 12 of the Constitution. The ward is also a convergence platform for participatory bottom up planning with the involvement of different community groups for local area plans (LAPs) as per UDPFI guidelines.

- **Lack of understanding of informality as a resource:** In a review of the draft MPD 2021, Hazard Centre (2007) contends there is people's participation only in making of the city work despite the master plan through mechanisms of the informal city. This they believe is because of the non-implementation of Master Plan activities from previous MPDs, there has been extensive community, collective, and individual participation in the making of the city and sustaining its economy. This review concludes that any realistic Master Plan will have to address the issues of regularisation and legalisation of these initiatives in extensive participation by the people of the city - subject to regulation according to realistic norms.

Level	Population	To be included in Layout Plan (LOP) /Zonal Plan (ZP)
Housing Area	5000	LOP
Neighborhood	10,000	LOP
Community	1,00,000	LOP and ZP
District	5,00,000	LOP and ZP
Zone/subcity	10,00,000	Mostly ZP

- Accountability:** The second new idea in the master plan is about accountability: performance oriented planning and development with focus on implementation and monitoring. Even though there is a public hearing process and a monitoring mechanism associated with master planning in Delhi, due to clear protocols and transparency such processes have rarely been carried out. All three master plans, and especially the last one received public objections in thousands indicating growing public concern with planning especially in 2006 when Delhi faced a ceiling drive of commercial activities in residential areas. As the draft MPD 2021 was out at that time, the plan provisions received a lot of attention as people of Delhi was concerned about the lack of affordable and legitimate work places, the backlog of which from previous plan periods had choked the city and prompted people to resort to informal ways of accommodating their businesses typically in their residences.
- Lack of transparent processes:** MPD 2021 proposed setting up of 10 management action groups for monitoring and review. However these processes were internal to DDA and the decisions are taken purely at their discretion. Hazard centre had recommended replacing such processes with a transparent and independent one in which the participation of citizens becomes mandatory through the formation of Mohalla Sabhas and Samitis, as opposed to the present Ward Committees.
- Children as an ignored demographic group:** The MDP 2021 in its demographic analysis of Delhi's population and employment dedicate a section to "Elderly and Children Population". It tabulates the decadal growth rate of these two populations, persons aged +60 years and persons aged 0-14 years, from 1991-2021. According to these projections the population of children shows a declining trend (29.5% in 2011, 21.7% in 2021). But this does not imply a decrease in absolute numbers which will continue to rise making the need for a child friendly city an absolute priority. This view is corroborated by the Perspective Plan for Delhi by National Institute of Urban Affairs (NIUA) that looked at Delhi beyond MPD 2021. However MPD 2021 in this section discusses a vision for the elderly in the city and says nothing about children despite the fact that one third of Delhi's population comprises children in the age group of 0-14 years and another 10% in the age group of 15-19 years. This highlights the paucity of urban imagination for children in urban planning in India.

2.7 Achievements and shortcomings of planned urban development in Delhi

In the two master plan periods covered by MPDs 1962 and 2001, roughly half the projected land was not developed. Particularly for low-income housing, of the 27,487 hectares of land that the DDA was supposed to develop in the 20-year period of the first master plan, only 15,540 was acquired. Similarly, in 1962, the total existing urban residential land was 4,694 hectares. The plan proposed to add another 14,479 hectares by 1981. But the land actually developed was only 7,316 hectares. (Bhan 2006).

The Human Developments Reports of Delhi (2006 and 2013) sums up the gains and gaps in Delhi's development through perception surveys. Even though the average per capita income for Delhi in 2012-13 is nearly three times the estimate for the all-India, the city continues to neglect the vulnerable populations, especially street children, homeless, differently able and other marginalised population. Some of the key findings of the HDR are tabulated below:

Sectors	Gains	Gaps
Environment		Many environmental concerns arise due to the lack of private toilets, open drains in some areas, especially in slums, open garbage disposal as well as the contamination of the surface water in Delhi.

Migration	Rate of migration seems to have stabilized in Delhi during the last one decade	Though the rate of migration seems to be stable, in absolute terms, still around 75,000 people in a year migrate to the city in search of livelihoods and employment opportunities. Most live in unsanitary and unsafe housing with no tenure security.
Housing	Delhi has witnessed an overall improvement in housing between 2001 and 2011, with the housing shortage declining from approximately 250,000 to 150,000 over the period.	Despite increase in the housing situation, many in Delhi still live in overcrowded one-room houses even though a large number of houses in the city are lying vacant.
Basic services- water, sanitation, electricity and transportation	<p>Over 80 per cent of the households receiving water within their premises</p> <p>The Census, 2011, pegs the availability of toilet facilities within the household premises in Delhi, at nearly 90 per cent.</p> <p>Electricity has nearly universal coverage (99 per cent of the households) in Delhi</p> <p>Transportation infrastructure in the city, has improved with Metro, low-floor buses, construction of several flyovers etc.</p>	<p>Water: Although the poor receive free water, their supply is plagued with shortages especially in the summer months. Quality issues endanger health and hygiene. There is surface water deficit in the city and the groundwater is rapidly getting depleted in most of the districts.</p> <p>Sanitation: Among the nearly 0.4 million households living in the slums, just 50 per cent have access to latrine facilities within premises. Around 56 per cent of the children in the slums defecate in the open with serious consequences for hygiene, security and environment.</p> <p>Sewerage: Many settlements including slums also lack sewerage facilities. The open disposal of garbage and existence of open drains leads to the choking of these drains and flooding during the monsoons</p>
Homelessness	First state to introduce night shelters for the homeless	<p>Homeless people estimated to be 50-100,000. Of these, close to 50 per cent—is estimated to be children.</p> <p>Homeless women face insecurities about these shelters. The shelters are located in far off places, often found locked, and do not have adequate beds, and several have no water or toilet.</p>

<p>Health</p>	<p>The reach of primary healthcare facilities in Delhi has expanded, propelled by dispensaries, mobile clinics, school health clinics and Primary Urban Health Centres (PUHCs).</p> <p>Mission Convergence approach introduced to provide a holistic public health approach which gives due priority to the social determinants of health in policy formulations.</p>	<p>While both primary level clinics/ dispensaries and secondary level hospitals have significantly increased their capacities, the per capita availability of public health facilities in Delhi continues to be low, with less than 2 clinics per 10,000 population.</p> <p>The shortage of healthcare personnel remains a major handicap. As of 2012, less than 4 government physicians were available per 10,000 populations.</p>
<p>Education</p>	<p>Delhi's literacy rate, at around 86 per cent, is much higher than the all-India level (74 per cent).</p> <p>On an average, Delhi has 7.5 years of schooling as compared to the corresponding all-India figure of 4.8 years.</p> <p>Close to one-fifth of the population has acquired higher educational qualifications.</p>	<p>The gender gap in literacy now stands at approximately 11 percentage points (Census, 2011). The inter district variation in gender gap requires special attention, since these gap areas are from the pockets where the vulnerable population lives. Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Muslims have lower representation in higher education.</p> <p>The Perceptions Survey in Delhi HDR 2013 reports that nearly 70 per cent of the illiterate population in the sample was concentrated in four types of settlements: JJ clusters, unauthorised colonies, JJ resettlement colonies and urban villages.</p>
<p>Public safety</p>		<p>Women do not feel safe in the public transports, on poorly lit roads. Delhi has highest crime rate against women compared to other metros. People do not report many crimes due to fear of police harassment.</p>

Chapter 3: Methodology

The methodological framework for this study followed a set of key steps to develop a framework for the rapid child impact assessment of MPD 2021.

3.1 Literature review

The first task involved conducting an integrated review of current literature linking urban development; human development indicators for cities; planning processes and their evolution in the Indian context vulnerability and deprivation faced

by the urban poor, the homeless, street children, children in institutions; poverty reduction goals, strategies and programs; health, education and child well being. This review helped in sharpening the research questions, and the analytical framework.

3.2 Scope of the study

This rapid impact analysis will focus specifically on most vulnerable children in Delhi and their living environments:

1. Children in poor quality housing
2. Children living and working on streets
3. Children in institutions

The urban domains which have particular importance for poor children's lives in cities from a rights perspective are

1. Housing for urban poor
 - Insitu upgradation/Rehabilitation of slums
 - Resettlement colonies
 - New housing for urban poor

2. Social infrastructure

- Health
- Education
- Play and recreation facilities
- Sports facilities
- Social and cultural facilities
- Community facilities
- Safety
- Security

3.3 Research Design

Research Objectives

- To establish the connection between urban planning and the creation of safe and healthy living environments for children in cities.
- To understand the planning structures across the different tiers of government and the complexity and constraints of urban development in India
- To identify the gaps in the planning process and the provisions in MPD 2021 for the most vulnerable children in Delhi.
- To derive lessons for child friendly master-

planning for Indian cities by analyzing MPD 2021 from a child rights perspective

Assumptions:

1. The research adopts a rights-based approach to child focused development underpinned by the commitments to children in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC).
2. The research adopts the CRC definition of the child as a person under 18 years.
3. The research considers children as active agents and not passive victims.

Framework of Analysis:

This rapid impact analysis will use the framework developed in the National Plan of Action for Children in India 2005 for providing adequate living environments:

- To ensure a safe and healthy living environment for all children.
- To ensure creation of adequate opportunities and facilities at neighborhood level for play, recreation and cultural activities.
- To ensure access to safe drinking water and environmental sanitation.
- To ensure access to all basic physical and social services.
- To improve/provide basic standards in living conditions of slum dwellers.
- To improve safety standards and the safety of the child's environment and to prevent accidents.

Methods

The methods used for the city level studies included:

- Review of secondary data: content analysis of MPD 2021, and previous master plans; peer-reviewed articles on Delhi's city development; population dynamics disaggregated by age and sex from census and other sources for Delhi; other social indicators; city plans, municipal records, slum surveys, urban studies; national and state/province level child protection, health and education policies and programs
- Observational study: Site visits, child-led field trips and rapid assessments of some resettlement sites developed as per the master plan norms as well as unauthorized colonies whose minimum physical and social infrastructural improvements are mandated in the master plan till such sites are regularized.
- Focus group discussions: with children of different ages, community members, social workers
- Key Informant interviews: urban experts/planners; policymakers from urban think tanks, NGOs and community groups.

Chapter 4: Housing for the Poor

MPD 2021 sets the goal of providing adequate housing, particularly for the weaker sections of the society and slum improvement and upgradation as part of the vision of making Delhi a world class city. This engagement with the urban poor in MPD 2021 is not new as the previous master plan too had explicitly recognized the significant housing shortage in this sector. The MPD 2001 estimated that during 1981-2001, 13 lakh families would be added to the city (including 3.25 lakh i.e. 25 percent poor families) and 3 lakh houses would need replacement (including 1 lakh squatter housing already existing in 1981). Though hardly any housing for the poor was developed, MPD 2001 did anticipate that 4.25 lakh poor families would need housing by 2001 (Kumar 2006).

According to Census 2011 and the Report of the Committee on Slum Statistics/ Census (2010), the combined slum population of Delhi is approximately 32 lakhs. However, this figure is debatable and the actual number seems to be much higher than official statistics. Report of the Committee on Slum Statistics/ Slums (2010:22) projected slum population in absolute number for Delhi is 32,60,984 in 2012, nearly 20% of the total population of Delhi which as per Census 2011 is 1.67 crore.

As highlighted by the 65th Round of the National Sample Survey (NSS 2008-09), nearly 88% of slums

in Delhi largely depend on intermittent piped water supply; that 63% of slum-dwellers use tanks/flush type latrine facilities for sanitation; that underground sewerage is found to exist only in around 23% of slums and around 16% of the slums have no drainage system; that local bodies collect garbage only from 66% of the slums whose frequencies vary from 43% on a daily basis to once in eight days and above in 20% of the slums. Above and beyond, nearly 24% of the slums do not have any regular mechanism for garbage disposal (Government of Delhi 2010).

Historically Delhi Development Authority which is entrusted with the responsibility of acquiring and developing land on behalf of citizens of Delhi had failed miserably on both counts. As per MPD 1962 DDA was supposed to acquire 12,150 hectare of land for residential purposes by 1981. By 1984, DDA had only acquired 7,316 hectares which was about 60% of the total requirement (Misra et al 2003). MPD-2001 had projected that the city needed 16.2 lakh additional Domestic Units (DUs), but only about 5.6 lakhs were built by public agencies. In 2001, there were 7 lakh families in unauthorised colonies and 6 lakh families in jhuggi jhonpris (Hazard Centre 2007). As no other agency (other than government) had this mandate, the slow pace of development of serviceable land left people with no choice but to use informal means of settling down in vacant land.

4.1 Policies regarding squatter settlements and interpretation in MPD 2021

The government of Delhi adopted a “three-pronged strategy” for dealing with squatter settlements, which was approved by the DDA in 1992. It included the following:

- In situ upgradation for the clusters whose “encroached land pockets are not required by the concerned landowning agencies for another 15 to 20 years for any project implementation”;
- Relocation of jhuggi-jhompri clusters that are located on land required to implement projects in the “larger public interest”
- Environmental improvement of urban slums,

based on the provision of basic amenities for community use, in other clusters irrespective of the status of the encroached land.

MPD 2021 carries forward these strategies in spirit with several modifications when it proposes housing for urban poor to the extent of 50-55% of total housing. The plan provides a target of 75000 dus per year till the year 2021. It proposes ‘housing for the urban poor’ through the categories of economically weaker section (EWS) and lower income group (LIG) to be 54 percent of total housing. This translates to around 200,000 units for the period between 2007-2012. MPD 2021 identifies six housing typologies

(see table 3); insitu slum rehabilitation, relocation / reconstruction & up-gradation and group housing being the predominant typologies for housing the urban poor.

Table 3: Indicative Percentage of Housing Types in MPD 2021			
	Type	% housing Component for EWS/LIG	% of Total EWS/LIG Component
1	Slum and JJ- In-situ Rehabilitation; Relocation / Reconstruction & Up- gradation.	25	46.3
2	Houses on Independent Plots & Redevelopment	4	7.4
3	Group Housing (Min. 35% of total DUs mandatory 2 room or less)	14	25.9
4	Employer Housing	2	3.7
5	Unauthorised Regularised colonies infill	6	11.1
6	Other Housing areas/ Up-gradation of Old areas Traditional areas	3	5.6
	Total	54	100.0

Source: Ministry of Urban Development (2007) Gazette Notification S.O.141, p17 and 23, Ministry of Urban Development, Delhi, p.18

4.2 Role of Private Sector in MPD 2021

MPD 2021 proposes a major shift in promoting private sector participation in developing low- income housing in contrast to previous master plans that relied solely on the state as the provider of housing. In situ upgradation for the clusters in encroached land pockets that are not required by the concerned landowning agencies are now opened up to the market by bringing in private developers to develop the encroached land by stipulating 60% of the slum

land as the maximum residential component of the land for slum rehabilitation and designating 40% of the land to be used for remunerative purposes by the developer.

The key ideas promoted in the MPD 2021 to interest the private sector in the development of housing for the urban poor in both insitu rehabilitation and group housing are discussed in the following sections.

4.2.1 Using land as a resource for incentivizing private sector participation.

This the MPD 2021 does by allowing a shift from plotted to group housing and giving other incentives such as higher FAR; allowing part commercial use of the land and also through Transfer of Development Rights on another plot. Thus private players are able to free up prime land occupied by slums in central city locations to develop their projects. The complexities inherent in such an approach and the deep inequalities embedded in the developer's

proposals are highlighted by the struggles that both slum dwellers and the private developer are engaged in while implementing Delhi's first insitu slum rehabilitation through private sector participation in Katputli colony in West Delhi. See Annexure 1 for Katputli Colony insitu redevelopment case study that captures why people are against the current model of insitu slum rehabilitation by private developers.

4.2.2 High-rise density development in place of low-rise high density development as promoted in MPD 2001.

The vision of group housing as slum rehabilitation is premised on high density which is achieved through a permissible FAR of 400 and a density of 600 units per hectare with 10% variation on residential component of the land. The government in trying to implement BSUP housing in Delhi under JnNURM using these development norms have categorically said that it is only possible when EWS houses are constructed as multistoried structures (16 story or more). As the cost of construction per DU in multi-

storey housing is almost double of five storey walk-up structures, the government itself is going for the latter option in violation of the master plan norms of FAR and density. More importantly what kind of living environments does such high-rise, high-density slum rehabilitation housing produce? Since Delhi has not yet developed these, there are lessons to be learned from such experiments in Mumbai (see figure 4).



Figure 5: G+7 replacement housing for slums in M-East Ward, Mumbai with mixed use provisions in the ground floor which remain unallotted. Source: ACE 2014

4.2.3 Mandatory provision of EWS housing and for lower income category in all group housing developed in the city to the extent of 15% of permissible FAR or 35% of dwelling units on the plot, whichever is higher.

Under this norm, EWS housing is to be provided purely as adjuncts to middle, or high income group housing in developer built (state or private) projects across the city. Since the notification of these norms in MPD 2021 in 2007, many group housing projects have come up in the city but few such affordable EWS apartments are actually been handed over to EWS occupants after construction. Developers, even if they construct these EWS apartments in compliance with master plan norms to get completion certificates for their project, typically find ways to sell them to

higher-income buyers, who combine two or more EWS units to make attractive small apartments in prime locations.

Noted urban designer, Ranjit Sabikhi, writes that for low income housing, because the units are small, and larger numbers can be fitted in small land pockets, there is a tendency to squeeze them into areas of leftover land, wherever available. These are developed without support facilities. In many cities they are built as multi-storey blocks, with minimal dwelling units strung along corridors.

Such developments degenerate into squalid slums over short periods of time. What kind of family environments do these vertical slums promote?

What are the prospects for children to grow up safe and healthy in these environments?



Figure 6: High-rise EWS housing in the peripheries of a private development in Mumbai. Source: ACE 2014

4.2.4 Recategorisation of housing types, development control norms and differential densities to make EWS /LIG housing viable and economical.

Recategorisation of housing types: Poonam Prakash (n.d.) in her review of Low Income Housing Provisions in Delhi Master Plan 2021 explains what recategorization of housing means. Essentially it is about moving away from a plot-based provision of housing space which was typically through small plots of minimum 25 sq m to a dwelling unit or flat based conceptualization of residential space of 25 sq m. This adoption of a DU based typology for housing the poor was inevitable in the context of higher FAR and density which would otherwise legitimately give the poor higher built up area. As proposed by the

MPD 50-55 percent of the housing is to comprise of two room DUs or less.

Differential densities: The concept of differential densities abandoned in MPD 2001 was reintroduced in MPD 202. In addition to differential densities across different categories of housing, net densities have been increased significantly for slums rehabilitation projects and EWS housing and category I housing for lower income groups.

Proposed net residential densities in the MPD 2021 are as given:

Table 4: Differential density across housing type			
Housing Type	Built up area	Differential Density	Net Density
Slum/EWS housing	upto 30 sq.m	600 DUs/Ha	2700 pph
2	above30-upto40sq.m	500 DUs/ Ha	2250 pph
Category II	Above 40-upto 80 sq m	250 DUs/ Ha	900 pph
Category III	Above 80 sqm	175 DUs/Ha	788 pph

What this implies is that even in new housing for the urban poor, the densities are going to be 3 to 4 times higher than other residential areas of the city. The logic of higher density is premised on the need for sustainable development which calls for densifying our cities. However this differential allocation of densities reiterate and embed class divides in the spatial production of housing and lays the foundation for new ghettos and slums where people have reduced access to basic services and social infrastructure. The next section elaborates on that further.

The other very problematic trend is the further marginalization of the poor through increasing differential density to incentivize private developers. A case in point is the density relaxation from 600 du/ha to 1335 du/ha in the case of the in-situ rehabilitation scheme in A-14, Kalkaji, in south Delhi to make the project viable for the developer. This relaxation of the norm was done in consultation with Central Government. See Annexure 2: Case study of Govinpuri.

Differential norms for social infrastructure: The vision for adequate housing for the urban poor in Delhi is not only imagined through high densities where more people are packed in less and less of space vertically, but also through less and less of open space and other facilities available to them as part of basic services.

MPD 2021 promotes adopting “reduced space standards....Depending on the availability of land, facilities like community hall, dispensary etc. can be grouped together.” Through these strategies MPD 2021 achieves net densities typically three times or more high than the other areas and facility provisions that are one third that of general housing areas. So in Delhi’s vision of world class city about 50% of the population are subjected to substandard physical spaces and with reduced access to services. This is a direct violation of the housing rights of half the city.

Table 5: Facilities Provided for Neighbourhood level in general housing Vs. Slum/EWS Rehabilitation areas, Regularised Unauthorised Colonies

Facility	Area for General Housing (Sq.m./10000 persons)	Area for Slum Rehabilitation/ Unauthorised Colonies
Primary School	2000-4000 sq m	1600 sq m/10000 persons
Sr. Secondary School	6000 - 8000 sq m	2000 sq m/10000 persons
Multipurpose Hall/ Banquet Hall	800 - 2000	500 - 1000 sq m to group all these facilities
Basti Vikas Kendra	-	
Religious Site	800	
Health Centre	-	
Police Post	-	
Park/shishu vatika	5000	
Total	14600 - 19800	3700 sq.m.

Source: Ministry of Urban Development (2007) Gazette Notification S.O.141, p17 and 23, Ministry of Urban Development, Delhi, p.22-23.

Even though the master plan talks about essential retail outlets such as Milk Booths, Fair Price Shop, Kerosene Shop etc it is not clear where and how they should be provided. In the absence of any daily shopping provisions; it talks about providing informal trade units and weekly markets in urban poor housing areas.

One key issue linked to provisions of services from a child-centred perspective is the nature of access to these and the quality of these provisions. This point will be discussed in greater detail in the Narela resettlement case study

4.3 Resettlement Colonies

The predominant strategy adopted by the city of Delhi to provide housing for the poor had been through the instrument of removal of squatter settlements, often through forced evictions, and their relocation often conditionally in far off un-serviced land in the outskirts of the city. Till date 45 resettlement colonies have been developed by DDA since 1950 that had provided 250,000 plots.

65,000 squatter families were relocated in the period 1990 to 2007. There were two peak periods

of demolitions and relocations according to the slum and JJ department data, in the years 2000-02, and in 2006-07 (see the figure). Dupont (2008) in her analysis of the phenomenon attributes the first peak period to the “grand plan of development and beautification of the Yamuna river front, whose prerequisite was the clearance of the area from its “encroachments”; and the second to the many constructions on the Yamuna river bed including the Games village in the follow up to the 2010 Commonwealth Games.

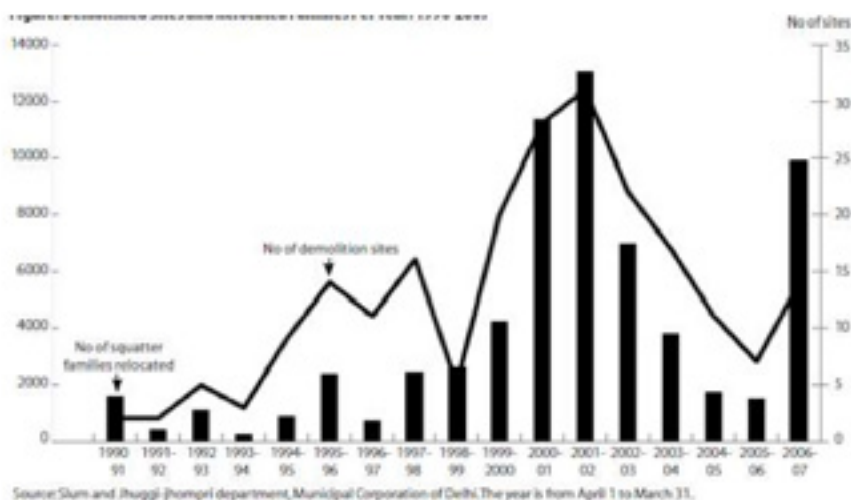


Figure 7: Demolished sites and relocated Families per year 1990-2007

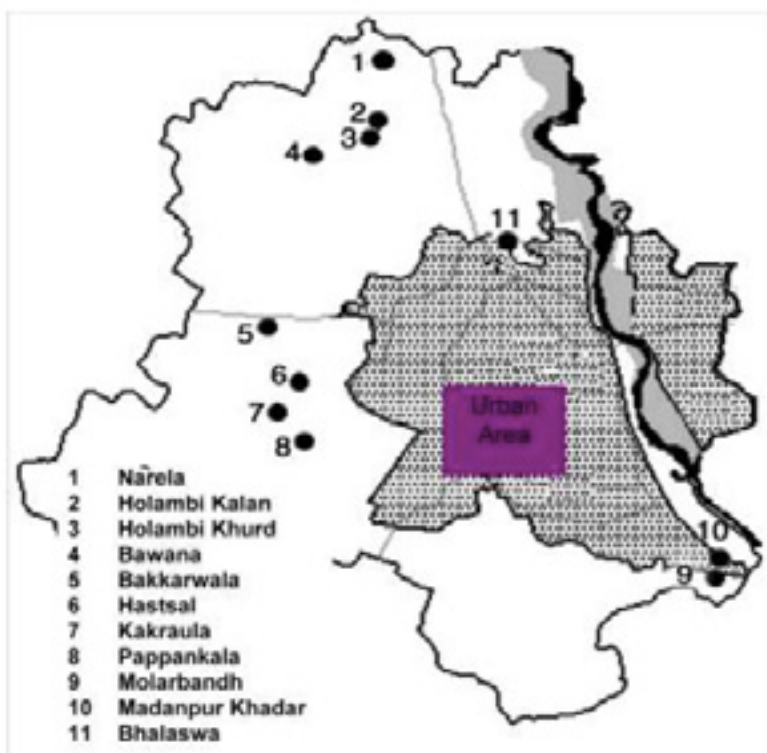


Figure 8: Resettlement sites in and around Delhi

The inadequate living environments in Delhi's resettlement sites are well documented (See also Annexure 3: Case study on Narela resettlement sites). MPD 2021 admits to the failure of adequate provisions in resettlement sites and calls for immediate need for enhancing water, sewerage and electricity. It further states to ensure healthier environments in these locations, state should no longer just give plots but allow construction on those plots based on approved or standard building plans. This is problematic at so many levels as the poor families who managed to buy conditional license to these plots for a short period were left to their own means to develop these plots without any subsidies

or access to loans for house construction. To further hold them accountable to any standard house type is to push them deeper in debt and poverty.

A study (Baud et al 2007) that maps the hotspots of poverty and deprivation using a multiple deprivation index based on the "livelihoods-assets framework" found poverty and deprivation to be spatially dispersed and diverse and not just concentrated to slums. In fact the spatial maps developed by this study include the resettlement areas in the peri-urban wards of the city in the deprivation hotspots (see figure 8).

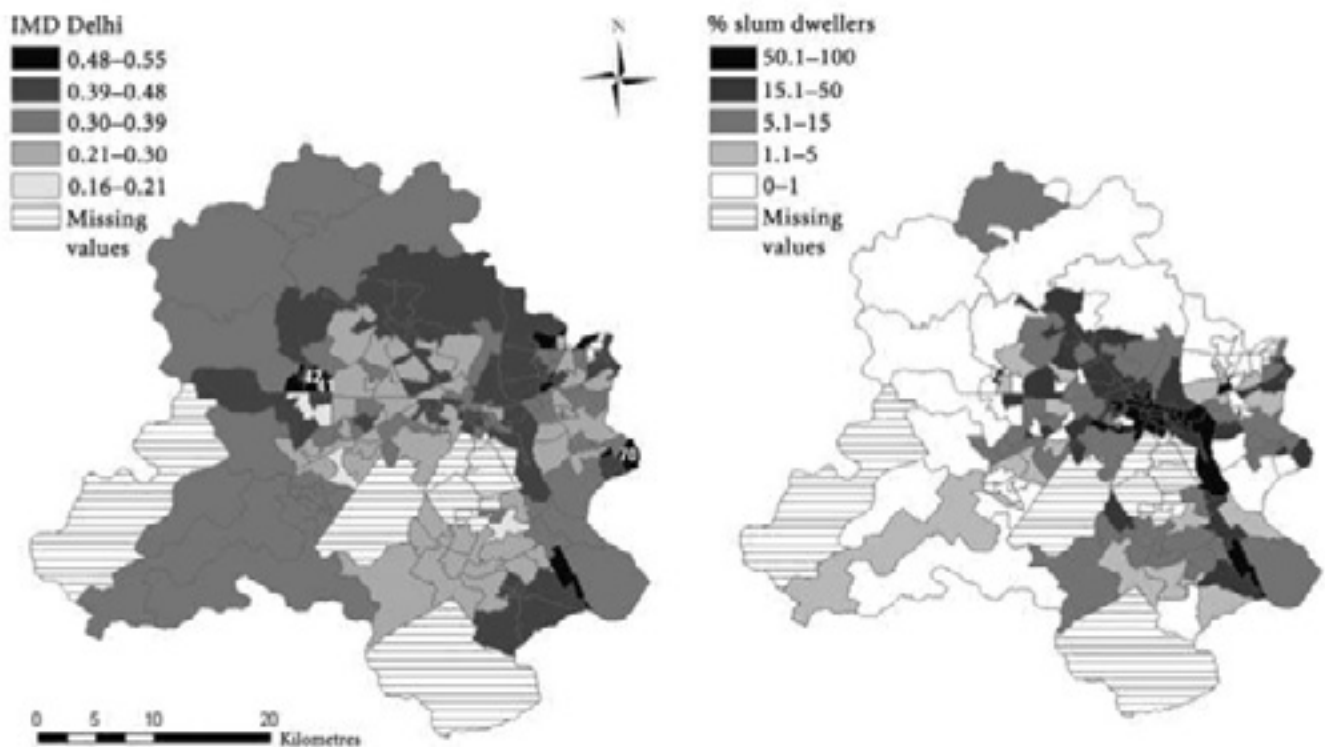


Figure 9: Wards with the highest poverty levels according to the Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) (map to the left) compared with wards with the highest percentage of inhabitants living in slums (map to the right). Source: Baud et al 2007.

MPD 2021 also encourages cooperative societies, private developers and government agencies to come forward to redevelop these sites with the differential densities and reduced facility norms for other urban poor housing. This will not only entail

fresh demolitions and evictions of the people in the resettlement sites but also complete erasure of the systems and assets people have managed to put together through their labour and some civil society action in some areas.

Chapter 5: Invisible Children

The Indian constitution provides equal rights to all for leading a dignified life. Yet, Delhi has a large population deprived of the basic protection and minimal human dignity of having a roof over their heads. Delhi, in its efforts to be a world class city

by becoming slum free has forced many citizens to become homeless who are forced to live on the streets, suffer the extremes of climate, live without sanitation or safe drinking water, and a safe place to sleep.

5.1 Who are homeless in Delhi?

Slum Census 2011 estimates show 3.341 million households against 3.176 million houses, indicating a shortage in housing. This shortage also includes the homeless population and those living in kuchcha houses (HDR2013). The Census 2011 data for Delhi states, "However, a large number of families in the nation's capital live in inadequate housing conditions or are homeless. Of a population of 167 lakh in the National Capital Territory (NCT) of Delhi, a population of 45 lakh lives in informal settlements, most of them without basic services and legal security of tenure."

Bhan et al (2013) suggest that though the extent of slum demolition without resettlement may not be a direct indicator for eviction induced homelessness, it nonetheless suggests the creation of urban conditions bearing an increased risk of homelessness. Conservative estimates suggest that at least half of the total numbers of families evicted from 1990 to 2007 were not resettled. It is however difficult to assess exactly how many evicted slum families who were excluded from the resettlement programmes remained homeless. Further, the house ownership patterns of the 2011 census indicates that there is a hidden homelessness; as most slum dwellers (about 54 percent) live in one room cramped houses, with no security of tenure many family members are forced to live and sleep on the street. Many homeless families share these accommodations on rental basis too. The Delhi government has the dual challenge of tackling both open and hidden homelessness.

A survey conducted by the IHD-GNCTD (2007) revealed a shelter-less population of 46,788 in Delhi. According to another study by the GNCTD-UNDP (2010), the shelter-less population in the city numbers 56,000. The survey conducted by Aashray Adhikar Abhiyan, an NGO working for housing the homeless in Delhi, in 2012, estimated the number of homeless around 150,000 or more. However, the

figures given by the government surveys are widely disputed as they under report the actual number of homeless. The frequent mobility of the homeless makes it more difficult to do any survey. Due to adoption of varied methodologies, the numbers may also often differ.

Children form a large proportion of this homeless population. Surveys by the various NGOs and other sources indicate that the number of street children in Delhi alone could be anywhere between 100000 to 125000. The main observations from the GNCTD-UNDP Survey (2010) for the homeless in Delhi identified that: majority of the homeless were young adults; a large number of them were children and 20 percent of them were less than 18 years old. These children due to lack of education, skills end up as child labourers and work under very demanding conditions. While all the major policy documents such as 12th Plan approach paper, 12th plan working group paper on Child Rights, Master Plan Delhi 2021 itself, articulate 'inclusiveness' as a core principle, the street children living within families or on the street continue to remain invisible in violation of their right to adequate standard of living.

The homeless or street families continue to be homeless due to many complex processes (CPR 2014):

- Eligibility criteria for resettlement: possession of ration card, proof of stay before cut-off date, Unique identification card by self or spouse, possession of SC/physically handicapped certificates as per category
- Lack of transparency in making decisions about who is eligible and who to reject
- Long winding verification process by the DUSIB,
- Resettlement only after disbursement of funds

according to the number of eligible families from the Land Owning Authority.

- No space for grievance redressal
- Compliance mandates the presence of the

applicant with all the documents, when the authorities visit; the homeless work each day in their informal productive activities, and are at risk of losing the daily income due to such procedures.

5.2 Street Children

A study on, "Surviving on the street,-A census of Street children in Delhi' by Institute of Human Development and Save the Children in 2013 identified 51000 street children in three categories. Street- living children, who and run away from home and living on their own on the street (28%); street working children who spent most of their time on the street but returned home to their families (29%), and children from street families (36%). These children were self employed, engaged as rag pickers, street vendors, and beggars. Some worked in the road side stalls, dhabas and doing petty jobs in manufacturing units. Their occupations varied according to location, season, and availability of work. However, rag picking was the most popular occupation among the surveyed children.

When the street children living with families were interviewed for the Save the Children study, North Delhi and South Delhi districts, reported that "some of them [street children] were slum dwellers and when the slum was demolished, the entire family was thrown out on the streets. Another reason for living on the street was the saving on rent; these families only had to pay some money to authorities whenever

they came to remove them from the pavement. These families normally slept under flyovers and on roadsides. Lack of housing, thus, seems to be a major reason for many becoming street children".

Majority of the surveyed children were from SC, ST and OBC communities. 75 % were Hindus, 17 % Muslims and 1% Christians. Among the children above 5 years of age, 50.5% children were not literate; 23 percent had some informal education in NGO schools. Very few wanted to pursue formal education, while most wanted o drop out due to expense, attitude of the teachers, inability to match school and working time. Many expressed aspiration for job related skill training. Access to basic services: Children accessed private clinics, obviously paying for a service; whenever they could, they accessed free health services such as mobile clinics, NGO services, and health camps. Similarly, many street children used paid services for accessing toilet facilities and drinking water. This indicates that though they may be nobody's children, they hardly received free services. They even had to earn to pay for accessing toilet services and drinking water to some extent.

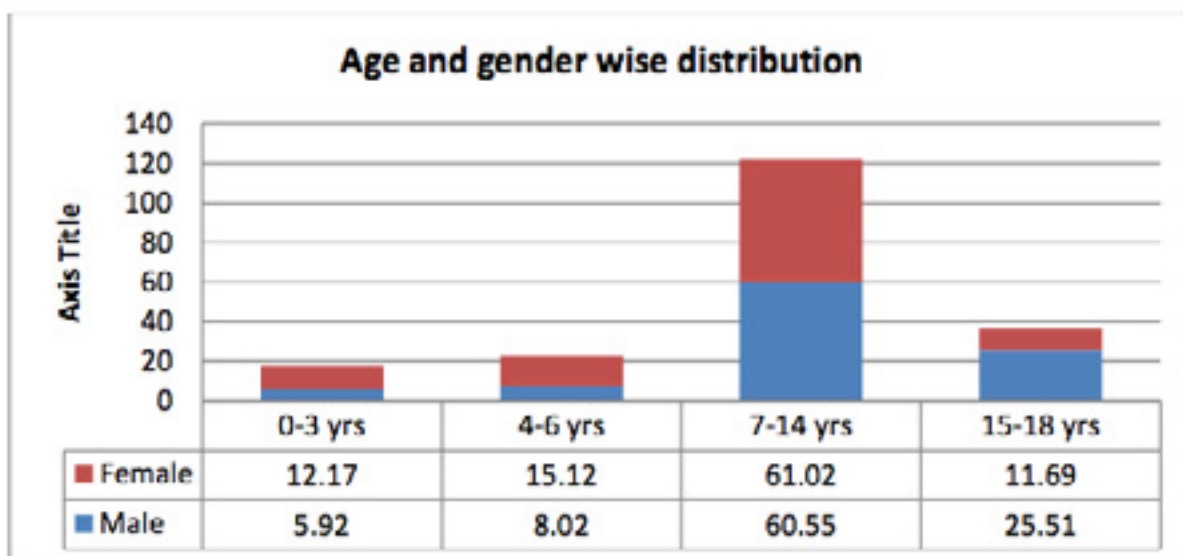


Figure 10: Age and Gender of Street Children in Delhi's Streets

5.2.1 Access to shelters by children:

The ideation of shelter for the homeless in MPD 2021 is only through provisions of night shelters with the norm of one night shelter for 1lakh population. The master plan promotes the idea of creating these shelters near major transport hubs and work centres but as mixed use facilities on top of commercial spaces for cost recovery by the city.

Currently in Delhi there are:

- 82 permanent night shelters
- 100 porta cabin night shelters

Out of the above

- 1 specifically for women
- 2 for destitute women and children
- 5 night shelters for children
- 1 for handicapped
- 1 for drug addicts

5.2.2 Open Shelters

Moving away from the concept of provision of night shelters, the Integrated Child Protection Scheme (ICPS) initiated by the Ministry of Women and Child Development aims to provide specific child friendly shelter services, in an integrated manner. The Delhi ICPS document mentions that, "in order to provide for the growing needs of these children", the ICPS facilitates for setting up of open shelters particularly in urban areas.

Such Open Shelters provide a space for children to:

- Play and learn
- Use their time productively and engage themselves in creative activities through music, dance, drama, yoga & meditation, computers, indoor and outdoor games, etc.
- Encourage meaningful peer group participation and interaction.

This will also ensure their overall growth and

Numbers of shelters are pitifully few for catering to more than 150,000 homeless in Delhi. In this competing scenario, chances of children getting access are rather limited.

According to the Save the children report , 'Surviving Delhi Streets' children feel unsafe to use the night shelters for fear of theft, physical abuse and many of the shelters lack basic services. According to the Save the Children report, 39.22 per cent of the children went back to their place or shanty in the slums to sleep. Nearly 46 per cent slept on pavements, under flyovers/ bridges, in parks, markets, and religious places, and in railway and bus stations. Among these locations, a higher concentration was observed in market places and railway stations, and under bridges/ flyovers. Only 4 per cent of the children said that they slept in the shelters provided by NGOs, governments, other organisations, and individuals. The share of girls who slept in open places like streets, places of worship, markets, parks, tourist spots, and work sites constituted 18.9 per cent; whereas more than 30 per cent of the boys slept in such places.

development, and keep them away from socially deviant behaviors in addition to fulfilling their basic requirements for food, nutrition and health. These shelters shall also have provisions for health care, quality and flexi-time education and vocational training, including provisions where children can safely keep their belongings and earnings. Counseling guidance and life skill education is also to be provided for channelizing these children's energy into productive endeavours"(ICPS Delhi, Annul report 2011-2012)

Open Shelters in urban and semi-urban areas cater to all children in need of care and protection particularly beggars, street and working children, rag pickers, small vendors, street performers, orphaned, deserted, trafficked and run-away children, children of migrant population and any other vulnerable group of children. Open Shelters are not meant to provide permanent residential facilities for children but will complement the existing institutional care facilities. This is expected to protect the children

from abuse and neglect on the street and provide them with alternatives and help them to lead a productive life. The open shelter will also be a place for the neighbourhood children to drop in after school to interact with the inmates.

While the ICPS initiative of open shelter and shelter homes can bring hope of visibility to the homeless and street children, it's efficacy will depend on the effective implementation in a child friendly manner and effective monitoring of the shelters to function

as enabling environments for children rather than just a roof.

A truly people-friendly and democratic master plan provides spaces for periodic review and updates based on new policy, research and changing realities. The open shelters for children which are daylong facilities are not currently in MPD 2021 but need to be created across the city for the well-being of thousands of children on the streets.

5.3 Shelter homes, Children's Homes and other institutions under JJ Act:

While a large number of urban marginalized children are in need of day care services, there are many others who require residential care for a temporary period for one or more reasons. These include children without parental care, run away children, migrant children, etc. While efforts are made to rehabilitate the child within the family, the shelter homes are expected to provide day and night care. This program is managed by NGOs.

A number of NGO managed shelters exclusively for children under 18 years are operational today. Complementing these efforts is the Childline a 24x7 helpline and drop in centres. The Salaam Baalak Trust is one of five NGOs in Delhi running a 24-hour service called Childline, a project of the ministry for social justice and empowerment. Anyone in Delhi who finds a street

child in need of help can call 1098 and automatically be connected to the NGO responsible for the area. The NGO will pick up the child as soon as possible.

The SBT operates in the central Delhi area; Prayas is responsible for the same service in north Delhi; Don Bosco in the west, Butterfly in the south and the Delhi Brotherhood Society in the east.

"While Aasra houses 6-14-year-olds, there is a separate drop-in shelter for children between 14-18 years. After schooling, they are encouraged to undergo vocational training. In collaboration with the Shramik Vidya Peeth in Ghaziabad, the SBT runs courses in tailoring, fashion design and computers, among others. In many cases, the training is followed up by industry placements.

MPD 2021 mentions night shelters and orphanages but has no planning norms, vision or any other guidelines for spatially locating and provisioning them at any of the urban hierarchies. ICPS lays down guidelines for setting up children's homes and other categories of institutions under JJ Act which need incorporation in MPD.

Chapter 6: Health, Education, Play and Recreation

These three domains are traditionally linked to children’s well being. We will briefly discuss each of these here.

6.1 Education

Even though the master plan sets the planning norms and standards for education facilities it does not discuss probable locations for education infrastructure at the housing are or neighborhood level. This has implications for implementing the RTE in Delhi which mandates a primary school within 1km and secondary school within 3 km of residential areas

Table 13.3: Planning Norms and Standards for Education Facilities

Sl. No.	Category	Population / unit (approx.)	Plot Area
1.	Primary School	10,000	0.2 - 0.4 ha
2.	Sr. Secondary School	10,000	0.6 - 0.8 ha
3.	School for Mentally challenged	10.0lakh	0.2 ha
4.	School for Physically challenged	10.0lakh	0.2 ha

Figure 11: Planning norms for Education facilities in MPD 2021

6.1.1 Number of Schools

Total number of schools in Delhi: 5023 for more than 7 million children

- Primary schools: 2563
- Middle schools: 588
- Senior Secondary/secondary schools: 1872
- % of Government share to total schools: 52.46%

- Number of recognized private schools: 2561
- Ratio of primary to upper primary schools:1.73

School Drop outs: 1.97

(Source: Statistical Abstract of Delhi 2012; Elementary Education in India based on U-DISE data 2013-14.)

6.1.2 Issues

- Shortage of schools
 - Inadequate spatial distribution of schools in every ward to fulfill RTE norms of 1km for primary school and 3 km for secondary school norms
 - Inadequate infrastructure of schools
 - Inadequate public transport access to school
 - Inadequate walking and cycling infrastructure around schools
 - There is no mapping of children with special needs
 - The provisions are not linked to real need assessment.
- Future master plan needs to address these issues.

6.2 Health

6.2.1 Number of Schools

The master plan 2021 has made provisions for 100 bedded hospitals for one lakh population, maternity homes per 50000 populations, nursing homes, poly clinics one per 50000 populations and dispensaries one per 10000 populations. The MPD however had not visualized the need for health infrastructure such as sub centres, PHCs, space for conducting mobile clinics that cater to the JJ clusters, unauthorised colonies and other slums, despite the fact that approximately 40% of Delhi's population live in these areas with considerable number of children in different age groups. When the mobile van comes, there should be place for registration of patients, place for check up with privacy and dispensing medicines. As per communication from the Directorate of Health and family welfare, GNCTD July 2013, there are 90 mobile dispensaries deployed and 430 urban health dispensaries in various locations in Delhi.

Additionally the Delhi government has introduced a new category known as Seed Primary Urban Health Centres (PUHC) from 2006 and are subsequently subsumed into comprehensive health structures. The primary service providers in these facilities are ANMs and ASHAs. These are expected to cover around 3 million vulnerable populations. The master plan did not make provisions for these facilities mandated by the government of India flagship program of the National Rural Health Mission and Delhi State Health Mission based on the Indian Public health Standards (IPHS) requirement to reach health services to vulnerable populations. PUHCs are currently functioning out of small rented accommodations. This again reiterates need for inter departmental coordination while making the master plan for a city.

Delhi also introduced a new category of health facility known as 'Primary Urban Health Centres' (PUHCs) providing OPD, ANC and PNC services as per guidelines for establishing national PHC norms. PUHC norms may vary between 30000 in sparsely populated areas and 75000 in densely populated areas. It is different from the normal PHC since it does not have beds (Master plan prescribes 10-15 bed for treating indoor and outdoor patients in a PHC) and will not be functional for 24x7 basis. The existing dispensaries will be upgraded to PUHCs with appropriate manpower and infrastructure etc in due course of time. A letter from

Directorate of Health services, Director of Planning in 2012 requested DDA to include the terminology PUHC in the nomenclature under "other health facilities" and to include it in table of definitions and permissible use and sub use zone in MPD 2021. Indicating that the dispensaries will also be upgraded to PUHCs in due course of time, it was requested that increase the FAR for this category (current dispensary) from 150 to 200 for PUHC. As MPD 2021 has not really been revised and updated through periodic review, this request from 2012 remains outstanding.

The dispensaries run by the DHS and other government bodies act as frontline health outlets, providing treatment for common ailments, essential medicines, and a number of preventive and health-promoting activities. While the master plan norms are for provision of one dispensary for 10000 populations, the current availability is grossly inadequate. The HDR 2013 points out the inadequacy thus: "With a population base of 16.7 million, a simple back-of-the envelope calculation yields an estimate of about 1.85 dispensaries for a population of 10,000, or roughly about one primary level facility for a population of 25,000 or 50000 families".

Even though sub-centres, primary health centres and community health centres are operational and in fact are in short supply in Delhi, MPD 2021 does not even recognize and hence exclude these categories from planning norms. The MCD operates 158 Maternal and Child Welfare (MNCW) centres, with a large pool of Auxiliary Nurse Midwives (ANMs) and Urban Accredited Social Health Activist (ASHA) engaged in outreach services that are specifically concerned with maternal and child health. For the smaller un-served clusters requiring outreach activities in primary health services, 90 such clinics are functional, of which 77 cover JJ clusters while 13 cover construction sites. A total of 430 locations are currently being covered, with half of the clinics being run through PPP initiatives launched in collaboration with several NGOs. The lack of convergence with existing and evolving city level services makes the provisions of health infrastructure in MPD 2021 almost meaningless particularly for the urban poor.

6.2.2 Present deficiencies in health facilities and people's perceptions

The SRS bulletin 2011 highlights the deficiencies in the availability of various health cadres as well as infrastructure. The sub centre (SC) and primary health centre (PHC) are the main health facilities available to the low income communities as primary health providers. The shortage in these categories are: over 50 percent in the Subcentre, and 45 percent in the PHC along with shortage of staff severely reduces access to primary health care by the vulnerable populations.

The uneven spread of primary health facilities across all areas /locations, coupled with severe staff crunch seriously dilute the quality of care for all and in particular for the poor.

A study by on "Delhi's slum dwellers: Deprivations, preferences and political engagement among the urban poor" (Banerjee et al 2012) highlights that 70% choose a private facility to treat minor health problems, and 43% for major health problems. People choose facilities primarily based on convenience/location and perceived quality. Two-thirds noticed problems in government hospitals; especially time taken (51%), busy staff (26%), no medicine (20%), and rude staff (16%). The Perceptions Survey in Delhi HDR 2013, report similar reasons for people's dislike of the public health facilities/services: long waiting times (89%), lack of privacy during consultations/or overcrowding (49 per cent); poor cleanliness and environment (24%) and long distances to reach the facilities (41%). No data is available to assess the rate of access of private health facilities by children and poor from the JJ clusters and other vulnerable areas. Nor is data available on how the economically weaker Sections are treated in

private specialty hospitals, which have been allotted land by the government on the condition that 25% outpatients and 10% inpatients will be treated free of cost from this category.

The two critical areas that Delhi government has to address are the declining child sex ratio in 0-6 years and slow rate of reduction in IMR with higher deaths concentrated in the neonatal period. Delhi is one for the five states that were with worst child sex ratio in the country (866). IMR is a strong health indicator that reflects the efficacy of the health system and coordination among the various service providers including water and sanitation, housing and other facilities. This also reflects the ability of the community to perceive the need to save the lives of their newborn and children young by timely use of appropriate health institutions, when children become sick. Conventional proximate determinants of infant mortality include the household environment, maternal characteristics (mothers' education and age at childbirth), poverty and living conditions.

A study in the Indian journal of community health indicates that "children living in slum areas are 1.3 times, 1.5 times and 1.2 times more likely to suffer from diarrhea, cough and fever respectively than children living in non-slum areas. Slum dwelling children are at a disadvantage due to higher risk of child morbidity, anemia and weight at the time of birth".

High prevalence of diarrhea is a stark reflection of the lack of clean drinking water and adequate sanitation facilities.

6.3 Play and Recreation

According to the general Comment 17 on article 31 (play article) of the United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child (UNCEC 1992), play and recreation are essential to children's health and wellbeing. They promote the development of creativity, imagination, self-confidence, self-efficacy and physical, social, cognitive and emotional strength and skills. They contribute to all aspects of learning. They are also a form of participation in everyday life, and are of intrinsic value to the child, purely in terms of the enjoyment and pleasure they afford.

Yet there are several barriers to achieving this fundamental right which represents the most spontaneous behaviour in childhood ranging from lack of recognition of the importance of play and recreation in schools, families and local communities; unsafe and hazardous environments; resistance to children's use of public space; pressure of educational attainment; commercialization of play; overtly structured and programmed schedules among others.

6.3.1 Role of local municipalities in providing for play and recreation

Local municipalities play an important role in securing the right to play of children in cities. For urban children to play safely certain kinds of environments need to be provided through planning. These include but are not limited to:

1. Availability of inclusive parks, sports grounds, and playgrounds which are safe and accessible to both girls and boys, children with disabilities, children from majority and minority communities and to children from the most marginalised communities;
2. Creation of a citywide network of numerous play places and promoting play affordances of everyday environments and public spaces at the local and city level.
3. Creation of safe zones, such as cul de sacs, closed roads, buffered sidewalks and separate pedestrian and bicycle paths, which designate children and the community, not traffic, as primary users of streets;

4. Provision of access to landscaped green areas, large open spaces and nature for play and recreation, which promote better health, and sense of well being, and lower levels of stress;

5. Road transport measures, including speed limits, road safety measures, levels of pollution, school crossings, traffic lights, and traffic calming measures to ensure the rights of children to play safely within their local communities;

6. Availability of safe, affordable and accessible transport to promote opportunities for participation in play and recreation;

7. Provision of clubs, sports facilities, organized games and activities for both girls and boys of all ages and from all communities;

Does the city of Delhi offer any of these environments for children's play and recreation through its master plan?

6.3.2 Delhi the green city

Delhi has the largest green cover of all large cities in India: 19%. It has over 15000 parks and gardens of which about 14000 are maintained by MCD, 1100 by NDMC. DDA has 4 regional parks, 111 district parks and 225 neighborhood parks. 80% of Delhi's schools have playgrounds.

1804 acres of land in Delhi currently under allocated for parks and open spaces under MPD with a proposal to add another 775 acres (State of Environment Report Delhi 2010).

One may argue that children are provided for in MPDs through open spaces such as tot-lots, playground space for primary and secondary school age children and local neighborhood parks within walking distance of neighborhoods, and in terms of educational infrastructure. It is now a well established fact that many a times, the area earmarked for parks is misused for another purpose which may have commercial value. Open spaces that are left undeveloped due to lack of funds or attention by concerned authorities end up being illegally encroached or being used as parking lots. The irresponsible attitude of respective civic authorities has been brought to light by a recent case

where the high court pulled up Delhi Development Authority (DDA), the government organization responsible for preparing Delhi's master plans, for violating the zonal plan by converting a park into a commercial complex at Loha Mandi of Naraina area. The plot was marked as 'P' but the plan did not clarify whether 'P' denoted plot, park or parking!

Also creation of parks and open spaces does not automatically mean they are child friendly or inclusive environments for children. The politics of access and use of outdoor spaces in Delhi such as local parks, playgrounds, gardens, city forests and vacant lots controlled by different agencies such as the DDA, the Municipal Corporation of Delhi (MCD) and the Residents Welfare Associations (RWA). These organizations more than ever before prevent children from playing in outdoor spaces as is evident from the many court cases filed by elderly members of RWAs in Delhi courts to prevent children from playing in neighbourhood parks which are legally mandated provisions for children in the master plan. Senior citizens in many RWAs across Delhi are against the use of neighborhood parks by children and there are court cases against children in Delhi from playing ball games

in parks. This year however many RWAs have come out in support of children's play in local areas. Acting on a PIL filed by a retired Supreme Court Judge on April 12,

2014 the high court has asked all civic bodies of Delhi to give detailed accounts of children's provisions in parks and open spaces in Delhi.

6.3.3 Ignoring play, privileging formal recreation and sports

MPD 2021 interchangeably uses the words play and sports while spelling out provisions even though these two are very different concepts.

MPD-2021 stipulates a hierarchy of play areas and sports facilities for five hierarchies of populations from the zone to the housing area. It calls for (though unrealized in reality):

1. Upgrading and efficiently re-planning existing sports infrastructure to provide better facilities
2. Providing/ developing new play fields preferably in the vicinity of educational institutions and landscape areas.
3. Making playground and sports facilities accessible by a network of pedestrian and cycle tracks wherever feasible.

The only two provisions for play at the neighbourhood

and housing area level have a space norm of 1 sq m per person. This is a big reduction from the MPD-1962 provisions of about 8 sq m per person. As many citizens groups working on the right to play are pointing out here is no policy on playgrounds within group housing and builders have been allowed to build without allocating for play spaces for children.

MPD 2021 makes provisions for formal recreation through parks but completely ignores the informal play and recreation of children which in the absence of planned facilities occur in the streets and left over open spaces of the city. In fact in all landuse categories of the master plan: residential, commercial, recreational, industry, transportation, government, public and semi- public facilities certain uses are permitted which include park, open parking, circulation and public utilities. Here too is a missed opportunity for providing for play through earmarking play areas or playgrounds as a permissible use across these landuse categories.

6.3.4 Parks are not play spaces in Delhi

Why are parks considered the only appropriate landscapes for play at the local level even when these have proved to be the sites of generational and gendered conflict? Historically children played in the streets, courtyards, squares, near monuments and continue to do so in most parts of the city particularly in slums and urban villages across the city. Delhi, the most planned and greenest city in India has thousands of parks dotting its neighborhoods and not a single playground. This has led to a belief in many that parks are legitimate play spaces, except they are not as the many court cases against children playing parks in Delhi demonstrate.

Delhi's planners were not interested in any planned distribution of play spaces and facilities but embraced

the idea of a neighborhood park as a lung space with some children's facilities tucked in a corner. In fact there is no designed "playground" in Delhi. The Children's Park at India Gate was the closest Delhi has as a city level equipped playground for children.

No attempt has yet been made to provide any alternate play spaces for children through planning and design at the local level even though most play happens on neighborhood streets and alleys. Concepts such as the Dutch Woonerf or the British Home Zone that redesigns the street to allow shared use by pedestrians, cyclists, cars and children are not even considered while designing new integrated townships and group housing following master plan norms.

Chapter 7: Discussions and Conclusions

The key findings of this rapid assessment are as follows:

1. MPD 2021 did not do adequate research or collect adequate data on ground level realities of proposed new urban areas to guide the planning process. This is the reason why new urban areas have been proposed in places where informal settlements already exist on the ground. MPD 2021 did not adopt modern flexible and strategic planning approaches, nor used urban research to strengthen the practice of urban planning by evaluating global change, national reforms and local dynamics.

2. Though there is a focus on housing for the poor in MPD 2021, there is no understanding of which groups among the urban poor are most deprived and vulnerable and where they are spatially located. MPD 2021 abandons the provision of plots to the poor as in previous master plans and instead promotes group housing. The vision for a world class city is based, to a large extent, on ridding the city of low-rise, high density slums and packing the poor in high-rise buildings insitu and in replacement housing blocks elsewhere. This will create a city with a fractured morphology, a green world-class city with plotted housing around parks for the rich and garbage strewn, dense, high-rise slab blocks for the poor. Such visions for public housing embracing modernist ideas of architecture and planning have failed miserably in the United States in the past where such high-rise slab buildings housing the poor had to be demolished to stop the spiraling crime and abuse such environments fostered.

3. Indian planners are narrowly trained as technocrats and lack the ability to deal with issues in development strategies, resource management, environmental protection, citizen participation, regulation and mechanisms of implementation. This is apparent in the lack of citizen participation in the process of plan-making, managing the objections filed by people through opaque processes to bypass accountability, many violations of the master plans by powerful interest groups including the government (as was seen during the CWG led city development activities), sanctioning of exemptions to enable illegal uses on river beds and other sensitive environmental areas. This is inevitable in a landuse planning approach as

in the current master plan without adequate social, economic and environmental planning safeguards.

4. Planners in India today are caught between the plan and the market as our planning approach is now market driven to finance city development. MPD 2021 envisages the implementation of all projects across sectors through the PPP model. This approach is also endorsed in the new Five Year Plans. MPD 2021 thus facilitates and incentivizes private developers to participate in the development of the city including in slum rehabilitation, new housing for the poor and resettlement. Typically developer built housing is based on fulfilling the stipulated norms of density and FAR while compromising on quality and social infrastructure. On top of that to increase profitability of projects MPD 2021 promotes differential density and reduced norms for social infrastructure norms to give less and less of space to the poor in the name of legal serviced housing while developers can freely develop signature projects and shopping malls in the freed up slum land without respecting the history, culture and social practices of the existing settlements.

5. Privately funded slum redevelopment through differential density and reduced spatial norms for social infrastructure is problematic at many levels. They clearly fail children as is seen in the case of the high-rise slum redevelopment in Mumbai. This is because:

a. A high-density development in high-rise blocks with 25 sq m apartments produce worse living conditions than in street-based low rise slums. These apartments are overcrowded as households have extended families staying with them at most times. In existing slums some members sleep outside in the streets which are a legitimate public space. Families also cook, wash clothes and utensils, bathe their children in the streets outside their crowded homes. In small flats strung along dark and dingy corridors, none of these spill-out activities can happen leading to stress and conflict for the entire family.

b. The open spaces which are created become easy places to drop garbage from higher floors. These result in the open spaces being hazardous dead spaces and children are forced to seek out green

patches outside the introverted layouts often next to dangerous sites such as deep drainage channels, railway tracks etc. the lack of opportunities for play, recreation, engagement in cultural activities and art n leisure time force children to engage in many unsafe practices such as substance abuse, gang activities among others.

c. The crime against women and children in Delhi show a very worrying trend.

d. The design of homes in fulfilling the mandate of two rooms, a kitchen and toilet leave no opportunities for home-based work or subletting for additional income. These are strategies used by the poor in utilizing their home to manage the conditions of poverty. In high-rise, high-density apartments kill these possibilities with implications for deeper childhood poverty which may force children to engage in hazardous work, drop out of school, be married off early or trafficked.

e. The lack of imagination of building typologies and spatial typologies in MPD 2021 for slum rehabilitation is bound to create conflict between the developer and the city on one hand and slum dwellers and civil society organizations on the other. This is evident in the two case studies of Govindpuri and Katputli Colony. Where people are engaged in paid work outside homes as in Govindpuri, flats in place of slum shacks are welcomed. However when people use their homes for work and practice of their craft which require spillover spaces and storage spaces as in the case of Katputli Colony, there is immense resistance to give up slum dwelling which are much better suited to their lifestyles than any 25 sq m flat ever can be.

6. Given the unhealthy living conditions for significant proportion of the city's population (notified slums: 738,915; identified slums: 1,046,475 in census 2011) particularly those in squatter settlements, resettlement colonies, night shelters among others, guidance needs to be provided in the master plan on healthful housing through environmental improvements which is mandated for slum settlement irrespective of legal status as well as for slum redevelopment projects in group housing. Such guidance needs to promote safer and child-friendly access conditions to social infrastructure and open spaces and improving quality of basic services and all infrastructure from a child-centred approach.

There is a direct connection between child health and physical conditions of living environments. Those connections need to be established and included in master plans of cities particularly under provisions for urban poor housing before development controls are drafted.

7. MPD 2021 policy on resettlements does not solve the issue of lack of adequate housing for the poor who were evicted from inner city slums between 2000-2010 and from before to redevelop and beautify the city. As the Narela case study highlights, even after 14 years of resettlement there is no basic services, social infrastructure or opportunity for people to upgrade their settlement using municipal funds. Till today there is no water, sanitation or electricity in these settlements which were part of a planned attempt to provide formal planned space to informal slum dwellers in the city. As Dupont (2008) point out most of these displaced slum sites remain vacant several years after their demolition. She questions the stated principle of the Delhi slum clearance policy which is "the removal and relocation of squatter settlements only when the land is required to implement projects in the larger public interest. This could also expose the incapacity of the landowning agency to implement its project, and more generally, a failure of urban redevelopment policy and governance, unless it merely evidences the agenda of "cleaning up" the city from its slums (p. 86)."

8. The widespread lack of sanitation in the city is acknowledge in MPD 2021 which notes the inadequacy of the sewerage system in Delhi, " it is pertinent to point-out that the existing capacity of sewerage system in Delhi is grossly inadequate, as only about 55% of the population is covered under organized sewerage system and about 15% under on-site sanitation systems. Rest of the population does not have proper access to sanitation facilities." Delhi state level schemes which specifically deal with water and sanitation services in urban slums in Delhi are: (a) in situ upgrade of JJ Clusters and Informal Shelter (implemented by DUSIB); (b) Environmental Improvement in Urban Slums (DUSIB); (c) Construction of Pay and Use Jan Savidha Complexes (DUSIB); (d) Additional Facilities in Jhuggi Jhopri Relocation Colonies (JJRCs) (implemented by MCD); (e) Augmentation of Sanitation in JJ Cluster (MCD); (f) Augmentation of water supply in JJ Clusters (implemented by DJB). The multiplicity of agencies

handling different components of WSS leads to a lack of accountability. The convergence of agencies and departments is important for resolving inter-institutional issues and problems. In the context of the Swatchh Bharat movement each and every community should have adequate sanitation. This will also greatly improve child health and well-being. Future MPDs need to have a strong policy of convergence of WSS in slum improvement/redevelopment/rehabilitation.

9. Even though Sub-centres, Primary Health Centres, Seed Primary Urban Health Centres, (PUHC) and Community Health Centres are operational and in fact are in short supply in Delhi, MPD 2021 does not even recognize these health facilities and hence exclude them from planning norms. The uneven spread of primary health facilities across all areas / locations, coupled with severe staff crunch seriously dilute the quality of care for all and in particular for the poor.

10. Future master plans need to have a more comprehensive vision for reducing inequities in accessing health services of the dispensaries and maternal health centre through systematic planning for setting up new facilities and augmenting the functioning of the existing ones. This needs some are based studies to understand locality specific services and required capacities especially in vulnerability and deprivation hotspots in the city. Moreover the vision for a healthy city should focus on lowering IMR by focusing on reducing neonatal death through promotion of safe and healthy living environments throughout the city, particularly in housing for the poor..

11. There is a lack of vision for children in MPD 2021 across all sectors even though children have been acknowledged as a vulnerable demographic group at par with the elderly. The child population of Delhi is significant: 5,500,000 in 0-14 years, and 1,700,000 in 15-19 years. There is no disaggregation of child demographic data based on age, gender and vulnerabilities. Most importantly there is no reference to the most vulnerable of children—the homeless, street-working children or children in JJ institutions in Delhi's master plan. Hence no provisions are made for them even though new laws and policies such as ICPS seek integration of these children in schools, community facilities and mandate their participation in society.

12. In the education sector there is not only a shortage of schools but the current unequal spatial distribution of schools across wards will make it impossible to fulfill RTE norms of locating schools within 1km of every residential neighborhood for primary school and 3 km for secondary schools.

13. Even though there is a public debate on the issue of whether schools should open their playgrounds after school hours to neighborhood children, there is no discussion about a major safety issue which is linked to access to schools through the provision of adequate public transport, and walking and cycling infrastructure around schools. A comprehensive plan should spell out a more holistic vision for schools in the city.

14. The ideation of schools in the MPD 2021 is only through formal schools. There needs to be allocation of city space for several different types of schools which cater to children with different abilities (MPD 2021 only recognizes physical and mental challenges) and special needs, non-formal schools, bridge schools etc. Any realistic provisions for these can only be based on a systematic mapping of children with special needs, abilities and vulnerable children.

15. MPD 2021 narrowly conceptualizes recreation only through formal provisions. There is a lack of understanding about children's play and the spatial provisions needed to support it in local areas through planning beyond the narrow conceptions of an ornamental park.

Concluding Remarks

The future of the world is inevitably urban, and that urban future of India is deeply connected to good planning. As Indian cities will continue to house significant children and youth populations, the mission of planning, which is "foresight", "focus on the future and pathways of change over time", and "persuasive storytelling about the future" need to address the prospects and vulnerabilities of children in cities and promote safe, healthy child friendly living environments. The future of Indian cities is complex, with multiple realities jostling for attention. To include all children in the vision for inclusive world-class/smart cities, as a rights based approach would require, would need a framework of understanding of children's issues as perceived by

children themselves and unpacking of vulnerability and deprivation by involving children in the process. This would also require mobilizing and legitimizing children's networks at the neighborhood level and federating them at the ward and city level to provide a platform for children's participation in planning of cities. Children minimally should be involved in conducting area level studies, particularly in deprived urban areas to provide a grounded evidence base on deprivation hotspots in the city for action in future city plans.

What is needed today is a synthesis of skills and capacity across board: planners, architects, development authorities, private developers, policy makers, ward and municipal officers, RWAs, women and children's groups among others to develop a

culture of participatory planning. To truly address and realize child-centred participatory planning, child-centred organizations may have to play a lead role in enabling understanding of the structure of the political argument about the future and link it to the future of children in Indian cities; create public inclusiveness in and generate public awareness of planning; promote the development of robust evidence bases about children's issues through production of quantitative and qualitative data; promote openness of communication between the planner and the planned through encouragement of multiple and alternative viewpoints about the future while embedding the planned future of Indian cities in promotion of children's rights and children's well-being.

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Annexure 1: Case Study for In-Situ Rehabilitation, Kathputli Colony

Background

Kathputli Colony, located in West Delhi's Shadipur Region, is Delhi's first in-situ rehabilitation project based on MPD 2021 norms through private sector participation. The project planning began in 2007 and in 2009 a private developer called Raheja was chosen to undertake the project. The project proposes to accommodate existing Kathputli Colony residents in 15-storey high-rise apartments, by using the differential density provision to free up 40% of the land for private development. 10% of the new development can be commercial in nature.

This project realizes several of MPD 2021's visions: shift from plotted housing to group housing for optimal utilization of land; Private sector participation for development / redevelopment of housing; removing unnecessary controls (like height) for optimum utilization of land and to facilitate creation of 'signature' projects. In Raheja's redevelopment proposal, other than providing high-rise high-density group housing for rehabilitating the slum, a 54 storey skyscraper called Raheja Phoenix is proposed along with a mall.



Figure 12: Location of Kathputli Colony and the Transit Camp

This project represents the first substantive experiment in privately developed in-situ slum rehabilitation and also the first experiment in skyscraper construction on slum land. It follows the following guidelines for housing for the poor in MPD 2021:

- Minimum plot size 2000 sqm (facing a min. road of 9m).
- Maximum density - 600 units per ha. + 10% variation, on residential component of the land.
- The scheme should be designed in a composite manner with an overall maximum FAR of 400 on the residential component of the land and FAR on the remunerative component of the land shall be as applicable for the relevant land use.
- Mixed land use / commercial component up to 10% of permissible FAR in the residential component of the land.
- Specific situations may require clubbing of scattered squatters with JJ sites in the neighbourhood to work out an overall comprehensive scheme.
- The minimum residential component of the land area for rehabilitation of squatters has to be 60% and maximum area for remunerative use has to be 40%.
- Area of dwelling unit for rehabilitation shall be around 25 to 30 sqm.
- Common parking is to be provided which can be relaxed wherever required, except for

- the parking for remunerative purposes.
- No restriction on ground coverage (except set backs)
- Schemes shall be approved by concerned local body

A Brief History of Kathputli:

The Kathputli colony came into existence in the early 1970s when a handful of itinerant performers from Rajasthan settled in West Delhi’s Shadipur region. For these artists who migrated to the capital, Shadipur is a convenient location for commuting to performances across the city. Over time, they were joined by a variety of other artists from states like Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra.

Around the time of the Emergency during 1975-1977 when a number of slums were demolished, the Kathputli settlement organized to form the Bhule Bhisre Kalakar Cooperative. They were helped by Asian Heritage Foundation which helped them gain international recognition through different performances.

Since the 1980s DDA had been trying to resettle Katputli Colony. Though the slum had been upgraded a number of times at different intervals, resettlement attempts had always failed as people refused to

move away from this central location. This new proposal for insitu rehabilitation in flats proposes to retain the community in its current location.

The Redevelopment Project:

- Developer – Raheja Developers
- Proposal as per DDA and Agreement with the developer

o flat measures 30.5 sq mtrs consisting of one room, another multipurpose room, a kitchen, a balcony, a bathing area and a W.C.

o There is provision of 1200mm clear space for staircases and lifts with power back up.

o RCC (Reinforced Cement Concrete) quality construction based on latest ISI/BIS codes with provision for earthquake resistant measures is assured. Structural design will be proof checked by reputed institutes like IIT/ CBRI/ SERC etc.



Figure 13: Renderings of the Katputli redevelopment proposal by the developer

Contract:

The contract was made between DDA and the Developer - Raheja in consultation with GPMA (the contract was prepared by GPMA). The contract listed the basic requirements the developer was expected to provide with specific building norms and amenities. It also stated the guidelines for the commercial development carried out by the developer. This commercial development was an added bonus that lay at the centre of the DDA's incentive scheme for attracting developers and, as such, the anxieties that surround the redevelopment project.

Community and Consent:

Kathputli colony was originally a colony of Rajasthani migrants, but now it comprises a number of different communities—including Gujaratis, Bihari Muslims, Adivasis from Warangal District in Andhra Pradesh, and Maharastrians—largely stratified along lines of geographical origin of its residents. The interaction with the community of the DDA officials was always through community head called "Pradhans". Kathputli residents indicate that there was little interaction between the community and the government officials.

Many NGOs are present in the area like the Bhule Bisre Kalakar and the Kalakar Trust who work with the community. Yet in spite recommendations of mandatory participation of civil society actors in both Master Plan 2021 and the RAY scheme, DDA made no effort to include these NGOs in the planning process. According to a few of the residents community participation was limited to receipt of information - residents were informed about how the project was envisioned. Others found out about the projects when dignitaries like the chief minister, etc, gathered to lay a foundation stone at the edge of the colony, thus signifying the commencement of the project.

However after the draft agreement, knowledge of the project is widespread; with most jhuggies having a DDA number painted on the front door after a survey was conducted.

The first clause of the agreement specified that a EWS dwelling unit will be transferred to the slum dweller for a yearly rent unspecified in the agreement. It further stated that the unit cannot be transferred or leased out for a period of 10 years, after which such transfer can take place only with the consent of the DDA. It requires that the slum dweller, on the termination

of lease, peaceably gave up the tenement to the authority, thus leaving the prospect of tenure doubtful. The agreement states that the maintenance of the final EWS accommodation built by Raheja Developers shall be carried out by the DDA until an association of slum dwellers is formed.

Surveying and Eligibility:

GPMA claims to have undertaken a physical and socio-economic survey in 2009. In their report, they identify 2704 dwellings and 13520 residents. However, details of how GPMA conducted the survey are still hazy. Subsequent surveys, by DDA and DUSIB, were conducted with the intention of verifying details of those covered by the first survey

The DDA's criteria for eligibility of flats are very vague. Eligibility for placement within the rehabilitation project is decided across several metrics, the most important of which is the residency cut-off date, before which a Kathputli resident has reasonable claim to property in the colony. Possession of documents that correspond to this date is crucial—a ration card, voter's I.D., and a V.P. Singh token have each been identified as documents required for proving residence in the colony.

Most of the residents in the colony fear that families residing in different floors of a slum structure had not been counted as separate household which may have implications for flat allotment.

Transit Camps:

The transit camp is situated on an empty DDA plot with a ring of settlements around it - authorized colony, unauthorized (now regularized) colony, recognized slum, and JJ cluster. The camp appears starkly out of place. Raheja built ivory, single-story blocks made of gypsum boards, each room with a single fan and a single electricity outlet. Unable to provide water and sewage to the camps, the DDA will also import a number of portable toilets for the residents.

Residents of Kathputli have mixed reactions to the transit housing. For some it provides a marked improvement in living conditions whereas others emphasise the lack of storage space (especially artisans, puppeteers and performing artists) and sanitation facilities close to the accommodation.

Environment Clearance:

The Kathputli project was presented before the State Level Expert Appraisal Committee (SEAC) in June 2011. At the June meeting, the committee asked for more information on the following, among others: ☐

1. Agreement on the project between DDA with M/s Raheja Developers Ltd.

2. Percentage land use demarcation for EWS, premium apartment, commercial block,

greenery, common facility, etc. in tabular form.

3. Area breakup details in tabular form showing each component separately.

The SEAC did not grant environmental clearance in their subsequent meeting in October 2011. Minutes of subsequent meetings until May 2013 do not mention the Raheja project.

Resistance to the project despite inadequate existing living conditions

Though the existing living conditions of the Kathputli residents are not comfortable but most of the residents prefer staying in slums than shifting to high rise flats because of the following reasons:

- The residents are not very sure of whether all of them would get an accommodation as the eligibility criteria had been left vague by DDA and the survey did not count households in a structure leading to

a fear that may households may become homeless. The residents need written agreements from both the developer and the DDA that each family presently living in Kathputli colony will be guaranteed accommodation in the upcoming project.

- The Transit Camps have been ready since 2013 but only about 500 families have actually moved there. The remaining residents are not willing to move because they do not trust the developer or DDA in actually giving them a decent house in exchange of their slum dwelling. The residents feel that the development proposed is not in their favour and once they move out of the community to the transit camp they will never be allowed to come back. There is some truth to this fear as the number of flats (2800) being provided is much less than the total number of eligible families (approximately 5000).
- Most residents of the community depend on the practice of their art and craft to earn a living. They require workshop and large storage space. In a high rise development residents are unsure of managing their work and family in a small living space. They need proper open areas designated as workshops.
- Residents are resisting moving to the transit camps as these do not have adequate provisions of basic services like water, sanitation, etc, and the residents will have to use mobile toilets.



Figure 14: Existing living conditions in Kathputli Colony

The residents have teamed up with local NGOs and filed a petition for a stay order on the construction process citing incorrect assessment of number of residents in the colony. However the stay was declined and the court asked the developers and DDA to make all efforts to persuade the residents to shift to the transit camp in Anand Parbat.

The Bhule Bisre Kalakar Co-operative Industrial Production Society Limited, the petitioner in the case, was also told by the court that those residents of the slum colony whose names do not feature in the list of people prepared by the DDA for relocation and shifting to transit camps should approach the land authority with their representation. The DDA also informed the court that the names of households entitled to a flat under the 'In-Situ Slum Rehabilitation Scheme' has been made public and 2,641 residents have been identified who will be rehabilitated to new flats once built. Advocate Rajiv Bansal, appearing for the DDA, told the court that under the proposed plan, eight towers will be built with a capacity of housing 2,800 economically weaker section (EWS) families. The DDA still has a margin of about 160 flats and would welcome genuine households who have been left out in the survey. Another PIL has been filed against the project by the residents and the NGOs saying that the project is against the guidelines for in-situ rehabilitation as stated in the Delhi Master Plan 2021.

There has not been any direct forced eviction incident, but on August 11th 2014, over 60 policemen entered the Kathputli Colony and dropped tear gas shells. The police broke into people's houses at night, breaking down doors and beat up the residents- men, women and even children- with batons, ransacked homes, damaged property, and molested women. The reason for the violent police action is said to be an alleged fight between a group of boys from this colony and those of neighbouring Pandav Nagar. Twelve residents of Kathputli Colony were taken in police custody on that night. While being beaten up and molested the residents were threatened with dire consequences if they did not sign the documents and moved to the transit camp. This has led the residents to believe that it might be a planned attack in order to threaten the residents. This incident has on one hand enraged the community and filled them fear on the other. The police claim the incident to be a minor tiff between a dozen boys from Kathputli Colony and neighbouring Pandav Nagar that escalated after police entered the colony.

In response to the clear unwillingness of the people to either sign the agreement or vacate the site, sources say that the developers have been offering money as incentives to people to move to the transit camp.

Annexure 2: Govindpuri Case Study as an example of New Housing for the Poor

Background

Govindpuri slum was informally created in the late 1960s initially by a large number of Bengali migrants who came to Delhi in search of livelihood. The settlement started as temporary hutments made of unprocessed locally available materials which over time transformed into self constructed brick structures with temporary roofs. The first cluster of hutments was named the Bhoomiheen Camp. Later two

more camps were added: Navjeevan Camp and the Nehru Camp. These Govindpuri slums were granted recognition in the mid of 1970s by Prime Minister Indira Gandhi.

Official surveys by DUSIB and DDA count 8000 families living in the slum. But this number varies from the actual number of people living there, as there is a large floating population of seasonal migrants and transit households on temporary rental accommodations.



Figure 15: Map of Govindpuri showing three contiguous camps or slum pockets. Source: Ace 2014.

Redevelopment Proposal

The rehabilitation of the Govindpuri Jhuggi-Jhopri settlements has been on the agenda of the Delhi government for a very long time, yet a successful resettlement plan was not formed till recently. DDA following the recommendations of MPD 2021 for in-situ

rehabilitation of slums and using tools such as differential density and social infrastructure norms developed a proposal for developing high-rise high-density housing in a vacant land nearby for relocating the three slum pockets along the main road. The housing project is called the Kalkaji In-Situ Housing Society and the site is located on Govindpuri Main Road

in Kalkaji Extension. The site being used for the development belongs to DDA and area including the slum pockets are designated for Urban Renewal in the Zonal Development Plan. As the proposed development is on a

nearby site and not on the land occupied by the slums, it may actually be considered new housing for the poor and not in-situ rehabilitation.

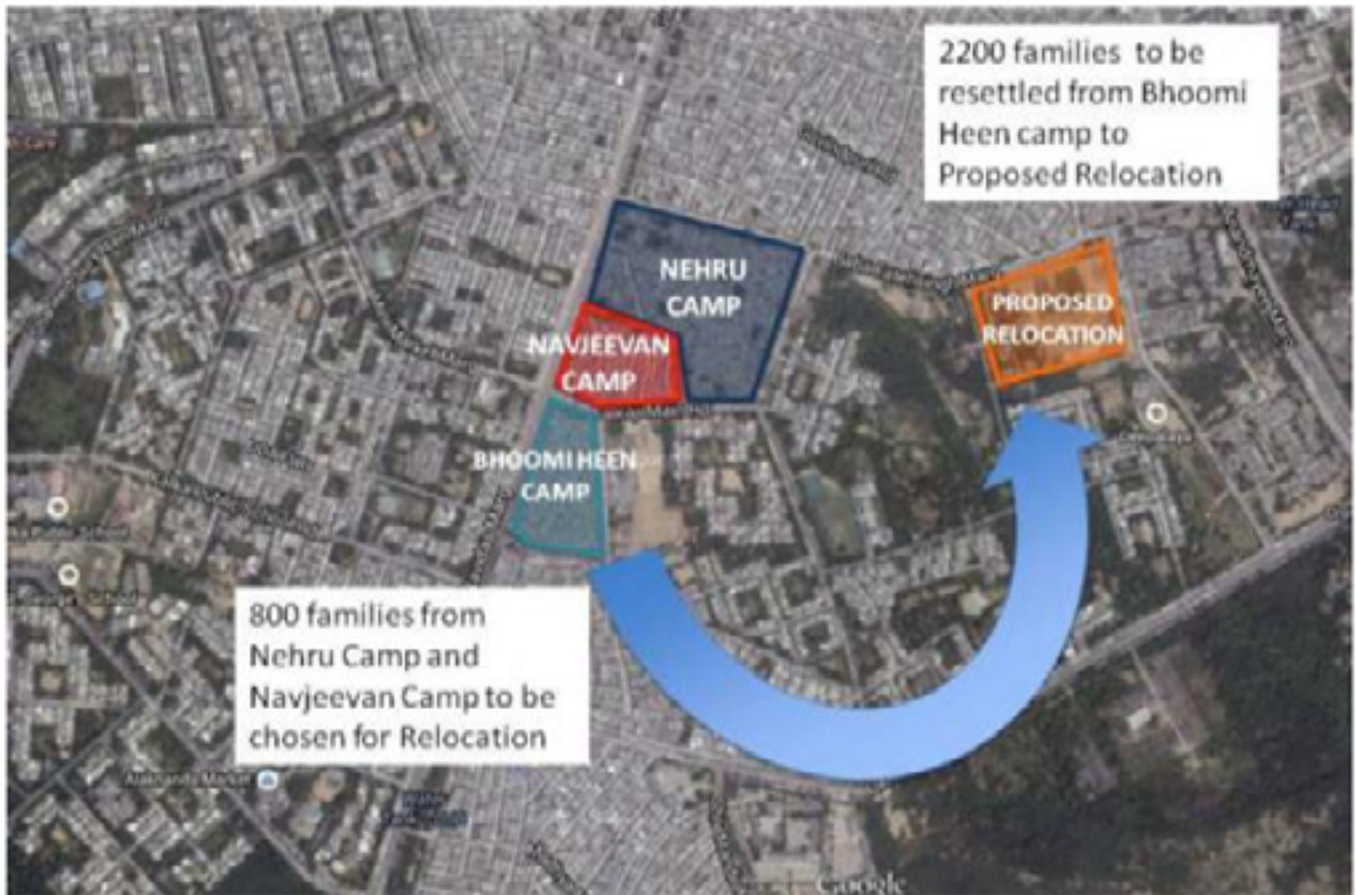


Figure 16: Proposed relocation of Govindpuri camps

This project is developed by DDA itself at an approximate cost of Rs 232 crore and its expected complete is by the end of 2016. A private architect designed the housing for DDA and a private contractor is executing the project on behalf of DDA. The project is to be executed in phases where initially only 3000 families out of the 8000 residing in the Bhumiheen camp, will be rehabilitated. After completion of phase 1 another housing will come up in the area (land cleared by the residents of Bhumiheen camp) to accommodate the remaining slum dwellers.

comprising a bedroom, a sitting room, a toilet, a kitchen and a balcony. In addition, there will be a community centre, places of worship, and a playground for children among other facilities. It is said that it will also have a rain-water harvesting system to manage water shortage during the summer months. The lack of access to the proposal raises several questions about what is put out in the media and what actually will be provided in the housing.

Process:

The housing project will be built on about 30,000 square metre area and will consist of 3,024 flats. The buildings will have 14 floors and a lift will be fitted in each building. Twenty-four of these flats will be reserved for DDA officials. Each flat will have an area of 37 square metre and will be a one-bedroom unit

- Surveys of the Bhoomi-Heen camp, Navjeevan camp and Nehru camp have been conducted by DUSIB collecting data on the number and profile of families, occupation etc.
- The 3000 first phase flats will be allotted based on yet undecided criteria by DDA to

those residents who possess Ration Cards.

- People are generally on board with the proposal as legitimate small flats on serviced land close to where they are currently living is considered a step up.

Since most people are engaged in the service sector working maids, drivers, peons in nearby areas, they do not find flats problematic as in the case of slum dwellers who thrive on home and community based micro-enterprises.

Existing Living Environment of Children



Figure 17: The public realm of existing Govindpuri camps where children hang out

The people of the Govindpuri slums live in close proximity in informally produced houses and spaces. The lanes are narrow and often hazardous filled with open drains. The water supply line runs inside the open drain presenting a high chance of water contamination and risk of water borne diseases. These water lines extend through the slums and are tapped into by the residents at certain points to supply a group of households typically 8-20 households. Sanitation is a major problem as public toilets

are ill maintained, and expensive to use on a daily basis by all members of the family. This leads open defecation in nearby open areas. Thus condition of physical infrastructure in the camps is extremely poor. 40 years of being recognized and despite the emphasis on environmental improvements in all slums in MPD 2021, no improvements in basic services were made in the slums of Govindpuri and Kalkaji except for the provision of electricity some ten years back.



Figure 18: Mapping Children's Mobility in Govindpuri Camps. Source: ACE



Figure 19: Inner lanes of Govindpuri slum

In case of social infrastructure, the community lacks government primary schools in the locality; the anganwadis present in the community are barely functional. There are senior secondary schools nearby but again the accessible routes are not very safe due to heavy traffic movement. The community lacked a playground until last year and the children, especially the boys, used to go to the nearby parks to play and the girls and young children were restricted to the inner streets within the community.

The only community space enjoyed by the residents is the plaza of the Kali Temple inside the community. Temples and mosques are present in the camps developed by the people themselves through community action and donations.

NGOs like Katha and Asha work in the community on basic health services and education. Katha runs a school in Govindpuri. Despite the presence of these NGOs substance abuse among adolescents is on the rise and many children reported dropping out of school to join paid work to support the family.

Conclusion

In spite of major emphasis on community participation and involvement of NGOs and Community Organisations in the Master Plan, DDA has failed to do so in creating the proposal for the Govindpuri slum rehabilitation. On interacting with the residents and the Community Organizations

it was observed that the people as well as the organisations had very little knowledge of the upcoming project.

The proposed development is likely to be a gated colony with small flats in 14 storey tower blocks. Though the proposal talks about community space within the area as seen in some press releases, whether these will actually be developed, even with the reduced space norms for slums as specified in MPD 2021, remains an open question.

As the new replacement housing and subsequent insitu housing in the freed up land of Bhumiheen Camp does not take away children from their existing networks, schools and local destinations, an urban renewal strategy for this area should really focus on improving access conditions and quality of existing social and physical infrastructure to serve the best interests of children.

As the land being developed comes under Urban renewal land use it should deal with improving basic urban services and access routes. Further, the livelihood of a number of residents depends on the commercial strip that has informally developed along the edge of the camps. What is the future of these enterprises in any future renewal proposal for the area? Is any mixed use components envisaged for the new housing? These questions remain unanswered as little information is made available to the public including residents not only about details of the plan but also about selection process of beneficiaries and the status of the project.

Case Study of Narela Resettlement Colonies

Background

The suburb of Narela provides several resettlement sites for relocating evicted slum populations from inner city locations due to city development activities. The resettlement colonies in Narela were developed with DDA's new concept of 'Incremental housing' that provided plots to EWS families as per MPD 2001 norms. Here incremental refers to

the ability of residents to build more than one floor on their plot.

Narela has six resettlement pockets (see figure 15) with residents being relocated from slums in Delhi's prime locations like Minto Road Area, JLN Stadium, ISBT, Seelampur, etc. The residents had initially migrated to Delhi from Kolkata, Bihar, UP for job opportunities.

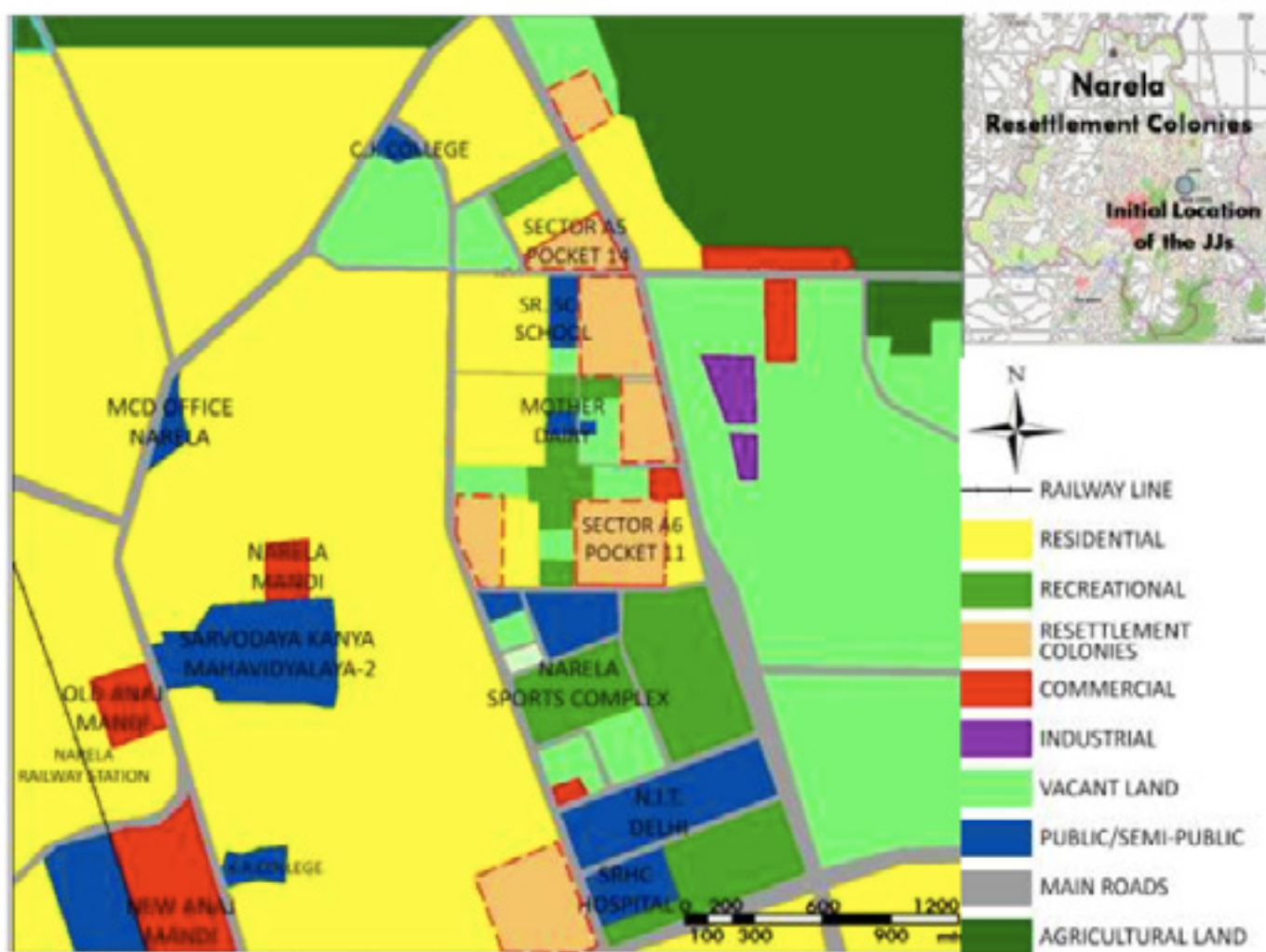


Figure 20: Landuse plan of Narela showing resettlement pockets

The plots were only allocated to the people who had sufficient documents, such as ration cards or other formal identity documents and ability to establish proof of stay prior to a cut off date. Many households were not able to furnish such proof that was needed to

secure a resettlement plot after being forcibly evicted. These families in the absence of any other options came with their neighbours to Narela and set up informal squatters in the left over spaces of the planned layout of the resettlement colony (See figure 21).



Figure 21: Squatters along the edges of the resettlement colony

Existing Situation

DDA not only allocated plots based on a gridded street based layout but also designated plots for various amenities like aaganwadi, schools, parks, community centres, Temple, Mosque, public toilets, etc. But development of most of these facilities was not undertaken by DDA till date. Land allocated for parks, temples, etc are still lying vacant. These unbuilt, unkempt spaces are unsafe especially for women and children who encounter groups of men hanging around

these liminal spaces on their way to fetch milk, groceries, and even when they head out for open defecation. Even after 14 years no provision has been made for water, sanitation, drainage, and social infrastructure such as community centre, etc. This inadequate and unequal distribution of commodities and amenities has caused visible distress among the people including among children living in this area. The informal ways by which residents seek water and electricity often lead to fights among neighbours who compete with each other to secure limited resources.



Figure 22: showing condition of infrastructure facilities in Sector A5 Pocket 14



Figure 23: showing condition of infrastructure facilities in Sector A6 Pocket 11

Social Infrastructure

The areas designated for parks are not maintained and are used as garbage dumping sites. Children do play in these hazardous areas in the absence of better options. The large open spaces adjacent to the Sector A6 Pocket 11 resettlement site are used by adults for playing cards, gambling etc which deter children from playing in those areas. The internal parks are ill maintained and used as parking lots in one case and storage spaces in another. Due to the unsafe environment outside the community, girls and younger children are restricted to the streets within their community. In all of the Pockets most of the Anganwadis present are dysfunctional, very few are functional on regular basis with adequate number of social workers and provision of mid-day meals.

The older children in the basti attend the nearby government schools where they are also provided with midday meals. But most of the children preferred carrying homemade lunch as the quality and quantity of the mid day meals were unsatisfactory to them. According to the children, teachers did not come regularly and thus they take private tuitions. The school constantly faced a water crisis and failed to provide proper sanitation facilities

especially for the boys. The community centres for each pocket were supposed to be run by private contractors. They remain locked and in sad state of disrepair. There is no community open space for people to socialize and use for recreational purposes. Even though there are areas designated for mosques and temples in the vicinity, the permission to build was never provided by the government.

Physical Infrastructure

No pocket provides individual water supply to houses. Some pockets have no supply at all and depend on MCD tanker. In some pockets there are stand posts, each of which is shared by more than 20 households. Due to the lack of water supply in the area, a few people who had water connections functioned as water lords for the rest of the community; they sell water to people in their vicinity. The water supply would only be given twice a day and residents would have to queue for it. This often meant that the children would have to go and collect the water in the morning before going to school. Most of the community toilets in the pocket were dysfunctional and locked up. The few which were open charged for each use. Few residents had toilets inside their houses and the rest resorted to open defecation. The

garbage collection vehicle would come on alternate days and the residents had to collect their household waste and carry to the vehicle for disposal. The inner streets of the pockets have no proper drainage system and outer roads have wide uncovered drains.

Conclusion

Even after 14 years of resettlement in Narela, there are no basic services, social infrastructure or opportunity for people to upgrade their settlement using municipal funds. As India embarks on a Swatchh Bharat Abhiyan, residents of Narela who paid to receive resettlement

plots from DDA are still living without water, sanitation or electricity in urban resettlement pockets which were part of a planned attempt to provide formal planned space to informal slum dwellers in the city.

Today the vision of resettlement is falling apart. The only thing it has succeeded in doing is made the city more inequitable for the poor, increased stress of urban living in a subserviced far off place and robbed children of their most fundamental rights: the right to survival and development, protection, non-discrimination and participation.