

A Study for
THE PLANNING FRAMEWORK
of the National Capital Region (Delhi Metropolitan Area)
in INDIA

by

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submitted as a thesis in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Master in City
Planning at the Massachusetts Institute of Techn-
nology --- May 23, 1955 (monday).

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May 23, 1955

Chairman,
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Sir,

I submit, herewith, "A STUDY FOR THE PLANNING FRAMEWORK OF
THE NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION (Delhi Metropolitan Area) in India",
as my thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of Master in City Planning.

Respectfully,

S. Saeedush Shafi

A B S T R A C T

TITLE: A STUDY FOR THE PLANNING FRAMEWORK OF THE NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION (DELHI METROPOLITAN AREA) IN INDIA

AUTHOR: S A Y E D S A E E D - U S H S H A F I

submitted as a thesis to the Department of City and Regional Planning at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology on May 23, 1955, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master in City Planning.

OBJECT: The aim of this thesis is to explore the basis, and to propose an institutional framework for urban and rural planning of the National Capital Region in India.

METHOD AND APPROACH:

- 1- A survey of the existing situation and metropolitan problems of Delhi Region with reference to its historical background and recent growth as the National Capital of free India, and an appraisal of some of the planning problems arising out of the existing administrative set-up;
- 2- An investigation for assigning an appropriate role, legal and social status for planning function in the Delhi Region with a view of the planning examples of certain selected metropolitan areas in various countries;
- 3- A formulation of some basic assumptions for the proposed planning framework.

PROPOSED PLANNING FRAMEWORK:

- 1- The Proposal for creating planning organization lays special emphasis on public participation in the planning process by providing for the local planning units, mohalla (neighborhood) committees and Local Area Planning Councils from which the members of the local Planning Boards are to be appointed.

- 2- The Proposal suggests reform in the existing administrative structure by asking for more powers and functions for the Delhi State Government as the nucleus of unified and popular administration.
- 3- The Proposal calls for the establishment of a National Capital Area Planning Authority by enactment of an appropriate legislation by the Parliament of India. The Agency would have the planning jurisdiction over the entire Capital Region. The Region would be subject to re-definition after every Census decade if necessary. The members of the Planning Agency to be selected by the Chief Commissioner, Delhi State in accordance with the prescribed method and appointed by the President of India;
- 4- The National Capital Area Planning Authority would be a representative body consisting of 35 members with the minister of Planning Delhi State as the Chairman, and the Director of Planning as the Secretary. The functions and powers of the Agency would include the planning jurisdiction, right to initiate regulative controls for the implementation of the Plan, Capital Improvement Plans for the entire region, and the power of land acquisition for planning purposes under the 4th Amendment of the Constitution of India;
- 5- The Proposal also provides for the formation of a Board of Appeals to be appointed by the President of India in a manner similar to the appointment of High Court Judges.

The Thesis includes an introductory chapter on the historical development of present Delhi and a brief account of some of the leading metropolitan planning frameworks in many countries of the world to justify the proposed framework.

The Thesis finally concludes with notes on future and immediate possibilities for a planning organization in the National Capital Region of India.

Thesis Advisor:

Frederick J. Adams
Professor of City Planning

A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S

I wish to express my gratitude and deep appreciation for the helpful suggestions and criticisms of my class-mates and members of the faculty. I am particularly indebted to my friend Thomas P. Melone who read the entire manuscript and offered his valuable suggestions. I also feel personally grateful to Professors Johan T. Howard and Roland B. Greeley for their constant guidance and encouragement throughout this work.

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INTRODUCTION

Among the fields of human endeavour which have received least attention during the recent past¹ in India, is the field of Urban and Rural Physical Planning. This has been so, not because the Indians were unaware or un-familiar with the concept of town planning, but perhaps due to the fact that physical planning as a Science is making its applications and significance felt now more than ever, even in the most developed countries of the world! Its proper use and application to the developing countries² is long due.

-
1. Recent past: a century or so.
 2. The term 'developing countries' or its forerunner 'under-developed countries' are euphemistically used to devote those countries that remained comparatively backward in the use and application of modern science and technology during the last two centuries.

An important aspect in the field of Urban Planning is the framework within which the planning decisions are evolved, and implemented. The planning function in modern communities is gaining importance everyday. The lack of planning function has led to tremendous problems, especially in bigger communities. Many problems that could have been put to solution by careful and conscientious planning decisions are left to flourish, because of the lack of effective integration of various administrative units and a regional organization. Moreover, there have been questions on the legal and social status of the planning function itself in almost all the countries of the West. These problems, in some form or the other, exists in India also and they not only have remained radically un-solved but also to some extent, basically un-attempted.

The purpose of this thesis is to appraise some of those problems in reference to the National Capital Region of India, and to explore a possible solution in which physical planning can be assigned the position it deserves.

The scope of this paper is confined to the following main categories:

- (a) To survey the metropolitan problems with special reference to the recent growth of Delhi Region in its new capacity as a National Capital of free India, and a centre of commerce and business in the North;
- (b) To identify from the above survey the problems that

have been existing due to lack of popular, co-herent and integrated metropolitan administration; and also due to the lack of any planning or planning organization;

(c) To explore, in the light of experiences of other countries and metropolitan areas, the nature and character of the planning function as well as its legal and social status,

(d) and finally to suggest a suitable planning framework based on certain assumptions, and objectives arrived at with Indian conditions and the position of Delhi as a National Capital Region in mind.

The aim of this thesis is not so much to solve the problems of the metropolitan region, but to focus the various problems into a proper perspective, and to point out a direction, a way -- a planning framework in which many aspects of the National Capital Region could be surveyed and analysed for eventual solutions.

Part A

B A C K G R O U N D

the problem and its setting

PART : A :

BACKGROUND

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GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Delhi State lies between $28^{\circ} 25'$ and $28^{\circ} 53'$ north latitude, and $76^{\circ} 90'$ and $77^{\circ} 20'$ east longitude. It is the smallest state in India. The greatest length of the state is 33 miles and greatest breadth is 30 miles. On its eastern side is the Yamuna River,¹ which enters the state at the north end and takes a course nearly due south, with an average fall of 10 to 11 inches to a mile. In the Monsoon,² when the river is flooded its breadth extends considerably, especially on the eastern banks where the slope is extremely gentle. In winter season however, its breadth contracts to the size of a small stream. The river

1. Also known as Jumna River.

2. Monsoon designates the rainy season of the year, when the country receives most of its annual rainfall.

frequently shifts its course.

East of the Delhi State is the state of Uttar Pradesh, with Districts of Meerut and Bulendshahar immediately abutting. On the other three sides is the state of Punjab, with Districts of Rohtak and Gurgaon. Among the important towns just outside the boundary of the Delhi State are: Ghaziabad (13 miles), in the east; Faridabad (17 miles), Ballabgarh (19 miles), and Gurgaon (18 miles) in the south; Bhadurgarh (18 miles) in the west; and Sonapat (23 miles) in the north.

Physically Delhi has been divided by the geographers into four natural regions, which are:

- 1 - Khadar: The low lying alluvial land along the River Yamuna is called the Khadar;
- 2 - Bangar: Bangar is the level plain, a considerable portion of which receives irrigation from the Western Yamuna Canal. The tract lying to the north of the Ridge and the west of the Grand Turk Road is known as Bangar;
- 3 - Dabar: In the south western portion of the Delhi State, there is another low lying area, near the town of Najafgarh where the water from the western side of the Ridge accumulates during the rainy season. This area has stiff hard soil known as Dabar;
- 4 - Ridge: The dominating physical feature of the state is the Ridge. The Ridge is the last spur of the Arravallis towards the rich and level plains of Hindustan. This

Ridge almost reaches the water's edge at the small village of Wazirabad, then runs parallel to the river encircling Shahjahanabad and extends to the western side of New Delhi, where on one of its spurs is situated the Central Secretariat of the Government of India. The Ridge goes further up to Mehrauli and Gurgaon in the south where it meets the Arravallis.

The whole space between the River and the Ridge is a triangle with the apex at Wazirabad, and the base extending between Tughlaqabad and Mehrauli which has been the site of Delhi's history.

HISTORICAL ORIGINS OF DELHI:

The origins of Delhi lie deep in the mysteries of the indefiniteness and shadows of the unknown. It has frequently changed its site, character and even its name, yet it has preserved a continuous existence. Ever since the epic of Mahabharata, it has survived the vicissitudes of time and fortune to become one of the most significant capitals of today.

The oldest city of Delhi, whose ancient name was Inderprastha, lies buried, in all probability, between the northern end of the Ridge, where it touches the Yamuna River near Wazirabad, and the huge mound on which stands the Purana Qila¹ close to the existing

1. Literally means old fort.

village of Inderpat¹. "That the city of Inderprastha stood on the traditional site is not altogether impossible, as will be seen; but there is no sign today of such a city. The probable date of its foundation, wherever it may have stood, was 1450 B.C."² However in the post-Mahabharata days, the city of Inderprastha declined in importance and was reduced in significance³. For several centuries the glory of being the Capital of Bharat⁴ was enjoyed in turn by Patliputra, Qannuj and Kashi⁵.

The earliest mention of a city named as Delhi occurs in the songs of Hindu bards; there is the story of the site having been abandoned for 792 years before it was re-peopled⁶.

First City: DILLI RAI PATHORA

It was only in the beginning of the eleventh century that a Tomar Rajput named Anangpal, established his Capital in A.D.1052 near the present village of Anandpur about 3 miles south-west of the ruins of Tughlaqabad⁷. It was named DIHLI. Since than this

1. It is believed that if the site of this mound is excavated, the remains of the ancient capital of Pandavas would be uncovered.
2. Gordon Risley HEARN: The Seven Cities of Delhi, p:70.
3. The centre of political gravity then was shifted to Patliputra in the east. Patliputra was situated where Patna stands now in Bihar.
4. Bharat is the ancient name for India;
5. Kashi is known today as Benares;
6. Gordon R. HEARN: Seven Cities of Delhi: p.71
7. Tughlaqabad was the 4th city.

name has come to be known. In A.D. 1150 the kingdom of Tomars passed into the hands of Chauhans of Ajmer, and Lal Kot became the headquarters of the famous Prithiviraj. It was later came to be known as Qila Rai Pathora (Fort of Rai Pathora). Its massive walls may still be traced through most of its perimeter. The remains of Hindu monuments are however few and far between; most of them being destroyed both by nature and man. The earliest known historical monument in Delhi is Suraj Kund. (Believed to be built in 686 A.D.) It is a great semi-circular tank about 3000 feet radius and is situated about 10 miles south of present New Delhi. It was believed to be a place where Sun was worshipped.

Second City: S I R I

In 1191 A.D. Rai Pathora repulsed the first invasion of Mohammed Shahabuddin Ghauri, but was defeated in 1193 A.D. when Mohammed Ghauri attacked for the second time. Mohammed Ghauri, however, returned to Afghanistan leaving behind Qutub-uddin Aybak as his Viceroy. Qutub-uddin Aybak was, by origin, a Turkish Slave and later on became an independent sovereign in 1205 A.D., and then began the realm of so-called 'slave-kings'.

The slave-kings were in turn succeeded by Khiljis. "A century later the confined area of the old city was not able to accomodate the growing population, and suburbs stretched out into the plains to the northeast."¹ A great horde of Moghuls invaded in India, and penetrated as far as Delhi and plundered the suburbs.

1. Ibid, P. 71.

Ala-u-ddin, therefore in 1303 had to entrench his army at Siri, and when the invaders retreated another city was constructed there.

Third City: TUGHLAQABAD

In A.D.1320, Tughlaq Shah came to occupy the kingdom of Delhi. He was a stern warrior, and at one time had been 'Warden of the Marches'. He was not at all content with the comparatively low walls of the existing city at Siri, which gave less security than he considered desirable. So he built a new city --- 5 miles eastward, round a rocky hill (on a part of the Ridge) providing the isolation and security he wanted. Rocky places, however, do not give facilities for water, which was an essential element for the establishment of an urban area. Although reservoirs may store water for some time yet it is difficult to keep people living happily at such places, particularly so when agriculture and food production was their main occupation.

It was therefore never fully occupied¹. Instead suburbs in

-
1. The traditional cause for the desertion of Tughlaqabad is ascribed to a curse from the Saint Nizam Uddin, who himself was engaged in building his own dwellings. The king being stern and autocratic employed all the masons, and thus would not allow them to work elsewhere. Still the masons would work for Nizam Uddin at night. On hearing this the Emperor forbade the lighting oil (to light their lamps). This annoyed the saint, and he is believed to have said: "May it remain deserted; or may it be a habitation for Gujars" (gypsies).

The present historians, however, are of the opinion that the saint on hearing the decision of the king regarding the building of a new city at a waterless and dry location opposed this. The saint had naturally a great popular support and, therefore, he started building a city by himself with the active support of his followers; the idea being that the masons would work there, and since that was better location in every aspect the king may eventually abandon the idea of building a new city at a wrong place. The town of Nizamudduin still exists side by side with New Delhi whereas Tughlaqabad is not even inhabited by Gujars.

shape of small villages began to spread. Ghias-u-ddin the successor to Mohammed Tughlaq reigned from 1325 to 1351, and he three times attempted to change his capital to Deogiri in Deccan (South India) but failed to do so. Failing this he built a huge wall called 'Jahanpanah' (Literally meaning: abode of peace) as a security measure for the suburbs of the city. This wall extended from Siri to Tughlaqabad.

Fourth City: FERUZABAD

In A.D. 1354 Feroz Shah Tughlaq built the new town as Ferozabad --- 4 to 5 miles north-east of Siri. The exact location and the extent of the city is not quite certain, but it covered a portion of the present Delhi city (Shahjahanabad). Kali Masjid, Turkman Gate, Khoni Gate, and Kotla Feroz Shah near Delhi Gate are still among its remains.

It was in 1398 A.D. when Tamur Lang (Tamar Lane) invaded India, and ransacked Delhi. Mahmood Tughlaq, one of the descendents of Feroz Tughlaq fled to Gujrat, and returned only after Tamur had returned, satisfied with carnage and plunder.

Fifth City: DIN PANAH

After the Moghul conquest Humayun, the second Moghul, built

and renovated area around the Purana Qila in 1534. He called that as Din Panah. This name was, however, fell out of use quickly. One of the reasons being the dethronement by Sher Shah in 1540.

Sixth City: DILLI SHER SHAH

Soon after the defeat of Humayuon in 1540 Sher Shah Suri became the monarch. He re-built the city entirely, and the renovated city was called as DILLI SHER SHAH. It extended from Humayuon's tomb (present location) to the citadel of Feroz Shah Tughlaq. Shar Shah's son also built a small model town called: Salimgarh, which lies at the north-eastern corner of the present Lal Qila (Red Fort).

In 1555 A.D. Humayuon regained the kingdom but soon after he died. His successors Akber the Great, and Jhangir mostly lived at Agra, and Lahore.

And for about a century Delhi seemed to be once more to have fallen to decay.

Seventh City: S H A H J A H A N A B A D:

Finally the seventh city was built by the famous Shah Jahan, the fifth Moghul Emperor who shifted his capital from Agra to the

present Delhi in 1639. The present Delhi City was then completed by 1648 with the Capitol at Lal Qila (Red Fort), and Jama Masjid. This was the largest, and most well-planned city of all that Delhi had had before. The fame of its Chandni Chowk (the Moonlit Avenue) with its exquisite landscaping went far and wide.

The decline of the Moghul Empire brought Marahattas in 1719 and Nadir Shah Durrani in 1739. Both of them played havoc with the city and its citizens, especially the massacre (quatel-e-aam) ordered by Nadir Shah which had no parallel in the entire history of India before. He also took away the famous 'Peacock Throne' (Takht-e-Tacous).

Almost all of Shahjahanabad is included in the present Delhi city with the heaviest concentration of population.

NEW DELHI:

Soon after the great revolt of 1857, the British consolidated their power. In 1911 the capital was shifted from Calcutta to Delhi. In February 1916 the New Capital Area was declared by the Government of India to house the 'Imperial government'. The new capital was planned by Sir Edwin Lutyens and Sir Herbert Baker. Eighteen years of strenuous labors of 29,000 men and women turned the barren land into a living city. Thus the New Delhi may be called as the 'ninth city' in the chronological order.

FORMATION OF DELHI AS A PROVINCE (STATE):

It was by a Proclamation by the Government of India on

September 17, 1912 by which the Tehsil¹ of Delhi, and the area limit of Mehrauli Police Station from the Thesil of Ballabgarh were constituted into a Chief Commissioner's Province. By another proclamation on February 22, 1915 another slice of territory comprising 65 villages (area limits of Shahdra Police Station) lying in United Provinces (now Uttar Pradesh) were included in Delhi. The area originally taken over extended to 528 square miles. Today the area of the State, according to the census of India 1951, is 577.8 square miles.

While it is occasionally necessary to think back it is far more appropriate and interesting to think ahead! "Adventures and progress and exhilaration of achievement always lie in the future and their planning should be the chief concern of the present".²

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1. Tehsil is an administrative sub-division; usually a number of Tehsils form a DISTRICT.
 2. Karl Taylor Compton: A Scientist Speaks" p:66.

CHAPTER : 2 :

RECENT GROWTH OF D E L H I

1. The Population Change:(a) Delhi in relation to all-India picture:

The increase in the population of Delhi State during the last decade (141-51) has been higher than in any other state in India. The "mean decennial growth" has been described as + 62.1 by the Census of India¹. The population was 917,939 in 1941 and 1,744,072 in 1951...an increase of 90.28 percent! Never in the history of India, any state or a metropolitan area recorded such a tremendous growth. The other states which follow a high rate of increase are:

1. "The rate of increase and decrease is expressed as percentages of the mean population of the period during which the increase or decrease occurred". For further reference see p. 126, Census of India 1951, Volume 1, part I-A.

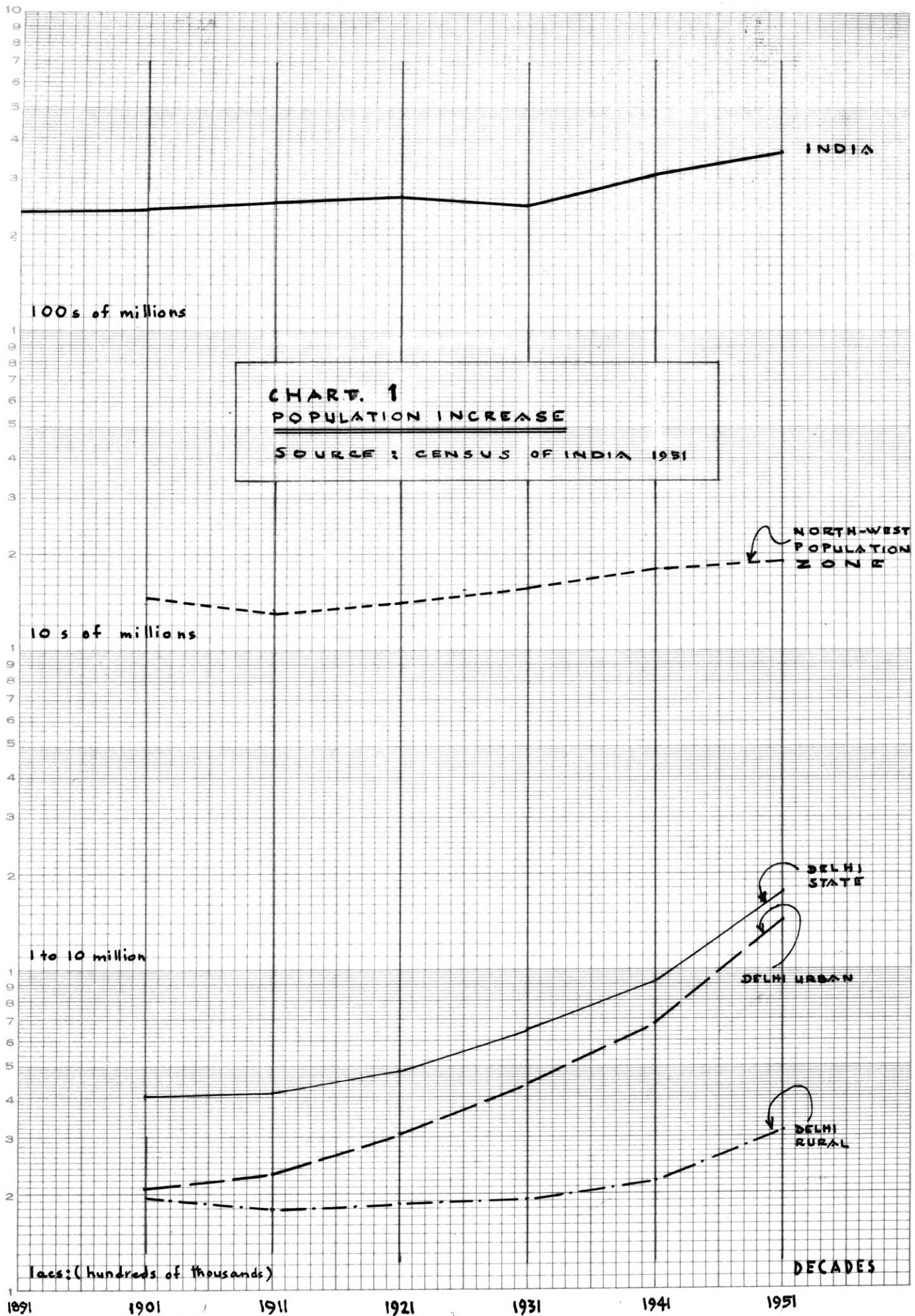
Ajmer in North Western India:	82.3 per-cent;
Coorg in South India:	36.9 " "

Four other states namely: Tripura in East India, Travancore in South, Bombay in West, and Mysore in South registered considerable percentage of increment but all below 25 per-cent!

An interesting factor to be noted in this connection is the increase in the density of the population. Whereas the average density of population in India is 312 persons per square mile, it varies from state to state and region to region. Delhi again on top of the list by having 3,017 persons per square mile with Travancore Cochin at 1,015 per square mile as second. The density drops to as low as 10 persons per square mile in Andaman and Nicobaar Islands.

A comparison between the increase in population and the increase in density for 6 other states registering a high rate of increase in population, is worked out in Table no: 1: The table shows a considerable co-relation between increase in population and density; the later following approximately the same pattern. In fact with minor modifications the picture is equally true for most of the other states.

Out of 357 million people constituting the Indian population (excluding 4.5 million in the state of Jammu & Kashmir, and the tribal areas of Assam), only 62 million people or 17.3 per-cent live in Urban areas...cities and towns. There is a slow but steady shift towards urbanization. This is evident from the fact that in 1921...just about three decades ago the ratio was



11.2 per-cent. In 1931 it became 12.1 per-cent; in 1941 it was 13.9 per-cent. But in 1951 this reached 17.3 per-cent..., thus revealing an increase of 3.4 per-cent in the last decade alone which is more than the combined increase (amounting to 2.6 per-cent) during the previous two decades. For detailed reference see Table no. :2:

The total number of people living in towns and cities as mentioned previously is 61.9 or about 62 million; a number larger than the entire population of Great Britain or France or Italy and Switzerland combined. It is also comparable with the entire population of one hundred of the biggest metropolitan areas in United States which is primarily an urban country.¹

However, in terms of India, this population is not very much... just a little more than one in six of every Indian lives in the cities. The proportion of the urban population, however, varies from place to place. Region wise it would be:

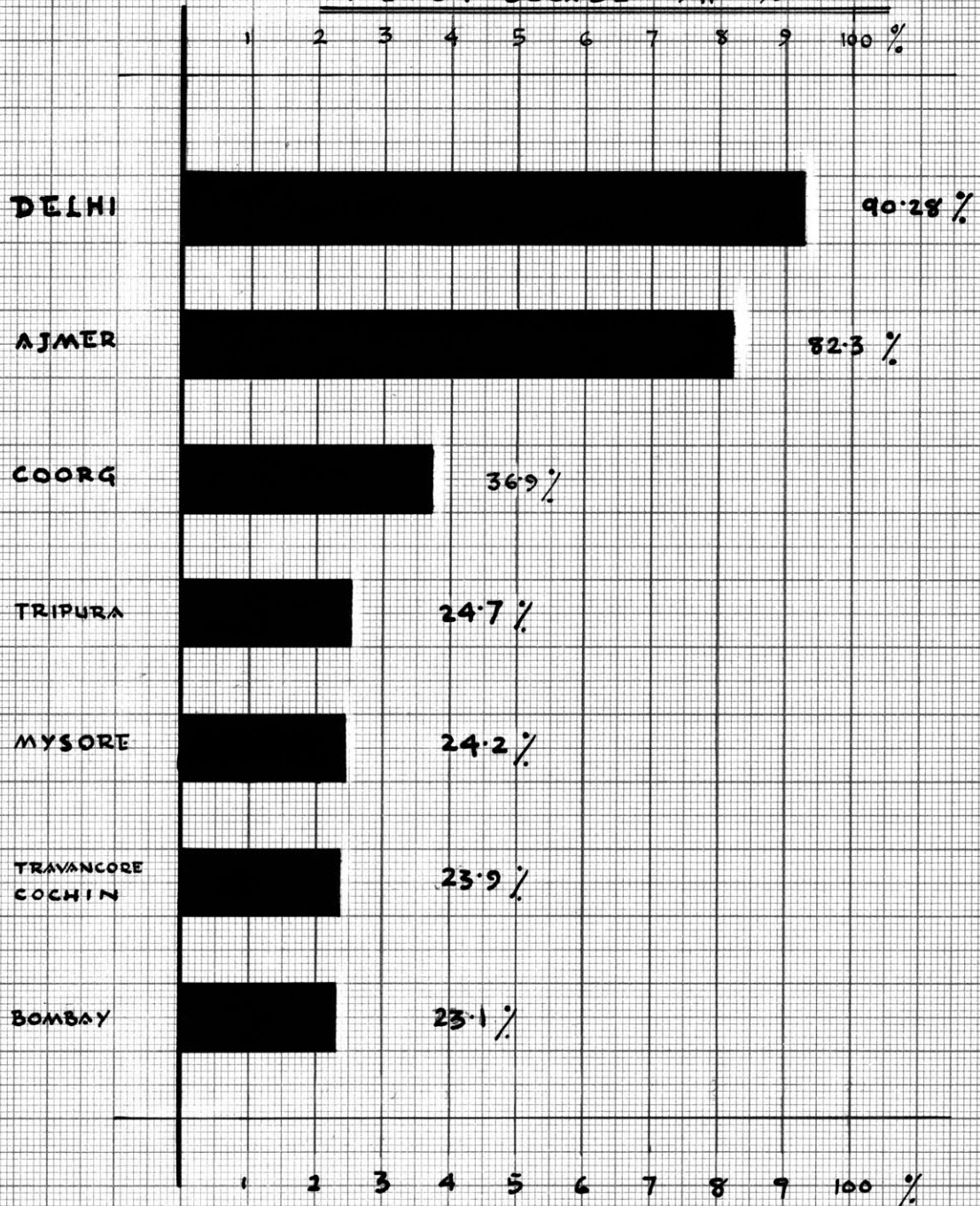
West India:	31.2%
North West India:	21.4%
South India:	19.7%
Central India:	15.8%
North India:	15.8

1. Population of:	Great Britain:	50,368,455
	France:	42,740,000
	Italy:	47,138,235)
	Switzerland:	4,884,000) 52,022,235

100 of the largest metropolitan areas in the U. S. together sums up to 76,242,686 and first 50 largest areas equal to 63,778,464. Moreover, the population of urban areas in U.S. of 5,000 or more is 83,362,195. Source: The World Almanac 1955, pp. 346,358,373 and U.S.Census 1950.

CHART 3:

GRAPH SHOWING PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN
POPULATION IN OTHER SELECTED STATES
IN LAST DECADE 1941-1951 :



East India: 11.1%

Source: Census of India 1951, volume I, Part I-A, Report, P.43.

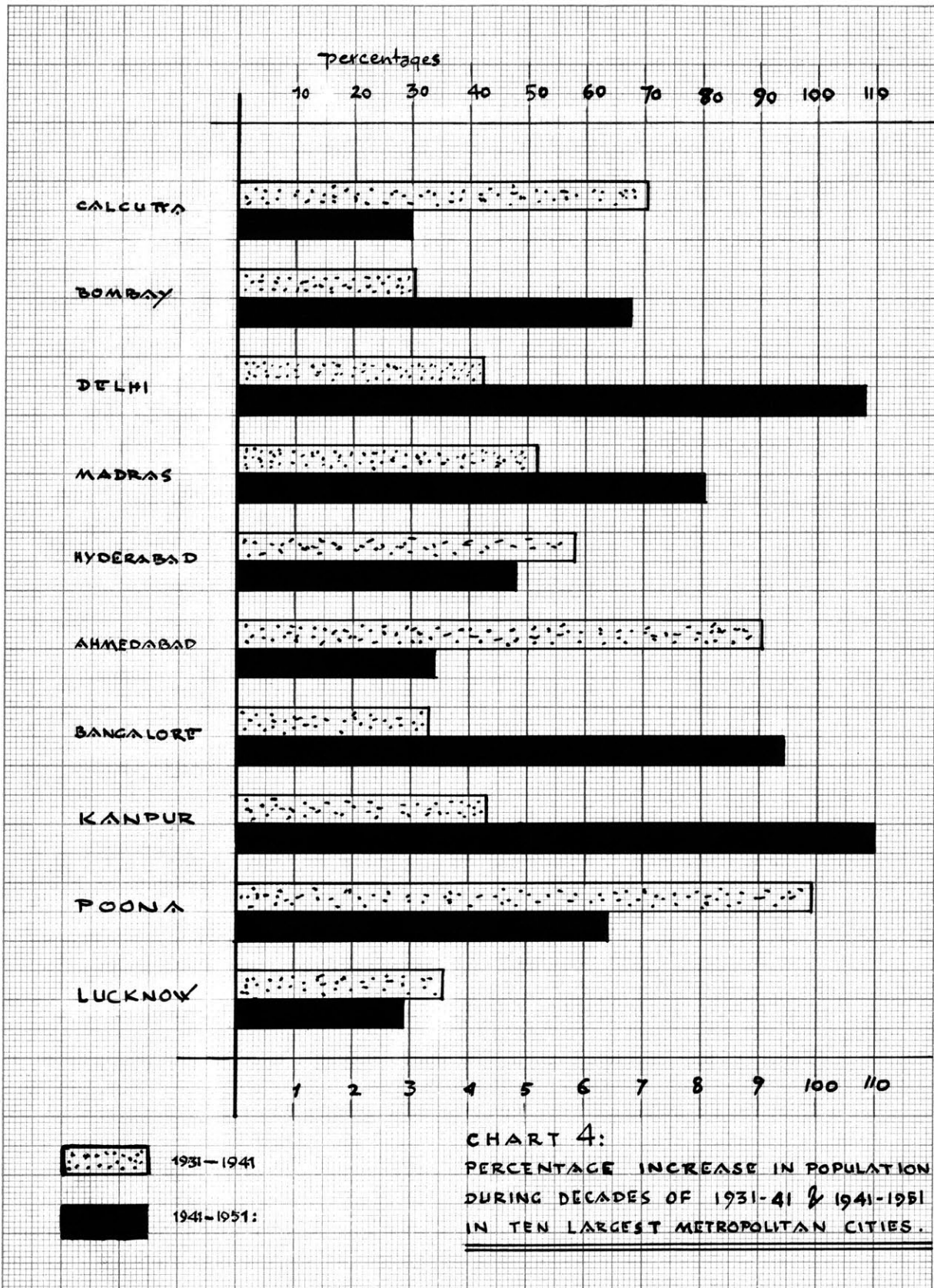
There are considerable variations even among and within each zone from division to division. For instance East India which has in it Greater Calcutta, the biggest metropolitan area, appears as lowest. The proportion of Calcutta division of West Bengal is, however, as high as 26.4%! But Assam and Orissa with only 4.5% and Bihar with 6.7% has lowered the over-all percentage.

Delhi and Ajmer, both part C states (under the direct management of the Central Government), are two of the smallest states as well, and yet they claim an urban proportion equivalent to 83 and 43 per-cent respectively!

The census of India has classified 3,018 as the total number of towns and cities. It has further classed the urban areas as cities, major towns, minor towns and townships.¹ Table no. :3: shows that there are 73 cities and 485 major towns; together they claim 68.1% of the total urban population. Table no. :4: shows the population of ten largest cities in India which together contain 14.6 million people thus claiming about 20% of the entire urban population. Table no. :5: shows the distribution of these areas in various regions of India.

Under the circumstances it becomes evident that India, which is acclaimed as a rural nation, has sufficiently large number of

1. Census of India 1951, Volume I, part I-A, Report, p. 44.



people residing in urban areas to justify serious attempts for urban planning. What is more: this population is increasing quite rapidly as far as the cities and towns are concerned and steadily as far as the total Indian picture is concerned.

The situation of Delhi in this all India perspective is just as acute as in the rest of the big metropolitan cities plus the fact that it had to endure the post-independence consequences¹ on a larger scale than any other urban area.

(b) The Population Increase in Delhi State:

The population of Delhi state classified into urban and rural areas is as follows:

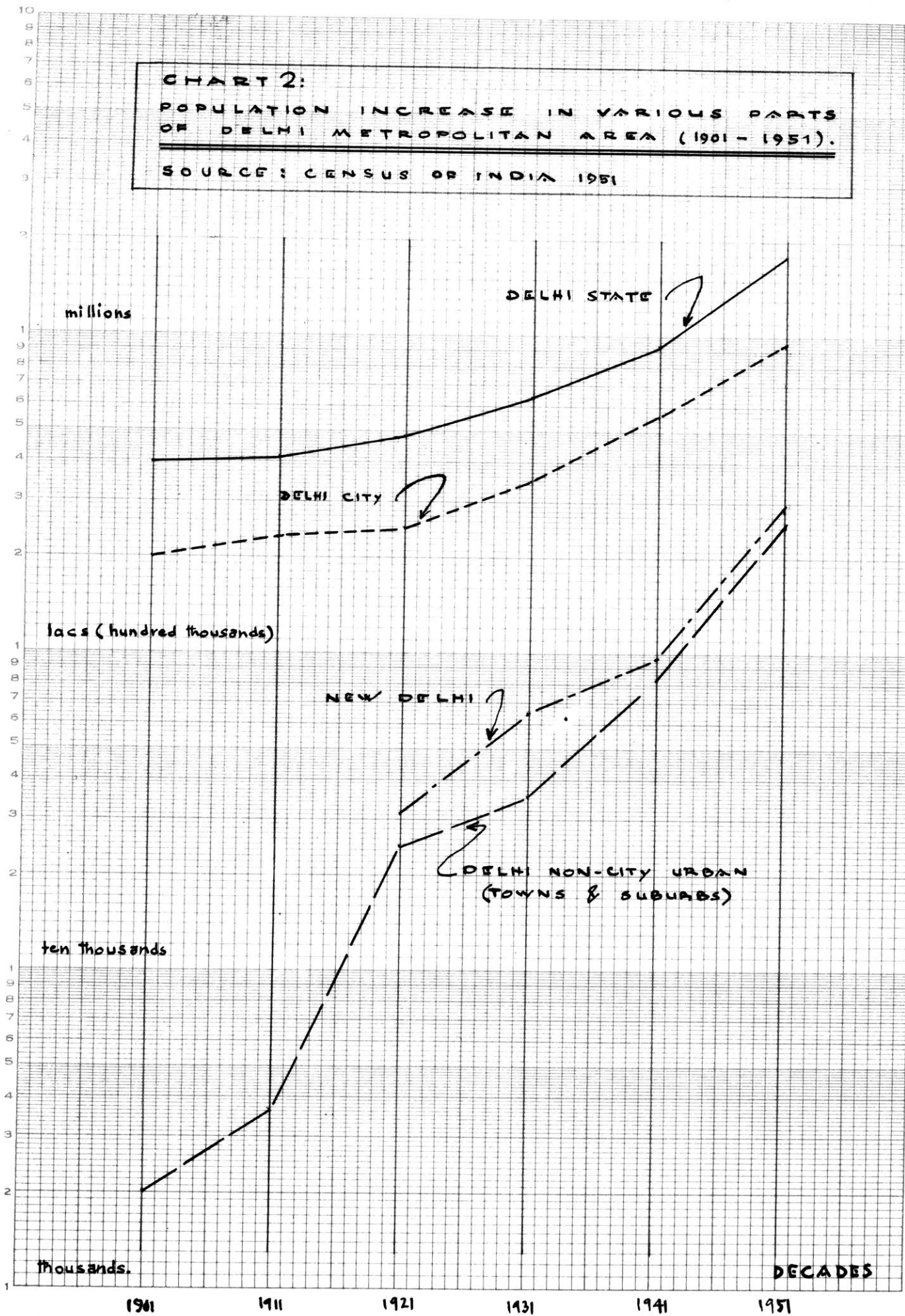
Rural:	306,938:	17.6%
Urban:	1,437,134:	82.4%
Total:	1,744,072:	100.0%

(a) Rural: There are 304 villages in the Rural Tract and they are classified according to size in Table no. :6: The data show that there are 110 villages of population less than 500 inhabitants, and another 96 in the group 500-1000. In the range of 1000-2000 there are 68 villages. Together they are 274 and contain 196,570 persons or 64.5% of the entire rural population. The average size of a Delhi state village, however, works out to be one having approximately 100 residents. Villages below 500 size are actually 110 in number but contain only 31,305 people

1. Such as the influx of refugees from Pakistan.

CHART 2:
POPULATION INCREASE IN VARIOUS PARTS
OF DELHI METROPOLITAN AREA (1901 - 1951).

SOURCE: CENSUS OF INDIA 1951



or 10.1% of the entire rural population.

All this clearly shows that even in the rural areas of Delhi state there is a growing tendency towards residing in communities relatively larger in size.

(b) Urban: The urban side claiming over 80 per-cent of the population, there are:

- 2 large cities ---- Delhi and New Delhi, and
- 8 small towns;

Table no.: :7: :8: and :9: show the population, density and percentage increase in various towns and local bodies. It will be observed from the tables no. :8: and :9: that while the population of Delhi has increased so much it has mainly concentrated in the already overcrowded areas. Although New Delhi has experienced an increase of 196%, and its density has also increased from 2,856 to 8,419 per square mile; yet the increase in the density of Old Delhi from 77,888 to 136,536 has played havoc. In the old Delhi area density of population for various localities has been worked out, and shows that among 47 such localities listed, the Jama Masjid-Dareeba area has a net density of 1,128 persons per acre as compared with 900 persons per acre in Schanganj Kothi Shora. The various other areas are shown in Table no. :10: which also shows the amount of built-up areas as well.

However, apart from the concentration of population in the central areas, there has been a considerable expansion also. This unprecedented incline in the population has been attributed to-----

- (a) the influx of refugees from Pakistan after the partition of the Indian sub-continent;
- (b) the attraction of city as the capital of free and new India;
- (c) the new role of the area as the leading industrial cum-business centre in the north.

2. The Impact of Partition on Delhi State:

The effect of partition which brought about Pakistan sent in Delhi nearly half a million displaced persons. Moreover, there was a general dislocation as two-thirds of the entire Muslim community had to migrate. The total number of displaced refugees who settled in Delhi are: 495,391 (265,679 males and 229,712 females). Out of this 470,386 are living in urban areas and only a meagre 25,004 or 6.4% in the rural tract. The occupational characteristics of the 'displaced population' is given in Table no. :13: Some of them took shelter in 'evacuee houses', but many had to wait for suitable accomodation. Pending rehabilitation, arrangements for temporary shelters were made. From the old military barracks to the small cubicles in the ancient Purana Qila and tents with thatch-roofs and pavements of the sidewalks, everything was utilized. The problem of giving relief and shelter to these victims of religious fanaticism remained in the fore front

from 1947 until the end of 1950. About 190,000 of the displaced persons found accommodation in the houses left by the Muslim evacuees¹. The problem was, therefore gigantic by all scales. Plans were prepared by the Ministry of Rehabilitation and they were mainly executed by the Central Public Works Departments (CPWD), as "layouts fitting into the planning scheme of greater Delhi"². About 20 colonies or townships ranging from an acre to 400 acres and from 300 to 24,000 population were built during this period. These are indicated in a separate map (no. : :), and the table no. :11: shows the various names and areas and the population targets for which these colonies were designed.

-
1. Delhi District Census Handbook, P. lxiii.
 2. Delhi Census Handbook, pp, lxii and lxv.
 3. By the end of 1951, 529 one-roomed, 3,398 two-roomed, 257 single-storied and 166 double storied three room houses were either built or under construction. Besides this, there were 11,159 single room tenements, 1,518 shops or stalls and 593 shop-cum-residences had been completed. Another 10,000 units were being contemplated by the end of 1951. The Ministry of Relief and Rehabilitation of the Government of India also opened five vocational training centres with a capacity of 627 students in various parts of the city.

3. The Economic Change:

(a) General:

The economy of Delhi State is not rural. Only 10 per-cent of the population belongs to Agricultural classes. A further classification is done in Tables no. :14: and no. :15: which show that out of 172,186 people listed as those belonging to Agricultural classes only 67,591 are engaged in gainful employment (either they are self-supporting persons or earning dependents). The table also shows that 48,376 are cultivators of land, wholly or partially owned and their 'earning dependents'¹. 6,185 are those cultivators who are tenants and 10,561 belong to the class of landless peasants or agricultural labor. Thus together there are 65,122 persons who are really engaged in agriculture.

Out of 1,744,072 people that live in Delhi state the number in non-agricultural classes is 1,571,886. Table no. :14: shows the main professions and occupations under which this population is distributed. Another table no. :12: gives the urban areas arranged territorially with population as per livelihood classes in the main townships or urban areas.

1. Earning dependents include members of the household (and that may even include children of 10 to 15 years of age too) who also contribute some financial share in a joint-family-system. However, the contribution is in many cases quite small and as such they are termed as 'earning dependents'.

In the employment characteristics one finds about 87,559 people employed by the Union Government and another 15,000 by local and state governmental agencies. A detailed breakdown by main livelihood classes are given in Table no. :14:

(b) Industries and Manufacturing:

A close observation of the economy of Delhi state reveals that commerce and industry play a notable part in the over-all pattern of human activity in the metropolitan area. Traditionally Delhi has been known as the home of master craftsmen and for its artistic products; but very seldom in the past has it been regarded as a 'manufacturing centre', which, however, it is becoming rather rapidly!

It was in the seventies of the last century, when the process of industrialization, in the modern sense, commenced by the establishment of three iron foundries and engineering works between 1872 and 1879. A decade later the installation of two Cotton Mills (Delhi Cloth Mills) in 1888 and 1889 laid the foundation of the cotton spinning and weaving industry in Delhi. Between 1893 and 1905 two more spinning mills and one engineering works were set up. At the close of the last century a modern flour mill (in 1891) and a biscuit (cookies) factory (in 1898) were established. Two large flour mills were established in 1917 and 1918. The first ice factory was installed in 1907, which was followed by another in 1912.

The pace of industrialization was, however, quickened after 1920...or the first World War. There was a large expansion in

iron foundries, sheet metal working establishments and engineering works. Power driven machinery was introduced in the year 1929. The only match factory of the state was established in 1931, and a modern acid manufacturing plant began production in 1934.

The World War II, which broke out in 1939, gave a further fillip to the development of industries in Delhi. In 1931 the industry employed 12,875 workers. Up to 1938 there was only a gradual increase in the industrial expansion of the state. In 1938 there were 78 manufacturing establishments, big and small, employing 14,158 workers. The number of factories in 1948 went up to 287, employing 36,894 workers. The number of factory workers increased by 160 percent within the decade 1938-48.

Table no. : : gives the breakdown for non-agricultural classes and Table no. :17: shows the breakdown for industries and services. This includes manufacturing and the government service as well.

The organized industry is now on a much more broad base than in the past. In 1938 the textile industry claimed about 80 per-cent of the entire labor force but in 1948 this was reduced to 40 per-cent. Although this percentage is still the biggest and covers more workers than any other single industry yet it shows the coming into being of other industries as well¹.

A recent survey made by the Industries Department of Delhi State Government revealed that there are 7,700 big and small concerns employing more than 66,000 workers and having an invested

1. Rajdhani Weekly, pp. 39,40,41

capital of more than Rs. 18 crores¹.

However, it would be observed that a primary factor in the economic base of Delhi is the "governmental employment" by the Central Government of India. It alone claims 87,559 persons according to 1951 census². Table no. :17: shows that this item together with health and education claims 26.4% of the entire industries and services section. Processing and manufacturing (including textile industry) has about 8% of the total, while as construction, metal and chemicals and cottage industries (items no. 4,5 and 6) together have 19.26%. The business and commerce has another 22.4%.

Such is the over-all economic picture of Delhi state.

(c) Cottage Industries:

A study conducted by the Directorate of Industries and Labor reveals that there are 3,474 small scale industrial establishments representing different skills and crafts. In all these small scale cottage industries employ about 20,000 workers (or artesians) and the investment is not less than Rs. 2 crores³.

Delhi has been a foremost centre of cottage industries for many years. The more important and well known ones are:

1 - Ivory carving,

-
1. Zbid, p. 41.
 2. Delhi District Census Handbook, p. 67.
 3. Rajdhani Weekly, page 40.

- 2 - Gold and Silver embroidery,
- 3 - Copper and Brass utensils (carving and art work),
- 4 - Gold and Silver Foil manufacture,
- 5 - Woodware carving industries,
- 6 - Leather goods,
- 7 - Sola Hat manufacture¹,

An Industrial Development Board was recently set up with the chairman of the Delhi School of Economics as the head, to explore and investigate the possibilities of industrial expansion.

4. Social and Cultural Change:

With the increase in population and a definite change in economic and political sphere there has been a corresponding change in social field as well. Whereas, in the last several centuries Delhi was the centre of Indo Islamic culture with considerable (about 40 to 50 per-cent) Muslim population, the whole trend is now changed. As the result of partition nearly two-thirds of the Muslims of Delhi had to migrate and were in turn replaced by half-a-million Hindus and Sikhs refugees from West Pakistan, mainly from Punjab and Sind Provinces. Delhi was

1. Sola Hats are made of pith and are used for protection against the scorching heat of the sun.

also under the influence of Hindustani culture of Northern India. In fact the turn of the last century there was quite a cultural competition going on between Delhi and Lucknow. In 1950, however, the urban life came under the direct influence of Punjabi culture and language. Table no. :18: shows the various religious minorities in Delhi state. There are still about 100,000 Muslims in Delhi but mainly concentrated in certain portions of old Delhi. There are 137,096 Sikhs, 20,777 Jains and Buddhists and 18,685 Christians, Jews and Parsees. The rest are Hindus and Scheduled Castes.

On the other hand, there are some 208,612 persons belonging to "Scheduled Castes", and 812 Anglo-Indians. Detailed reference from Table no. :18: show that Sikhs, Muslims and Christians are the important minorities. From the cultural point of view it may be said that the population of Delhi is composed of people from every part of the country representing the multi-cultural and multi-lingual character that is India. Table no. :19: gives an idea as to how many different Indian languages are spoken in Delhi area. Of course the most important and popular ones are Hindustani (Hindi, Urdu and Punjabi) but there are quite a considerable number of those who speak Marathi, Sindhi, Gujrati, Bengali, Malayan, Tamil and Telugu.

Another aspect of the cultural side can be demonstrated by the fact that Delhi publishes 18 newspapers daily out of which 8 are in Urdu, 5 are in Hindi and 5 in English. Also there are 10 weeklies in Urdu, 8 in Hindi, and 12 in English. Apart from that there were 20 monthly periodicals in Urdu, 6 in Hindi, 3 in

Punjabi and 10 in English¹.

In the field of education and literacy Delhi is as prominent as any other state. In fact the literacy figure of 38% is the highest among the north and north-western India. This is documented by Table no. :20: showing the situation in literacy and Table no. :21: showing the progress in literacy during the last decades.

1. Rajdhani Weekly, pp. 109,110.

Part B

S I T U A T I O N

the existing administration,
problems of metropolitan area

P A R T : B :

S I T U A T I O N

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THE PRESENT ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

1. Constitution of India and its Application to Delhi State:

On January 26, 1950, India's new Constitution the first Charter of Freedom, came into force. The Indian Union is federal structure with residuary power vested in the centre. The unity of administration is further assured through a single judiciary, uniformity in basic laws, common all-India services, and a common official language.

At the head of the Union Government is the President elected for five years by the elected members of both houses of Parliament (House of the People and Council of States) and the State Assemblies. The states of India, numbering 29 are divided into three categories:¹

1. Part A states include: Andhra, Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Madras, Orrisa, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal.

Part B states include: Hyderabad, Jammu Kashmir, Madhya Bharat, Saurashtra and Travancore-Cochin.

Part C states include: Ajmer, Bhopal, Coorg, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Kutch, Manipur, Tripura and Vindhya Pradesh.

- part A: former Governor's provinces,
- part B: former Princely States,
- part C: former centrally administrated areas;

Delhi was conferred the status of part C state under the Constitution of India. The responsibility of administration thus directly rests with the President of India. The President exercises control over it through a Chief Commissioner appointed by him. With the passage of the Government of India part C states act of 1951 by the Parliament, the state has now a Legislative Assembly. The Legislative Assembly consists of 48 members representing 36 single-member constituencies and 6 double-member constituencies.¹

The function of the Legislative Assemblies in part C states cover broadly, all the subjects included in the state and concurrent list of the Constitution. However, in case of Delhi, certain subjects are excluded from the jurisdiction of the Assembly. There is a Council of Ministers and a Chief Minister at the head of the Delhi State Government to advise and aid the Chief Commissioner in the exercise of his functions. The first Delhi State Ministry was installed on March 17, 1952.

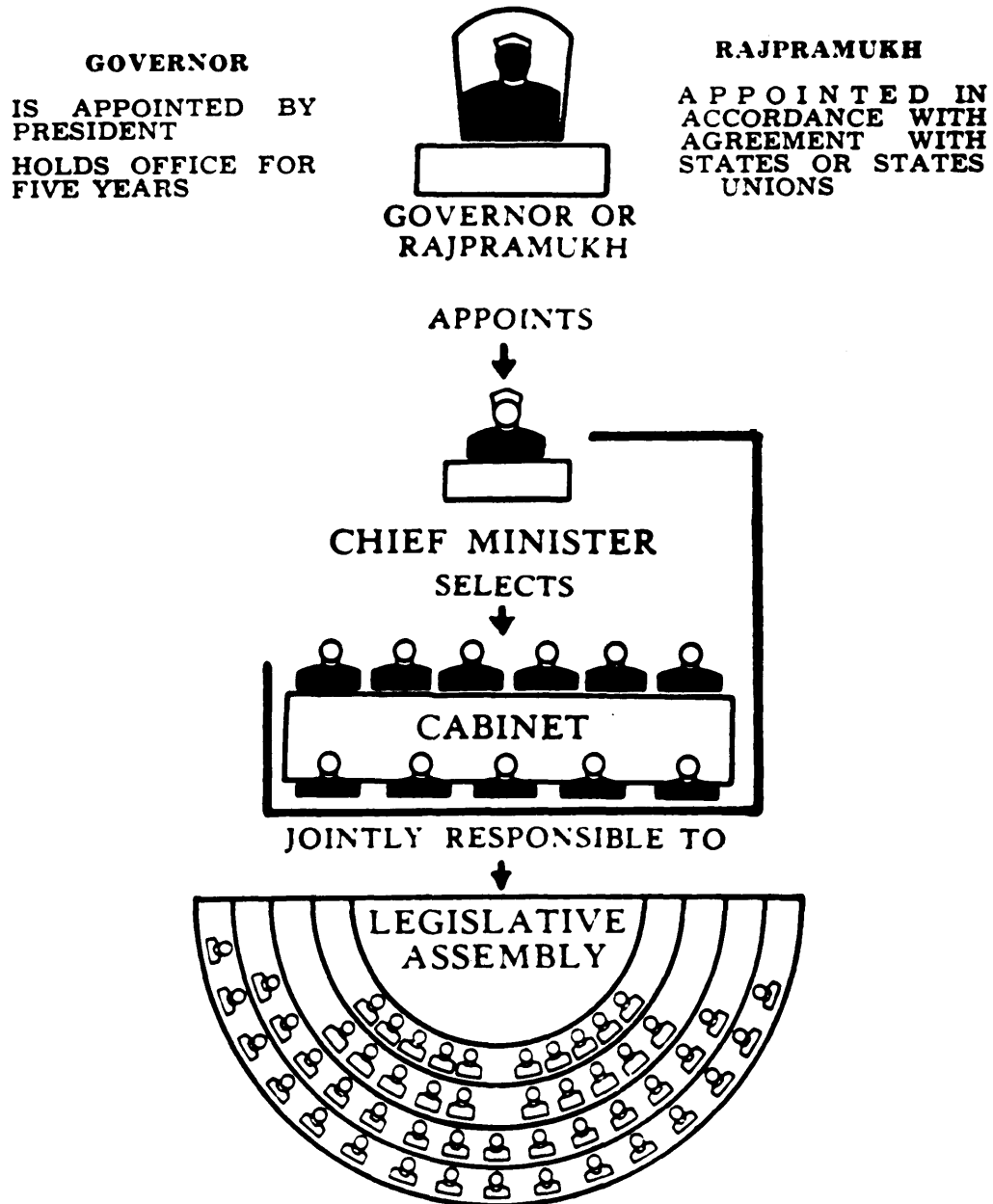
2. The Delhi State Government and the Chief Commissioner:

A salient feature of the part C States Act as applied to Delhi is the introduction of a dyarchic system of administration.

1. Delhi Census Handbook, p. xxiii. Also refer to Facts about India, pp. 6-11, and INDIA 1954, pp. 34,35,36 and 37.

STATE GOVERNMENT

(Part A & Part B States)



POWERS OF GOVERNOR OR RAJPRAMUKH

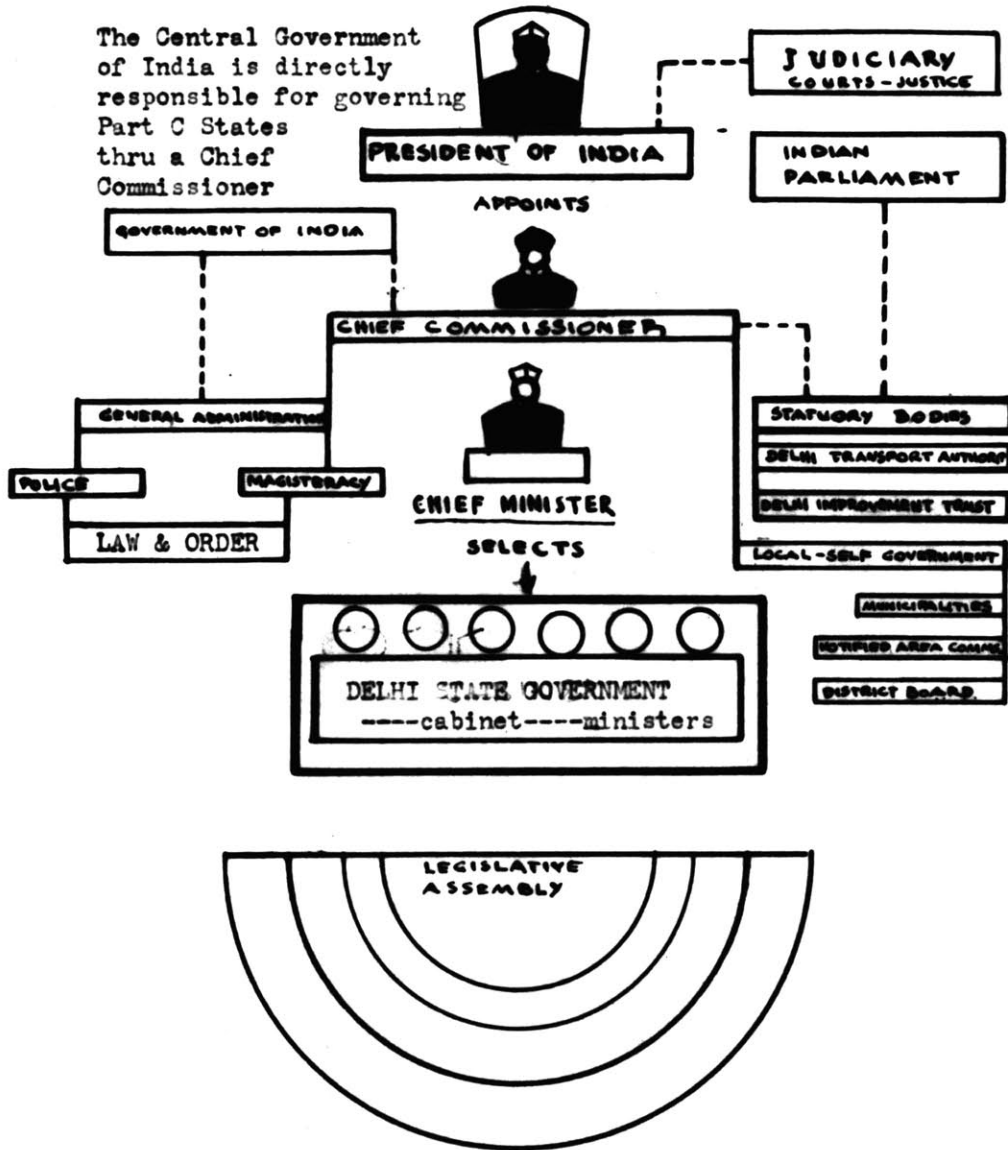
1. The executive authority of the State vests in him
2. Can grant pardon, remit punishment and commute sentences in certain cases
3. Summons or prorogues sessions of the House or the Houses of the State Legislature and dissolves the Legislative Assembly
4. No Money Bill can be introduced in the House nor can any demand for grant be made except on his recommendation
5. Can promulgate ordinances during recess of the Legislature
6. Can return a Bill for re-consideration to the Legislature

The State Legislature does not have the powers to make laws with respect to the public order, police or general administration. As the seat of the National Government, even the functions and powers pertaining to such public utilities as water supply, public transportation and sanitation are excluded from the sphere of the Delhi State Government. Furthermore the municipal and other local bodies are out of the jurisdiction of the Delhi State Government. They are either constituted under an Act of the Indian Parliament or by virtue of an extension of a certain Act from either Punjab or Uttar Pradesh, the adjoining states. In any case they are subject to the control of the Chief Commissioner.

The remaining subjects such as education, civil supplies, public health, labor welfare, and development of industries are to be administered through the 'popular' ministry. The part C States Act, as applied to Delhi, further lays down that in the state of Delhi every decision taken by a Minister or the Cabinet shall be subject to the concurrence of the Chief Commissioner. The organization charts no. 5+6: will make the things more explicit and understandable. More important clauses of the part C States Act of 1951 are given in the Appendix.

The duration of the Legislative Assembly is five years, unless dissolved earlier by the Chief Commissioner. The Chief Commissioner has the right to address the Assembly anytime besides the opening and closing sessions; and he can also send messages. The extent of the Legislative powers have been defined in Clause 21. of the Act. No bill or an amendment proposal to an existing Act can be introduced in the Assembly without the previous

CHART 6 : DELHI STATE ADMINISTRATION : UNDER PART C STATES ACT



POWERS OF CHIEF COMMISSIONER OR LIEUT. GOVERNOR:

- 1- The Executive Authority of the State vests in him; he is responsible only to the Central Government; an grant pardon, remit punishment and commute death sentences in certain cases.
- 2- Summons or prorogues sessions of the Legislative Assembly and dissolves the Assembly, can promulgate ordinances during recess of the State legislature.
- 3- No Money Bill can be introduced in the House nor any demand for grant without his previous sanction; can return the Bill for re-consideration of the Assembly or present it to the President.
- 4- He is directly responsible for Law and order and also of the local municipalities' administration.

sanction of the Chief Commissioner. Moreover, the Legislative Assembly have no power to move for any reduction, abolition or introduction of any taxation and in most other financial matters. Further, after a bill is passed by the Assembly it is to be presented by the Chief Commissioner for approval of the President of India. The President may either assent the bill or send it back together with his remarks or recommendations to the Assembly for further consideration. Notwithstanding anything in the said provisions of the Act, the Chief Commissioner as well as the Council of Ministers are under the general control of the Government of India.

The Delhi State Government, therefore, is very new and very limited. It has to create its own status and position in the context of the existing situation. The Chief Commissioner is the key person. In a way his authority can be compared to that of a Governor of a part A state and yet he has many more powers and a far greater role to play than a mere President's representative. To some extent this is due to the fact that Delhi, being the seat of the Government of India, was ruled by the then Viceroy (Governor General) of India directly through the Chief Commissioner in the pre-independence days and the same tradition is being carried on now. Though account must be taken of the fact that Delhi is the seat of the Central Government and, therefore, needs to be handled in somewhat a 'special way'.

This 'special way' should take into consideration the aspiration of Delhi citizens and not just of the hierarchy of New Delhi alone, if anything real is meant by having a democracy.

3. The Powers and Functions of the Chief Commissioner:

The Chief Commissioner is not a mere figure-head or just a representative of the President to supervise the orderly and constitutional government. He is, in fact, in charge of everything in Delhi state; maybe it is Police or the local administration in a remote village. He has, under his control and supervision the Civil Service, the Police and the Magistracy. Moreover, he also looks after the statutory concerns like the Delhi Transport System, the utility undertakings and the Delhi Improvement Trust. He is directly responsible to the President of India and has very little concern with the general population of Delhi. He can, if he wants, completely ignore the people of Delhi and this has happened quite often in the old British days.

Under the General Administration directly under the Chief Commissioner is the Deputy Commissioner who is responsible for law and order of the state. The Deputy Commissioner belongs to the Indian Administrative Service (previously called Indian Civil Service), and is assisted by 19 Magistrates who also belong to the Civil Service (either Provincial or Central). The Deputy Commissioner is also the District Magistrate and has under him two additional District Magistrates¹. There are besides, a dozen (or so) Honorary Magistrates². Various types of powers and functions are assigned including land revenue (known as

1. Delhi Census Handbook, p. xxix.

2. Ibid, p. xxviii, xxix and xxx.

"Malguzari") assessment and collection.

The Police Department is under direct control of Chief Commissioner. It operates under an Inspector General of Police and 33 other gazetted officers¹. A chart of the police organization is given (See chart no. : 7:). The entire Delhi area is broadly divided into urban and rural; and has in all 18 police thanas (stations), and 32 Chowkis (out-posts)². Each thana is in charge of a sub-inspector of Police or an inspector of Police depending upon the size and importance of the area. The C.I.D. (Criminal Investigation Department) is a separate department under a Senior Superintendent of Police. Besides these there are the following sections of the Police Administrations;

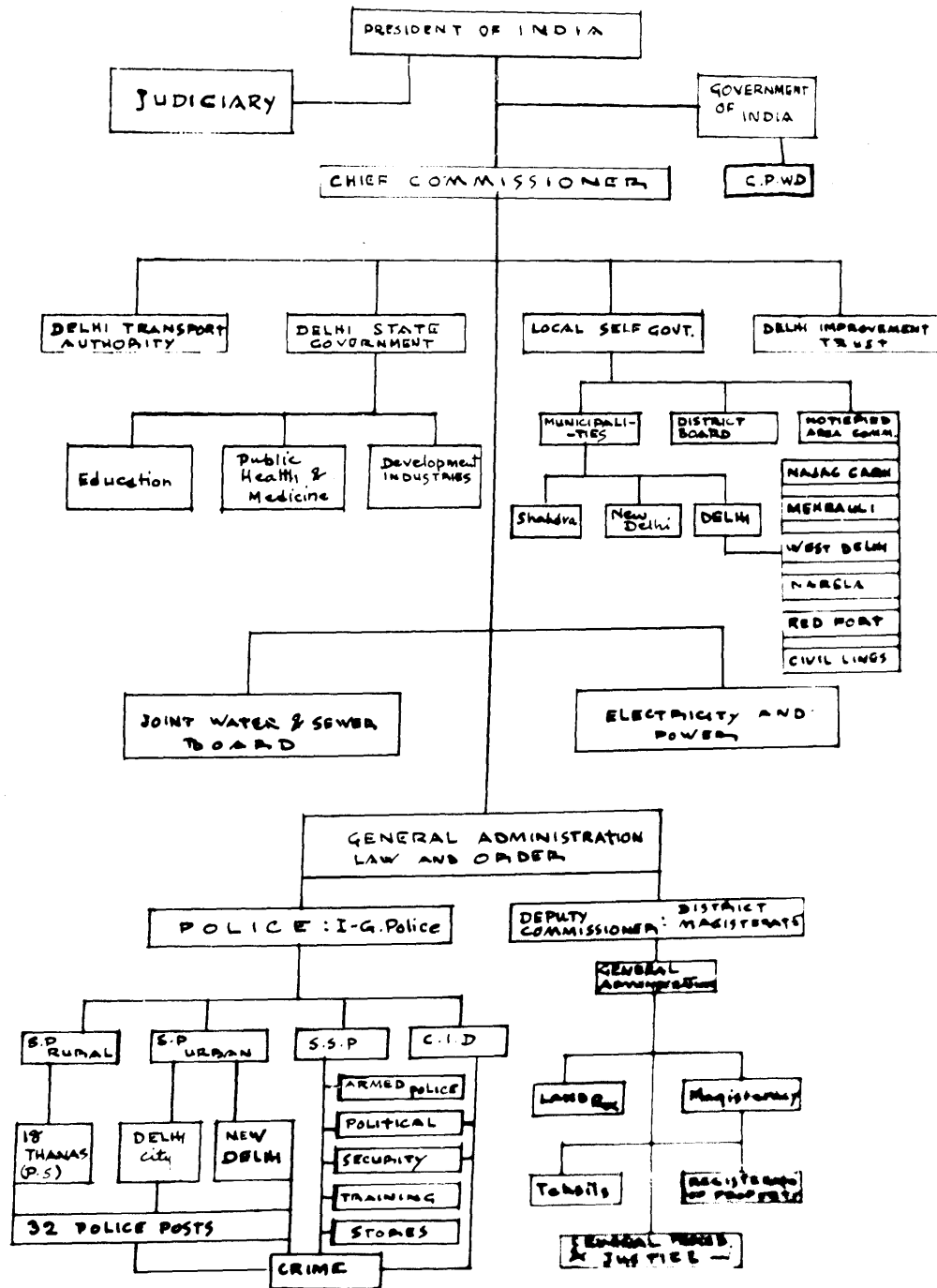
- 1 - Security Section,
- 2 - Training Section,
- 3 - Political Section,
- 4 - Stores Section,
- 5 - Armed Forces Section,
- 6 - Crime Section

Each one of these departments is manned by a Superintendent of Police who is further supported by Deputy Superintendent of Police.

1. Gazetted Officers belong to either the Indian or Provincial Civil Service and are appointed by the Central or Provincial Governments through the Public Service Commission.

2. Ibid, p. xxxi.

The Present Administrative Structure: DELHI GOVERNMENT: CHART 7



4. The Judiciary

The Judiciary and the High Court Bench (Circuit Court) are completely separate and is independent of the Executive branch of the government. The Judges are appointed by the President of India in consultation with the Chief Justices of the Supreme Court of India and the Punjab High Court.

The District and Sessions Judge is the head of the Judiciary as for the District as an administrative unit is concerned. He is assisted by a number of additional District Judges (two at present). Cases regarding the interpretation of law, pertaining to Indian Companies Act, Industrial Disputes Act Evacuee Property and Land Acquisition are referred to them. The District Judge is also the Chairman of the Tribunal appointed under Industrial Disputes Act. In addition to the District and Sessions Judge, there are two additional Judges, five sub-judges and eight temporary sub-judges¹.

1. Ibid, p. xxix.

CHAPTER :4:

LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT

The chart of the local self government shows the various types of the local government that Delhi state enjoys! There functions and powers enunciated and prescribed during the foreign rule are extremely limited. Basically these may be classified into three catagories:

- first --- Municipalities,
- second --- Notified Area Committees,
- third --- District Board,

Then there is a Cantonment Board which is constituted by virtue of a different Act, yet in some ways it is comparable to the local government of the cities or towns.

In all there are 3 municipalities, 6 notified area committees and one district board. The municipalities are: the Delhi Municipal Committee (DMC), the New Delhi Municipal Committee and the Delhi-

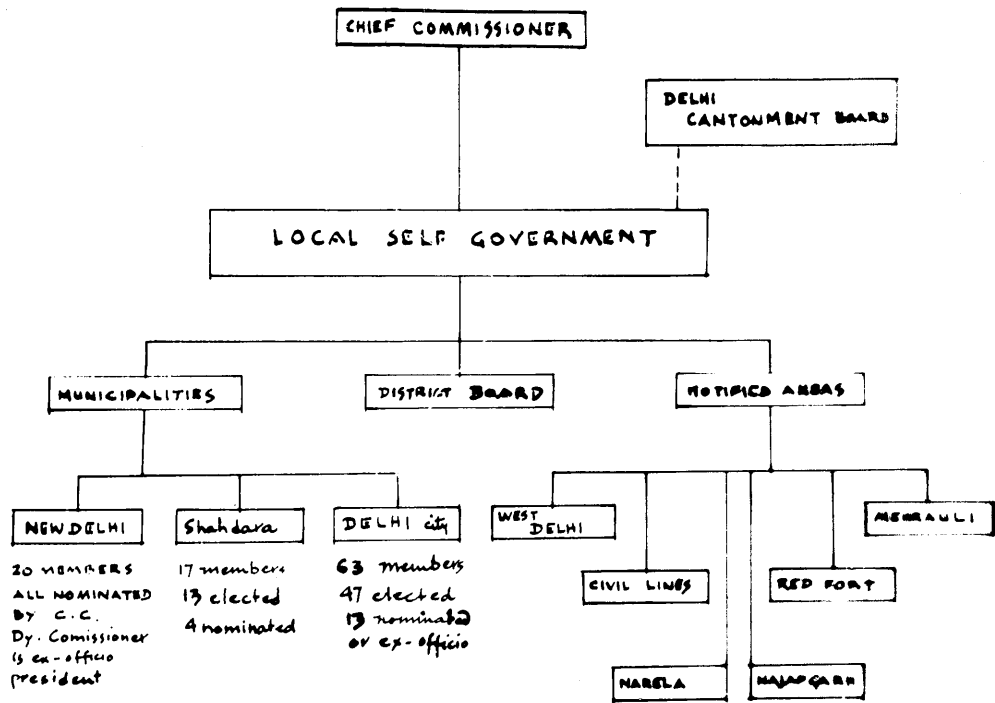


Chart 8 . DELHI STATE : LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT

Shahadra Municipal Committee. The notified area committees are:

Civil Lines Area,
West Delhi,
Mehrauli,
Najafgarh,
Narela, and
Red Fort.

The district board containing 498.37 square miles area covers almost all of the rural section of the population. Besides these there is the Delhi Cantonment Board established under Section #13 of the Cantonment Act, 1924. The power of control over the Cantonment area rests in the General Officer commanding and the Government of India (Ministry of Defense).

A brief description of each of these local bodies is given in order to acquaint the reader with their relative importance and functions:

(a) MUNICIPAL COMMITTEES:

1. Delhi Municipal Committee

The Delhi Municipal Committee comprising of 6.7 square miles and 914,790 population is the biggest and oldest of all the municipalities in Delhi state. It has, by far, more powers than any other local body. The DMC came into existence as early as February 1863 by enforcement of the Punjab Improvement of Towns Act vide notification dated: December 13, 1862¹.

1. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi state supplement p.77.

In 1881 the committee was raised to the status of a Class I municipality; and consisted of 21 members (16 officials and 15 non-officials);(of the 15 non-officials: 3 Europeans, 6 Hindus and 6 Muslims). In 1887 the strength of the committee was raised to 24,(2 ex-officios, 10 nominated and 12 elected). Following the transfer of capital from Calcutta to Delhi¹, the present civil lines area was excluded from the municipal limit then and made a separate body². In 1913 the composition of the committee was again revised; it then consisted of 3 ex-officio members, 8 nominated and 11 elected. In 1922 the committee was expanded to 36, of whom 24 were elected and 12 were officials. In 1937 the strength of the committee was raised to 44. The city was divided into 14 wards; each ward elected triennially a non-muslim and muslim. The Deputy Commissioner, the Civil Surgeon and the Superintendent of Education were ex-officio members. Also 7 members were nominated by the local administration and 6 were elected to represent the special interests.³

-
1. It was in September 17, 1912 that Her Royal Majesty Queen Victoria by a Royal Proclamation decided the capitol of British India shifted from the city of Calcutta to Delhi.
 2. The area north of present Delhi City was excluded from the then Delhi Municipal Area limits and was designated as Civil lines. The Civil lines housed the Secretariat and Viceroy's house till New Delhi was built on the south of present Delhi City. The Civil lines area was then given the status of a notified area committee.
 3. Special interests included:

Punjab Chamber of Commerce:	2 Members,
Delhi Piece Goods Association:	1 Member,
Delhi Hindustani Merchantile Association:	1 Member,
Factory Owners:	1 Member,
Arjuman-Vakil-e-Qaum Punjabiian:	1 Member
Total	6 Members

After the partition of the country the composition of the committee underwent a great change. The elections were held in 1951 under the new election rules and with adult franchise. Delhi City was divided into 47 constituencies. Representing certain other interests plus some nominated and ex-officio members the committee has now a strength of 63 members.

The area under the DMC was 6.7 square miles to which were added 3.45 square miles of the West Delhi Notified Area Committee thus making it 10.15 square miles, with a total population of 973,665 out of which 58,575 live in the former West Delhi.¹

Set-up of the Committee:

The President of the DMC is the chief executive and is elected for the term of the committee which is normally three years. The President is assisted by two Vice-Presidents (Senior and Junior) who are elected yearly. The committee, equivalent to the City Council in the United States, carries its work through various sub-committees of which there are 28 in number.²

1. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement P.78.

2. Committees:
- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Building Sub-Committee | 15. Terminal Tax Joint Committee |
| 2. Direct Tax Sub-Committee | 16. Anti-Prostitution Committee |
| 3. Executive and Finance Sub-Committee | 17. Anti Epidemic (Plague & Cholera) |
| 4. Educational sub-committee | 18. Library |
| 5. Tehla and Hackney Carriage | 19. Branding of Bulls |
| 6. Lightning | 20. City Improvement |
| 7. Municipal works. | 21. Publicity and Public Information |
| 8. Sanitation | 22. Traffic sub-committee |
| 9. Nazul | 23. Social Education |
| 10. Garden and Parks | 24. Purchase |
| 11. Vigilance | 25. Auction Panel |
| 12. Special Buildings | 26. Legal Sub-Committee |
| 13. Hospital | 27. Hakeem and Vaid |
| 14. Mutton Sub-Committee | 28. Labor Welfare |

The DMC also has its representatives on various other institutions which are 36 in all.¹

Income and Expenditure:

In 1952-53, the total income of the Committee came to Rs. 23,162,500 and expenditure of Rs. 26,288,500. The main source of income is through taxation. Taxation is of two kinds, (i) direct tax and (ii) indirect tax.

Direct Taxes includes:

- 1 - House Tax,
- 2 - Vacant Land Tax,
- 3 - Taxes on animals,
- 4 - Taxes on vehicles,
- 5 - Taxes from building permits,
- 6 - Cycle Tax

Indirect taxes are mainly:

- 1 - Terminal tax,
- 2 - Toll tax.

The total income from Direct Taxes in 1951-52 was Tax Rs. 7,970,340 (21%). The area of the Toll Tax limits is 52.48 square miles.

-
1. The more important ones are:
 1. Hospitals and Public Health
 2. Joint Water and Sewerage Board
 3. Libraries
 4. Transport
 5. Textbook
 6. Regional Employment
 7. Central Co-ordination Committee
 - a. Communications
 - b. Town Planning
 - c. Electric supply(Extensions)

The other sources of revenue are: Water Tax, Rent of Colonades, and other Fees and Fines.¹ A detailed percentage worked out on the basis of 1949-50 income pattern is given in Table no. : : main expenditure is 34.2% on Public Health, 11.8% in Education, 12.2% Water supply installation, 15.5% general departments, 16.6% capital works.²

Functions and Powers:

Many of the functions and powers are evident from the nature and number of sub-committees. However, the functions may be classified broadly as follows:

- 1 - City Engineering Department: Road construction, Drainage, Construction of small culverts, etc;
- 2 - Water and Sewer connections and installations including Public Hydrants and Baths;
- 3 - Street Lighting and Parks,
- 4 - Labor Welfare,
- 5 - General Department: Taxation,
- 6 - Education: Primary, Social, Basic, Physical,
- 7 - Public Health: Food Adulteration, Family Planning, Clinics, Anti-Rabbic and Hospitals,

1. For detailed reference see Rajkhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement pp. 81, 82.

2. See Delhi Census Handbook, p. xxxvi.

8 - Conservancy: Refuse clearance,

9 - Libraries,

2. New Delhi Municipal Committee (NDMC):

In February, 1916, the "New Capital Area" was declared by the Chief Commissioner under section 4 (6) of the Punjab Municipal Act 1911, to be a municipality of Class II and became known as Raisina Municipality. "The Committee was at first, a little more than a 'prosecuting agency', but with the development of the new city, its functions and powers inevitably expanded". In April, 1925, the Chief Commissioner, by a notification, established under section 11 of the Punjab Municipal Act 1911 with 10 members. At present the NDMC is a nominated body consisting of 20 members, out of which 12 are officials and 8 non-officials. The Deputy Commissioner is the ex-officio President of the Committee.¹

The area of the Committee is 32.82 square miles out of which 14.42 square miles is government land and is under the direct

1. Delhi District Census Handbook, pp.xl,xli

management of the Land and Development Office. The population of the area is 279,177.¹

The various departments of the NDMC are:

- 1 - General: collection of taxes and fines,
- 2 - Road, buildings and other construction,
- 3 - Education: Primary, middle and high schools,
- 4 - Electricity and water supply,
- 5 - Sanitation, sewers and drainage,
- 6 - Public health: Hospitals and dispensaries
- 7 - Public library and reading rooms.

The income of the New Delhi Municipal Committee, according to the budget of 1949-50 amounted to Rs. 15,288,642 as under:

Municipal Revenues:	Rs. 11,326,840
Loan from Central Gov't:	Rs. 700,000
Suspense Account:	Rs. 3,261,802

The major sources of municipal revenue are:

Electric Supply:	44.8%
Municipal Taxes)	33.9%
House and Rent)	
Water Supply	14.76%

The expenditure pattern for 1949-50 shows 30% on Electric supply, about 25% on Medical and Public Health and only 7%

1. Ibid, p. xlii.

on Education. Public works, including maintaining of roads, claim another 10%.¹ The low percentage (merely 7%) on education is due to the fact that there are many private and semi-public schools in New Delhi area, which are sometimes aided by the Delhi State Government. Moreover, the NDMC is not legally responsible for this 'compulsory universal education'. This, however, explains the situation only partially for the lack of adequate data.

3. Shahdra Municipal Committee:

The town of Shahdra is situated on the eastern side of Yamuna River at a distance of 4.5 miles from Delhi city. Shahdra was constituted as a notified area committee in 1916 under Punjab Municipal Act 1911. In 1943 it was raised to the status of a Class II Municipal Committee.² The number of members was fixed at 10; 6 out of which were to be nominated by the Chief Commissioner, and 4 elected. In 1947 the Committee was enlarged to 17 members with 13 elected and 4 nominated (2 ex-officio and 2 nominated). The area under the committee is 4.0 square miles and its population is 30,502 persons.

The annual budget income for 1949-50 was Rs. 461,278, the main source being the House Tax and Toll Tax.³ The expenditure on Health was Rs. 159,417, (34.6% and on Education it is: Rs. 95,993 (20.6%).

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1. For detailed references see Delhi Census Handbook pp. xli and xlii.
 2. Ibid pp. li, lii.
 3. Ibid, p. lii.

The Shahadra Municipal Committee has indeed very few functions, the major ones of which are listed below:

- 1 - Education: Primary and middle schools, arts and crafts schools,
- 2 - Medical and Public Health,
- 3 - Street Lighting,
- 4 - Improvement and maintenance of roads and drains,
- 5 - Library and reading room

(b) NOTIFIED AREA COMMITTEES:

1. Notified Area Committee Civil Lines:

Established in 1913 under Punjab Municipal Act 1911, the NAC (Notified Area Committee) covers an area of 8.86 square miles and has a population of 80,972 according to the Census of India 1951.¹ The committee is a nominated body of 9 members with Deputy Commissioner as the President. The Vice-President is,

1. Delhi District Census Handbook, pp.Xlv, xlvi and xlvii.

however, a non-official.

The committee income in 1951-52 was Rs. 1,652,267 out of which Rs. 1,003,319 (61.5%) was from taxes (house tax, terminal tax share, motor tax and cycle tax). On the expenditure side public health took Rs. 557,795 (33.4%), Water supply Rs. 332,987 (19.9%) and Rs. 219,641 (12.6% on Electric lighting, gardens, parks, Rs, 131,180 (7.9%) on education and Rs. 116,645 (6.4%) on municipal works.¹

The main function of the committee are education, public health, water supply and electric lights (street lighting).

2. Notified Area Red Fort:

The area of this committee is about ONE square mile and a population of 10,022, which consists of military personnel and civilians.² The Station Staff Officer of the Armed Forces is the ex-officio Secretary of the Committee. The committee is all nominated. The total income of the committee for the year 1950-51 was Rs. 104,672 and expenditure Rs. 124,462.³ Main items of income were house tax, conservancy tax, professional tax and rent

1. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement, pp. 101-102.

2. Delhi District Census Handbook, p. Iii.

3. Ibid, p.Iii.

on municipal shops. The main items of expenditure were general establishment, conservancy, public health and school establishments.

3. Notified Area Committee MEHRAULI:

Established in 1911 the NAC Mehrauli has a total area of less than ONE square mile. It consists of 12 members; 10 elected and 4 nominated. Its population 7,443 in 1951.¹ The budgeted income for the financial year 1952-53 being Rs. 104,000 including a major government grant of Rs. 43,000 for education. Toll tax contributes to Rs. 29,500 and house tax Rs. 15,000.

The annual expenditure is mainly on education Rs. 58,000 (51.6%) and another Rs. 28,000 (26.9%) on public health and amenities. The Notified Area Committee runs 1 primary school for boys and 1 middle school for girls.²

The secretary of the committee is the Naib Tahsildar (Assistant Collector).

1. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement, p. 104.

2. Ibid, p. 104.

4. Notified Area Committee NAJAFGARH:

Established in 1911, the committee has an area of ONE square mile and has a population of 5,091.¹ The committee consists of 9 members; 7 elected and 2 nominated by the Deputy Commissioner. The annual budgeted income of the committee is Rs. 17,000 out of which the house tax earnings are Rs. 7,000. The total expenditure was Rs. 15,000 in 1951-52, out of which Rs. 6,800 were spent on public health and sanitation. The education in the area is taken care of by the Delhi state government agencies.

5. Notified Area Committee NARELA:

Established in 1919, the whole committee was a nominated body until 1951. Now it consists of 12 members; 8 elected and 4 nominated, with a non-official President. The committee has an area of 1.5 square miles and a population of 9,643. The total income of the committee is Rs. 57,000, out of which Octroi tax forms the main bulk of money, constituting Rs. 20,000. House tax constitutes another Rs. 16,000. The committee spent Rs. 15,000 on public health and Rs. 17,500 on establishment and Rs. 13,000 on rural development... thus saving Rs. 15,000 in 1952-53.²

1. Ibid, p. 104.

2. Ibid, p. 105.

6. Notified Area Committee WEST DELHI:

The committee came into existence as recently as 1943 to cover the newly urbanized areas of Shadipura, Saraai Rohilla and the industrial areas of Delhi Improvement Trust. It covers an area of 3.45 square miles with a population of 58,575.¹ It consisted of 7 members out of which 3 were nominated and 4 were ex-officio members. The President used to be a non-official.

The income was mainly from terminal tax share in the DMC and house tax. The main expenditure is on public health, anti-Malaria operations, and water and electric distribution services.

In 1952 the West Delhi Notified Area Committee was amalgamated in the Delhi municipal committee.²

(c) The DISTRICT BOARD:

As mentioned before, Delhi state consists of one district, one Tehsil and one district board. The jurisdiction of the Delhi District Board is 498.57 square miles--mainly rural, containing a population of 302,800 people. Its total revenue was in 1951-52

1. Delhi District Census Handbook, P. L.

2. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement, p. 78.

Rs. 952,275; out of which Rs. 526,658 (55%) was spent on education.¹
 The board is running two high schools, 10 anglo-vernacular middle schools, and a number of primary schools. Public health claimed another Rs. 254,534.

The Board consists of 24 members out of which 21 are elected and 3 are ex-officio. The three ex-officios being:²

- 1 - Superintendent Health Operations,
- 2 - District Inspector of Schools,
- 3 - The Development Officer.

The functions and powers as well as the budget of the District Board, therefore, extremely limited. The District Boards can do lot of useful work and their scope can really be enlarged and broad-based to include rural development and community projects and village planning. However, as they are, they have very few functions and almost no powers.

(d) The Delhi Cantonment Board:

Besides these local bodies there is the Delhi Cantonment Board which is somewhat comparable to a local municipal or Notified Area Committee.

The Delhi Cantonment is also called Palam Cantonment. It is situated on the south-western edge of New Delhi at a distance

1. Ibid, p. 104.
2. Ibid, pp. 104,105.

of 12 miles. It came into existence in 1912. Its area is 1.9 square miles (or 12,172 acres) and total population 40,950 as per census of 1951.¹ It has been classified as a Class I Cantonment, according to the Section :13: of the Cantonment Act 1924. The Civil Affairs are, however, dealt by a Board consisting of 16 members, 7 of whom are elected, the rest nominated. The power of control over the affairs of the Board rests in the general officer commanding and the central government.

The Board runs one higher secondary school for boys and one for girls, besides one middle school for girls. The public health and general conservancy is also taken care of by the Board. More details regarding income-expenditure pattern could not be available during this study.

1. Delhi Census Handbook, p. iL.

Apart from the units of administration described in the preceding Chapters, there are other public and statutory bodies whose range of work is: from utility services like the joint water and sewerage board to the Delhi Transport Authority, which was constituted by an Act of the Parliament.

1. Water Supply and Sewerage Board:

The Delhi 'Joint Water and Sewerage Board' is responsible for maintaining and operating these services. They have a committee which has on its membership, representatives of various municipalities, the Delhi Improvement Trust and Central Public Works Department (CPWD). Obviously the Board was conceived to be a co-ordinating agency which would work for the benefit of the entire region and may not be attached to any one particular municipality. There are in Delhi city alone 508,633 feet of

sewer mains.¹ However, this is far from adequate.² The case in New Delhi, the civil lines and the Cantonment area is somewhat different; where every house must be compulsorily connected with sewer mains.

2. Delhi State Electricity Board:

The electric and power supply system is also maintained as a separate entity. It works through the help of a council on which are represented members of various local bodies and administration. Most of the rural area has not, as yet, any electricity. It can, however, be hoped that with the completion of Bhakra Dam more and cheaper electricity will be available to all the region (this includes Punjab, Rajasthan, Western U.P. and Delhi State).

3. Delhi Transport Authority:

The Delhi Road Transport Authority was established on April 1, 1950, under an Act of the Indian Parliament.³ Public conveyance in the urban and sub-urban areas of the state is provided by the Bus services. In Delhi city tramways and trackless trolley busses also operate under joint control. Previously these

1. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement, pp. 94,95.

2. It can be safely said that in 1952 in Delhi city there were not more than 25% of dwelling units which had sewer connections of their water closets into the municipal sewer.

3. Delhi Census Handbook, 1951, p. xxvii.

tramways were operated by Delhi Electric Supply and Traction Company, which was a semi-public concern. This was taken over and amalgamated with the newly created Delhi Transport Authority.

The Delhi Transport Service was operating with a fleet of 250 buses and 20 Tramway cars in 1952. This was on more than 30 routes. On an average about 20,000 bus miles and 1,130 tram miles were being operated daily.¹ The development plans of the Delhi Transport Authority call for increasing the strength of the fleet to 500.²

4. Delhi State Transport Authority:

This authority was constituted for registration and licensing carriers and vehicles in Delhi state. The Superintendent of Police (Traffic) and the Executive Engineer of the CPWD lead the committee. There has been a steady increase in motor vehicles from 4,000 in 1942 they have now grown to about 40,000 in 1952.³ Besides this, there are 600 cycle rickshaws, 10,000 motor cycles, 1,500 carts (ox-carts), 5,000 tongas⁴ and 150,000 bicycles in 1952.⁵

1. Ibid, p. xxvii.

2. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement, p. 71.

3. Ibid, p. 70.

4. Tongas are two-wheel carriages pulled by a horse and usually has a seat capacity for 4 persons excluding the kowchwaan (coachman).

5. Ibid, p. 70.

5. The Delhi Improvement Trust:

The Improvement Trust was constituted under the U.P. Town Improvement Act of 1919 as extended to Delhi. An I.C.S.¹ Officer was deputized by the Government in 1936 to report on the housing conditions. In his report he recommended the setting of the trust.

The Board of Delhi Improvement Trust consists of 4 officials and 3 non-officials, including the chairman who may or may not be an official. (So far no non-official has been appointed). The 7 trustees of the Board are listed below:

- 1 - The Chairman (appointed by the Chief Commissioner),
- 2 - An officer of the CPWD (appointed by the Chief Commissioner),
- 3 - Assistant Director of Public Health (ex-officio),
- 4 - Financial Advisor (appointed by the Chief Commissioner),
- 5 - 2 members of the Delhi Municipal Committee (elected by DMC),
- 6 - One other person appointed by the Chief Commissioner,

Unlike the other Improvement Trusts, the Delhi Improvement Trust has no Engineering staff of its own. It gets its technical work done through the CPWD who levies departmental charges equivalent to 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ % over and above the actual cost of work.

The jurisdiction of the Trust extends to an area of approximately 150 square miles.² The Government of India gave

1. I.C.S. = Indian Civil Service.

2. For further details refer to Delhi District Census Handbook 1951 and Rajdhani Weekly - Delhi State Supplement.

land to the Trust with the stipulation that the Trust will develop this land with special reference to the improvement of Delhi area. On the financial side, the net profits were to be utilized by the Trust to finance its schemes. The Trust had three 3-year programs (1938-40, 1941-44, and 1947-50).¹ During the last 15 years of operation the Trust has been able to develop for residential use 1,500 acres of land. The salient spheres of the Trust's activity may be described as follows:

- 1 - Development and improvement of under-developed or neglected land under the Nazul area,²
- 2 - Rehousing and Slum clearance,
- 3 - Conservancy Arrangements: Sanitation in Trust areas and developments,
- 4 - Refugee Rehabilitation: 2,000 acres of land,
- 5 - Town Expansion Schemes.

The Trust have formed several "regulative" schemes embracing an area of about 6,000 acres in the suburbs of Delhi. In April, 1950 the Government of India appointed an Enquiry Commission to review the Constitution and the present operation with reference to the formulation of the future housing policy of the Trust. In

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1. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement pp. 98, 99 and 101.
 2. Nazul Areas are historically those areas which were, at one time, the personal property (real estate, farms, etc.) of the rulers or monarchs, after the British conquest. These properties were taken over by the Government for management.

the interim report (September 1950) and final report (January 1951) the Enquiry Committee said that "in the matter of slum clearance or even in the development of land, the Trust had not proved a success".¹

The Enquiry Committee recommended the setting up, in place of trust, a "financially autonomous authority" which should be representative in character and should have a non-official majority on its Board. Slum clearance, land developments and housing should be the main responsibilities of this organization. The new target for housing, fixed by the Enquiry Committee was the development of 600 acres of land providing accomodation to 600,000 'surplus' population.²

The Government of India till 1953, was still considering the report of the Enquiry Commission!

6. The Central Public Works Department (CPWD):

The Central Public Works Department is worth mentioning, as it performs most of the construction jobs in the Delhi area on behalf of the Government of India as well as for the Improvement trust and other local bodies like the DMG, the NDMC and the Civil Lines Notified Area Committee. It has its representation on various other public agencies as well, such as water and sewerage board.

1. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement, p. 99.
2. Ibid, pp. 99, 100.

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The Central Public Works Department is under the Central Government of India. More specifically it is under the Ministry of Public Works and Housing. As there is, at present, no separate Public Works Department in Delhi state and since many of the buildings in New Delhi are constructed for the Government of India, the C.P.W.D. is the agency which does all the construction work. The C.P.W.D. has many divisions and branches like roads, buildings, etc. It has also an Architectural Design Department which is, conceivably, responsible for planning decisions regarding the establishment and execution of many new townships - both by private developus (like Delhi Land and Finance Limited) and public agencies. Most probably it is, according to its advice (and certainly its architectural designs). That most of the so-called "Refugee Colonies" and markets for the 'Displaced Population' have been constructed everywhere in Delhi metropolitan area.

CHAPTER :6:

PROBLEMS OF METROPOLITAN AREA

From the preceding chapters it has now become clear that the growth of Delhi, the increase in population, and the existing administrative machinery is complex, and getting more so as the time passes. Delhi which had only 405,819 population in 1901 has now 1,744,072 inhabitants in 1951 --- an increase of almost four-and-a-half times within 50 years! The functions of the government, as well as the sphere and activities of an area of this magnitude has enormously enlarged. And although some attempts in this direction has been made yet the over-all picture is far from satisfactory. These problems may briefly be described under following sections:

(a) Population Problem:

Since 1921 the population of Delhi state has increased rapidly with the inauguration of the 'new capital' at New Delhi, it grew

30.6% during 1921-31, and 42.0% during 1931-41. In the preceding decade (1941-51) the rise for the Delhi state was 90.28%. The corresponding figures for either areas are given in Table no. :7:

From the discussion in Chapter 2, "Growth of Delhi in the Recent Past", and the tables, therein, it is obvious that overcrowding, even by Indian standards, has become terrible. Even in 1936, the report on the housing conditions disclosed two-fold congestion in Delhi:

- Congestion of people in houses,
- Congestion of housing on land.

The most remarkable thing to be noted during the period 1921-51 is: where as New Delhi, Civil Lines and Cantonments areas were planned and laid out very spaciouly giving vast open spaces to a relatively small population, very little attention was paid to the areas which were, at that time (and even now) already crowded and were gaining population very rapidly. In fact they were deliberately neglected and allowed to deteriorate. Very little money was appropriated and almost no effort was made to plan for an even distribution of population to give breathing space to the already crowded Shahjahanabad (Delhi city). Perhaps this was true also for any other urban area in India as well. In case of Delhi it was only a matter of scale --- a very big scale indeed! The result now is self-evident when one sees the density of population in Delhi and New Delhi being 136,536 and 8,419 persons per square mile respectively.

The housing in Shahjahanabad (now known as Delhi city)

deteriorated and became slums. With the lack of efficient communications and popular local government the whole old urban area became belighted. This raised certain other inter-related problems -- problems of education, employment, health and sanitation and many others. There has been nothing like a zoning law or subdivision control to effect a desirable physical pattern. All that Delhi had was the building bye law, which are far from being adequate and themselves open to criticism, especially from any planning standpoint.

This whole situation became all the more severe with the arrival of nearly half a million of displaced persons.

(b) Economic Problems:

The increase in population brought forth, as already explained, huge economic burdens on the city. The problems of employment and location of industries, all became accentuated. Lack of planning resulted in the utmost chaos and disorder. Unemployment increased to an all time new high, although there was tremendous enlargement of the business and commercial activities.

(c) Social and Cultural Problems:

The pressure of population on one hand and the concentration

of density on the other hand together with limited and inadequate powers of the local administration brought about a sad neglect of primary education. The low economic level of the inhabitants further worsened the situation because the parents instead of sending children to the schools send them for some small piece of work which will help towards earning at least half-a-meal. Moreover, under these crowded conditions it is usually hard to find some suitable space or house that may be turned (even temporarily) into a school.

On the other hand there is, naturally, a great need for open green spaces and playgrounds for children, a need which has now become physically un-thinkable in the present built-up area. Facilities for outdoor (or even indoor) recreation, reading rooms and other such things are also lacking, partly because of the deficiencies in the local administration and partly because there is of no program in physical planning.

(d) Effect of Partition on Delhi State:

The partition of the sub-continent into Pakistan and Hindustan flooded Delhi with almost half-a-million displaced persons from areas of Pakistan. Most of them, as Table no. :13: shows, live in urban areas, thus in part explaining the extreme overcrowding of the city. New colonies for their resettlement were made, as shown in map no. : :., and many found accomodation in the evacuee's property. In short they brought a great change in the entire physical texture of Delhi state in general and urban areas in particular. The fabric of the whole economy underwent a radical

change, as did the social and cultural life.

A recent survey conducted by the Delhi State Government revealed that in June, 1952, there were still 20,269 many families living on the streets. Table no. :22: gives an account of the number of squatters in the city of Delhi.¹

(e) Physical Problems:

The influx of population naturally effected the physical pattern of land uses of the entire metropolitan region. The land uses which were already irrational became even more chaotic. Congestion reached its new peak with hundreds of families and individuals actually living on the side-walks and the squatters carrying out their business on footpaths, on the footsteps of mosques, temples, and bank buildings. Of course, the situation now is somewhat relieved but basically there is but little difference.

The partition of the country, and the great increment in the population gave rise to 'mushroom towns and developments' like Rajouri Gardens, DLF Model Town, Tilak Nagar, etc.

1. Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement, p. 56.

These were initiated by private enterprises of the Real Estate Development type, and they started the business not so much to help in the settlement of refugees or for a rational distribution of population but more so for speculation in land values. With only a few exceptions, none of them really produced any township on any sound planning principle. The absence of any comprehensive master plan allowed them to have, without any check, the development schemes practically anywhere they could get hold of the land. (This reminds of the 'pre-mature sub-divisions' in the United States.)

Still another part of the story lies in the fact that the government's own the CPWD started building big markets (like the Ajmeria Market), big office buildings, and some housing projects for the employees of the central government in the remaining few open spaces without any regard to the future consequences of such ventures. The market, for instance, was built to help out the refugee businessmen but was located and planned in a manner that would generate enormous traffic in an already bottlenecked part of the city. Moreover, when the decision was taken no attention was paid to the question of whether another huge market containing hundreds of shops was economically feasible or not? The same is true for the multi-story development of flats and offices on the site cleared by demolishing the old wall of Shahjahanabad (city). This space could have been left as an open area between the old and new city. Instead tall buildings are being erected there.

Examples of such development and construction are numerous where the decisions were taken divorced from the long range benefits and objectives to the city and people. Many of the wonderful opportunities were not only lost, but by wrong and incorrect decisions were turned into fresh and insurmountable problems.

(f) Administrative Problems:

On the administrative aspect although there was the unified power of the Chief Commissioner, yet it was far from beneficial. It may be that primarily the Chief Commissioner and the officers under him do not feel responsible to the people. They very seldom take into account the popular feeling and lack courage for any long-range or bold action. This was especially true in the pre-independence period. And yet, under the popular urge of the people there had to be established quite a few local municipal bodies. However, in this respect the powers of such bodies were extremely limited and often superceded by the Chief Commissioner as Deputy Commissioner in the name of 'better administration'. The result being that in spite of the existance of the municipalities they were sub-ordinated to the top administration even in local matters and they increased the number of units in the local government, thus adding to the problems of administration of a metropolitan region.

On the whole the various kinds of administrative units in Delhi State may broadly be described in 4 catagories:

- 1 - The Chief Commissioner and his Staff;
- 2 - The Delhi State Government,
- 3 - The Local self Government,
- 4 - The Statutory Bodies: like the Delhi Transport,
the Delhi Improvement Trust, etc.,

The Chief Commissioner, as stated previously, is the real head of the administration. He has a unique role; he could have been an effective co-ordinator and served as a unifying power over the whole metropolitan area. But he seldom did so since first: he was appointed by the President and had no responsibility towards the people, and second: the various units of administration which were established in part to take into account the democratic aspirations of the people but mainly as a device for a unified control of such public concerns as transport and water supply.

The Delhi State Government created very recently, has very little powers and even those that the part C states act provides are subject to the veto of the Chief Commissioner. The units of local self government, which in many instances, are almost all nominated by the authorities (the Chief Commissioner or the Deputy Commissioner) have indeed very few functions or powers. Even these powers and functions are overlapped elsewhere and in some cases cannot be tackled either efficiently or economically on the scale given to them. (For instance education and public health in rural areas). The complexities of modern living thrust upon the cities great responsibilities for providing utilities, services, maintaining public safety, guarding public health, developing recreation, slum clearance and anti-epidemic measures

(like anti-malaria control). And yet under the present set-up none of the agency or agencies can furnish these facilities economically and efficiently. They do not have any solutions because in many cases their powers are seriously curtailed or else overlapped.

On the other hand, most of these functions do not stop at the formal boundaries of the local bodies, and need a unified control as well as co-operation and co-ordination. Authority to provide these facilities is scattered and although there are some statutory bodies but their mere existence does not mean that the problems are solved or are under more efficient control. As a matter of fact they only increase the number of administrative units and sometimes duplicate the functions. No one unit has any decisive control over area-wide problems except (perhaps) the Chief Commissioner, and he lacks initiative because he is not appointed on a public mandate. Moreover, most of these problems, not only require effective control or operation but also need to be tackled in a comprehensive way which can only be done by planning. And this Delhi does not have!

As such under the present system of administration there is no metropolitan coverage of essential functions and services, to say least of effective co-ordination or planning. There is, in fact, wide disparity between the needs in the various parts of the metropolitan area and resources and skills to provide for these needs economically and efficiently. Even with the unifying and central position of the Chief Commissioner it is physically impossible for the community to plan its social or economic life.

The quality and sufficiency of many functions of the government in a democratic community is of as much interest and significance to a citizen as it is the Chief Executive.

What does all this mean?

first that the growth and expansion of the National Capital Region has many roots and many inter-relationships: economically,
socially,
culturally, and
politically;

second that though at present, Delhi has most of its population congested and concentrated in the central areas, it may begin to spread out with the developing means of communications;

third that this spread or 'urban sprawl' may be both in terms of population as well as economic base and physical nature of future developments.¹

fourth that the problems of growth (of the core area as well as fringe or suburb areas) are, to a great extent, dependent upon the government and administration of Delhi state, and hence

1. Examples of such growth are not at all lacking for the new townships, the areas developed by private concerns and co-operatives, all point in the same direction.

should be dealt together.

fifth that the process of solving these urban and rural problems is so inter-related that it cannot be effectively tackled separately and needs effective co-ordination and unified control.

The problem of the metropolitan region is then the part of the larger problem of economic, social, and political organization of the nation. This is even more so when such a metropolitan area also happens to be the "seat of that nation".

Part C

OBJECTIVES

Review of contemporary planning abroad
assumptions and basis for framework

P A R T : C :

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CHAPTER : 7 :

SOME FOREIGN EXAMPLES OF METROPOLITAN PLANNING:

The modern city, with all its complexities and problems is the child of nineteenth century --- or to be more appropriate --- a product of the Industrial Revolution. The metropolitan areas --- conurbations, as they are often designated in Europe, have, however, grown in the 20th century with its advanced technology and developed means of communication. A considerable proportion of people in Europe and America live in these densely populated and yet 'sprawling' areas, each containing more than a million people. It may, therefore, be instructive to observe in brief, the nature of their socio-economic pattern, as well as their planning problems and planning organizations.

These problems are, in many ways, quite different from those that are faced by the urban concentrations in the under-developed countries such as India. Moreover, "these problems are

peculiarly intractable, partly because of their sheer scale and complexity, and partly because of the friction and inadequacies of the institutional framework which must cope with them".¹

And yet what is more important (and from which the planners of the developing countries can learn) are the different approaches to these metropolitan problems, and various attempts to devise new methods and machinery to deal the great urban phenomenon. Keeping in view this fact, certain selected examples from foreign lands are given. They are ---

From Great Britain:	London
From the United States:	New York,
	Los Angeles,
	Washington, D.C.
	Detroit,
From Australia:	Melbourne,
From Canada:	Ottawa,
	Toronto,
From India:	Bombay.

1. Peter Self: Town Planning in United States and Britain, Town Planning Review, Volume xxv, issue no. :4: January, 1955, p.271.

1. L O N D O N:

The greater London plan of 1944, prepared and submitted by Professor Abercombie precedes three previous plans dealing with parts of London region. The Plan of 1944 extends to an area of 30 mile-radius from the centre.¹ Greater London with 2,599 square miles has been described as containing 5,892,848 inhabitants and 143 local planning authorities, besides 101 basic local government units.² Besides this there are in the area "other statutory authorities, whose functions impinge upon planning one way or the other, such as the Port of London Authority, the Drainage and Hospital Boards."³ Of the 143 local planning bodies, nearly everyone has a planning scheme prepared or in course of preparation, independently of its neighbors. Although a few advisory and executive committees have been at work, "there has been a 'lamentable failure' to realize the need for co-ordination in planning around London".⁴

The Plan for the London Region is built up of a number of Counties, County Boroughs and County Districts and the Regional Plan necessarily consists of general ideas rather than detailed proposals. "It is extensive rather than intensive in character".

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1. The City of London Plan, County of London Plan 1943, see p.1.
 2. Greater London Plan 1944, see Table on p. 214.
 3. Peter Self, "Town Planning in U.S. and Britain", Town Planning Review, January 1955 issue, p. 276.
 4. Greater London Plan 1944, p.1.

In order to administer planning in Greater London, the County of London and the City of London, the Plan recommended the creation of a Planning Authority by the Parliament. "This authority should be, not merely a sanctioning authority with power only to prevent wrong usage of land, but should be an authority with constructive duties and powers to produce physical changes in the area, both immediately and over a long period of time".¹

The authority should be responsible to the Minister of Town and Country Planning and may consist of a Regional Planning Board comprising a small number of eminent men of affairs. The function of the Board would be to ensure the future developments in the area in confirmity with the Master Plan. This Master Plan, in turn to be based on various plans presented to the Ministry from:

- (1) the London County,
- (2) the City of London,
- (3) the Greater London.

The local planning schemes were to be worked out by Joint Executive Committees with "areas small enough to ensure that local interests are understood, yet large enough to secure co-ordination".² The boundries of the committees should be drawn with due regard to the community of interests and the physical

1. Ibid, p.3.

2. Ibid, p. 183.

configuration. These committees were to be composed of the "various local authorities" in each area, and each committee is to be advised by a "competent planning officer". The Regional Board shall also have the over-riding powers (apart from advisory or co-ordinating) dealing directly with planning matters and being responsible only to the Minister. For certain purposes also the Board could set up an Executive Area, for example: Regional Green Belt or Regional Housing Corporation.¹ "Yet no action on the general lines of a Regional Committee has been taken".²

The London Plan has been criticized by Mumford upon the basis of what he terms "the fundamental matter that had been neglected, the relation of population growth to the city design". "A truly great plan would have been for a constellation of Garden Cities". He finally adds "Metropolitan London, even the County of London, is too small a unit for re-planning and re-building, indeed, the essential provincialism of the metropoli is one of the chief obstacles to its reformation".³

The pre-conditions which Mumford lays down for the re-planning of London are worthy of further consideration, and are in brief:

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1. Ibid, p. 182.
 2. Peter Self, "Town Planning in U.S. and Britain", Town Planning Review, January, 1955 issue, page, 279.
 3. Lewis Mumford: City Development, p. 239.

1 - A National Population Policy, looking towards its stabilization, if not its increase instead of permitting the threatened decrease of population to go unchecked;

2 - A Policy of Urban Land Utilization, which may liquidate the present structure of urban values, and permit large scale construction, in a fashion favorable to family life and 'balanced communal relationships";

3 - A National Policy of Industrial De-Centralization, that may progressively move population out of London, and other large centers until a net reproduction rate, close to 1.0 is achieved;

4 - Regional Administrative Units, that will undertake the task of building and planning outside present municipal limits or county areas and which will co-ordinate the work of the municipalities themselves.

In conclusion, "the operation of planning is not entirely a British problem. "How to achieve some form of centralized control, with de-centralized responsibility and yet keep the whole thing flexible and workable is almost a world problem".¹

1. Jacqueline Tyrwhit: Metropolitan Planning Symposium, p. 22.

2 - NEW YORK:

The New York metropolitan area, with a population of nearly 8 million in the New York City itself (comprising of five Borroughs) and over 12 million in the entire region, is the biggest in the world. The area of New York City is 338 square miles. (It was enlarged from 38 square miles in 1898 to 338 square miles).¹ Actually the area of the New York City in itself constitutes but a small part of its metropolitan region. In 1940 the average number of separate administrative units in New York - New Jersey metropolitan area were 284, in addition to the central cities.² A chart of the government of New York City is attached in the Appendix, to show the structural organization of the municipal government.

The pioneer job, marking an important stage in the development of Regional Planning concept, was the well-known work done by the Regional Planning Association of New York. It was organized in 1929 and subsidized by a large grant from the Russell Sage Foundation, and produced the famous work, "Regional Plan of New York and its environs". This plan has had a great influence on the urban planning movement in New York area. "The difficulty in working out the Plan, as in all similar situations, has been that there was no authority by which activities could be co-

1. Almost three times the size of London County.

2. Walker C. Hallenback: American Urban Communities, p. 251

ordinated to bring the Plan into reality".¹ It was the most comprehensive plan made up to that time. It analyzed 22 urban counties in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut from the standpoint of a metropolitan area, and their respective importance and relationships. It appraised the resources and need of each in relationship to the whole, and it proposed a plan to unify the whole region as far as the planning was concerned. "While the plan was not official, and depended upon the acceptance of the public and their elected officials for its execution, it has been a major influence in the development of the metropolitan area".²

The three subsequent reports made by the New York Regional Plan Association, "From Plan to Reality" published in 1933, 1938 and 1942, described the progress towards the accomplishments of the plan which had been made in four, eight and twelve year periods. There has been some criticism of the New York Regional Plan. Among these Mumford's criticism being the most outspoken. Mumford sums up his argument, "In short, the Regional Plan, since it carefully refrains from proposing measures which would lead to efficient control of land, property rules, buildings, and human institutions, leaves the metropolitan district without hope of any substantial change or more than minor and necessary improvements".³

1. Ibid, p. 246.

2. Cleveland Rodgers and Rebecca B. Rankin: New York, the World's Capital City, p. 243.

3. Lewis Mumford: "The Plan of New York," published in the New Republic, June 15, 1932, pp. 121-126; and June 22, 1932; p.146-154, quoted by Professor Hallbank in American Communities, p.551.

The major contribution of the New York Plan, however, was "the stimulation it gave to thinking in Regional terms".¹ The mere recognition of the fact that metropolitan planning of an area containing more than a hundred agencies, "could not be accomplished simply by the independent co-operation of adjoining towns but had to be on a regional basis" is in itself a great accomplishment.²

3 - LOS ANGELES:

Within less than half-a-century, the area of Los Angeles has been converted into one of the most outstanding metropolitan centers of the United States and a gateway to the Orient. The population of the metropolitan area in 1940 was 2,904,596 but in 1950 it went up to 4,367,911 with an area of 1,540.8 square miles. The Los Angeles County Government has long been the focal point for the development of metropolitan planning, under the jurisdiction of Los Angeles County Regional Planning Commission since 1923. "Planning in the Los Angeles metropolitan region has progressed from the status of a vague advisory function to a very specific technical function of city and county government".³

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1. Professor Fredrick J. Adams, Metropolitan Planning Symposium, P. 22.
 2. Ibid, pp. 20-22.
 3. Judith Norvell Jamison, Co-ordinated Public Planning in Los Angeles Region, page 1.

In 1939 the Regional Planning District was created and a new legal status was given to the plans of the area. "Since then at least 4 official plans for the Regional Planning District have been adopted".¹

Regional Planning in the Los Angeles area has been classified as: "an outgrowth of the search for solution to the problem of the modern phenomenon of the metropolis and a substitution for city-county consolidation or any other device involving the relinquishment of local autonomy and identity by political subdivision in the region".²

However, there is no centralized review or control on local planning agencies. The Federal, State, or County Governments can make the granting of funds conditional upon special planning procedures, but the city retains final choice in the matter. The local municipalities often resent, as corporate entities, any coercion or, in this region, any hint at a metropolitan authority control. Gradually the Regional Planning pattern is spreading with the increase of Federal and State activity.³

"Although work of the Regional Planning Commission began in 1923 with the order from the Board of Supervisors for the preparation of a comprehensive highway network, there is no single comprehensive Master Plan for the region as defined in

1. Ibid, p. 135.

2. Ibid, P. 135.

3. Ibid, p. 86.

the Planning Acts".¹ However, there have been adopted in Los Angeles County as well as for the Regional Planning District, at least 4 plans, namely:

- 1 - Master Plan for Highways,
- 2 - Master Plan for Airports,
- 3 - Master Plan for Land Use,
- 4 - Master Plan for Shoreline Development,

Among the various "obstacles" to the Regional Plan includes the following:

1 - Centralization vs Autonomy:

Need for standardization of functions is opposed by the desires of different localities. Technical and administrative officers are often met with the opposition of locally elected officers. The desire of the communities within the region to maintain their individual identity looms large as an obstacle to complete the co-ordination activity.

2 - Legislative vs Executive Points of View:

3 - District Government vs Representative Government:

1. Ibid, p. 86.

4 - Regional vs County:

4 - WASHINGTON: D. C.

Washington, D.C., as the seat of the United States Government needs a special mention, all the more so, since the city of Washington is one of the few Capital cities of the modern world which was built according to a definite plan. It is also very interesting to note some similarities in the physical layout of the streets with that of New Delhi. (New Delhi, though built rather recently, (1920-25), was also according to a plan which together with its radial streets is somewhat similar to Washington, D.C.)¹ Since after the year 1791 when the first plan by L'Enfant was drawn, both the area and population have enormously increased. Washington, D.C. has now become a full-fledged metropolitan area stretching far more than its original boundaries.

The present National Capital and Park Commission was set up by an Act of the United States Congress in 1926, and was charged with "preparing, developing, and maintaining a comprehensive consistent and co-ordinated plan for the National Capital and its Environs".² It was in 1930 that the new commission was able

1. For details see the map of New Delhi, p. 7.

2. National Capital Park and Planning Commission, Washington: present and future, a general summary of the comprehensive plan, April 1950, p. 7.



NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION JURISDICTIONAL BOUNDARIES



848 PREPARED 1948



SCALE OF MILES
NATIONAL CAPITAL PARK AND PLANNING COMMISSION

CHART 10 : NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION : U S A

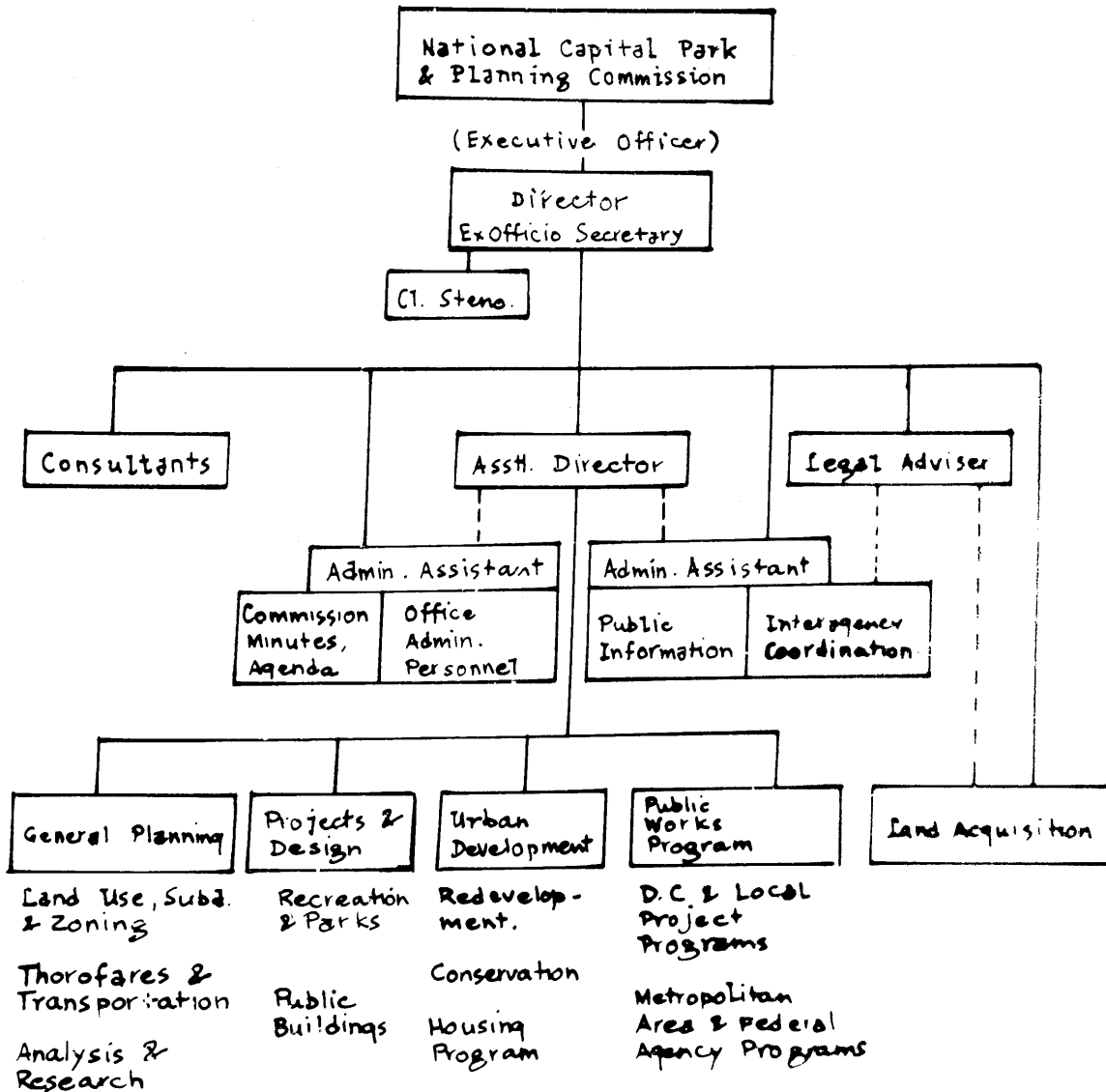
to develop and present, in outline, the basic elements of a comprehensive Regional Plan.

Soon, however, with the expansion in Federal activities in 1933, and the next 15 years spanning the great economic 'depression', war time, and post-war period, the principal features of 1930 plan were either "realized, partly realized, or made impossible of realization".¹ During this period the population, the physical needs, and problems grew tremendously on a scale and scope that could not have been foreseen in the early thirties. In April, 1950, the Commission published the Post War Plan. The Report declares that the "heart of the concept is to tie many different kinds of special purpose plans together so that all parts fit into their places without conflict; to promote order, convenience, economy, and livability".² And further: "the plan is not a blue print, but a general design. It is not a vision for the distant future but a schedule of action".³

The Commission is an independent agency. In addition to planning, the Commission has also some directive powers. As a Park Commission it can buy lands for parks, parkways, and playgrounds. Its land acquisition power is a 'unique tool, giving the general planning agency a strong, direct hand in putting into effect a key element of its over-all planning recommendations'.⁴

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1. Ibid, p. 7.
 2. Ibid, p. 7.
 3. Ibid, P. 7.
 4. Ibid, p. 44.

National Capital Park and Planning Commission :
Washington D.C United States of America:



Line of Administrative Authority _____
 Advisory Relationship - - - - -

CHART. II .

Under some other Acts the Commission has the authority to set the boundaries of re-development Project Areas, and approve Re-development Plans, to modify or change the official highway plan and to approve 'zoning requirements', including that of location of Federal Public Buildings which are otherwise not subject to the normal zoning laws.

A Bill, to recognize the structure and powers of the Commission, will also allow its planning boundaries to conform with the one given in 1950 United States Census.

In other words the scope of the National Capital Park and Planning Commission is both "broad and limited". The Plan actually offered its 'advice and suggestions' to all the agencies of government both inside and outside the District of Columbia!¹

However, as far as the implementation of the Plan is concerned, the "Commission is largely limited to stimulating others, and to acting as a watchdog".²

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1. The following are other planning agencies:
 1. The Maryland National Capital and Park Commission, which has park and planning jurisdiction in Maryland-Washington District and planning only in Maryland-Washington Regional District. For further reference see map.
 2. The Northern Virginia Regional Planning Commission includes all of two counties plus cities
 3. County Planning Commission (a) Arlington County, (b) Fairfax County
 4. Alexandria Planning Commission
 2. Ibid, p.44.

5 - D E T R O I T:

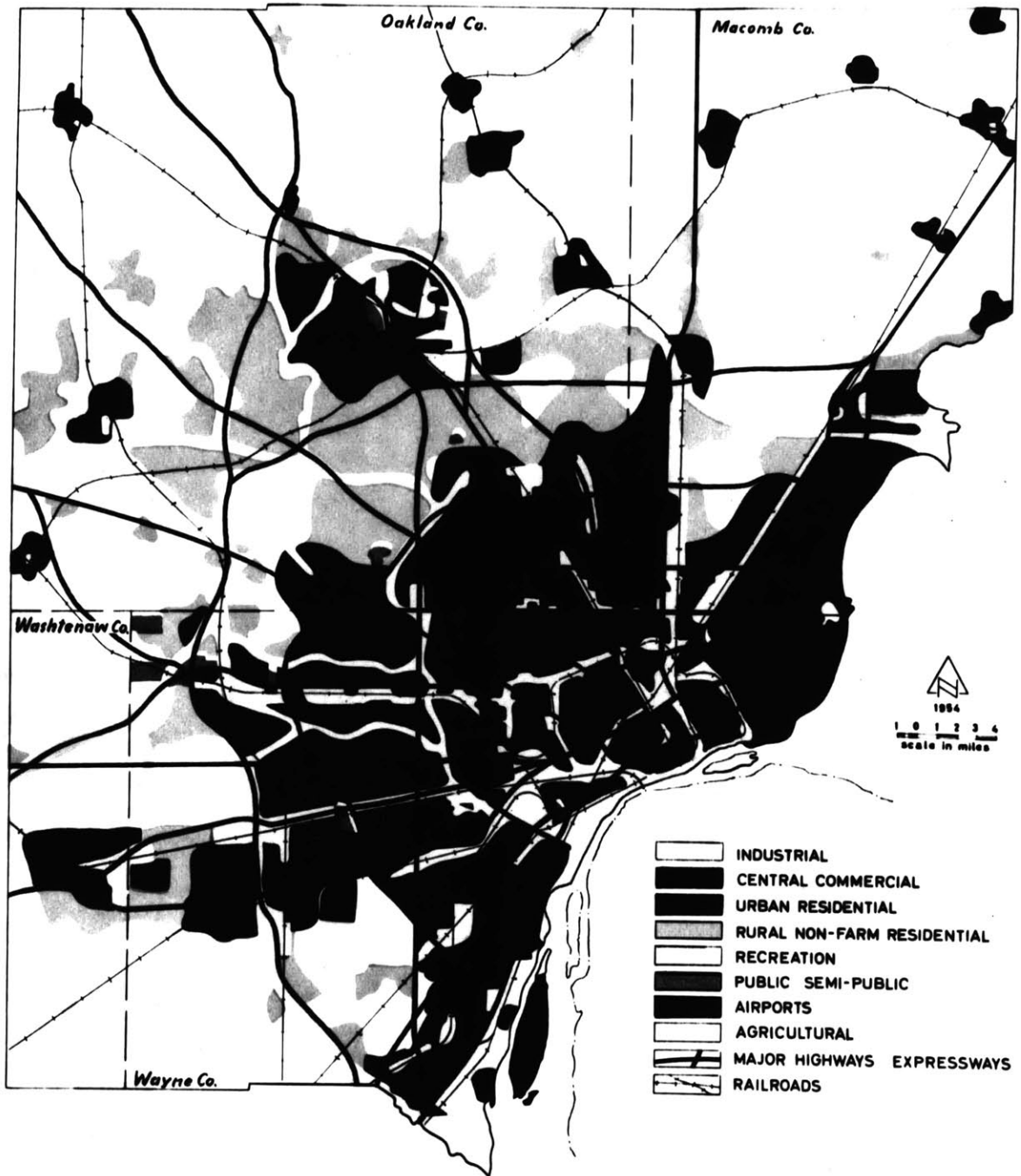
The Detroit Metropolitan Area Regional Planning Commission was established to bring 'co-operative effort and co-ordinated thinking' to bear upon the regional problem. It was formally created on June 26, 1947 under the Act 281 P.A. of 1945, by a resolution of the Michigan State Planning Commission. The content of this resolution was determined by a 26-men committee representing all sections of the region. Its composition, area, and objectives to be served were determined by the local people to meet a long standing and generally recognized need.¹

The Organizing Committee determined that the Regional area should include Wayne, Oakland, and Macomb counties and the 4 eastern townships of Washtenaw county --- an area of 2,100 square miles. It determined that the Commission should be composed of 46 members; 23 public officials, and 23 representatives of civic, economic and social fields. It also decided that the affairs of the Committee should be directed by a 12 man Executive Committee reflecting parity of officials and non-officials.² An organizational chart (no. :13:) is given for reference on pp. 88-89.

The population of the area is reported to be 3,400,000 people

1. A.S.P.O. (American Society of Planning Officials) newsletter, Volume 19, no. 10, October, 1953, pp. 83,84.
2. Detroit Regional Planning Commission Report, 1949, p. 5,6 and 7.

CHART 12: DETROIT METROPOLITAN PLANNING AREA :



who live in the region. The region has 126 municipalities and townships.¹

The whole set-up really started working in 1948. A program was established and now after five years of progress the time has arrived for measuring the actual positive accomplishments cumulatively against long range objectives. The Fifth Annual Report of the Organization expresses two certainties:

- (a) The substantial progress made toward acceptance of a co-ordinated Master Plan;
and
- (b) The wide-spread public and official confidence and support the planning program has won throughout the entire region.²

Of major significance to the logical sequence of the Commission's developing operation is the preparation of a preliminary land use plan during 1952. "It represents a definite contribution of vital information and invaluable assistance from local grants, business, industry and technical experts".³

In an exemplary way, an impressive feature of the Commission's operation has been the example of practical democracy it has set. "The Regional Planning Commission has gone out of its way to ensure integration of its operation with local government and

1. Detroit Metropolitan Regional Planning Commission, Annual Report 1953, P. 7, also

2. A.S.P.O. Newsletter, October, 1953, p. 3.

committee structure

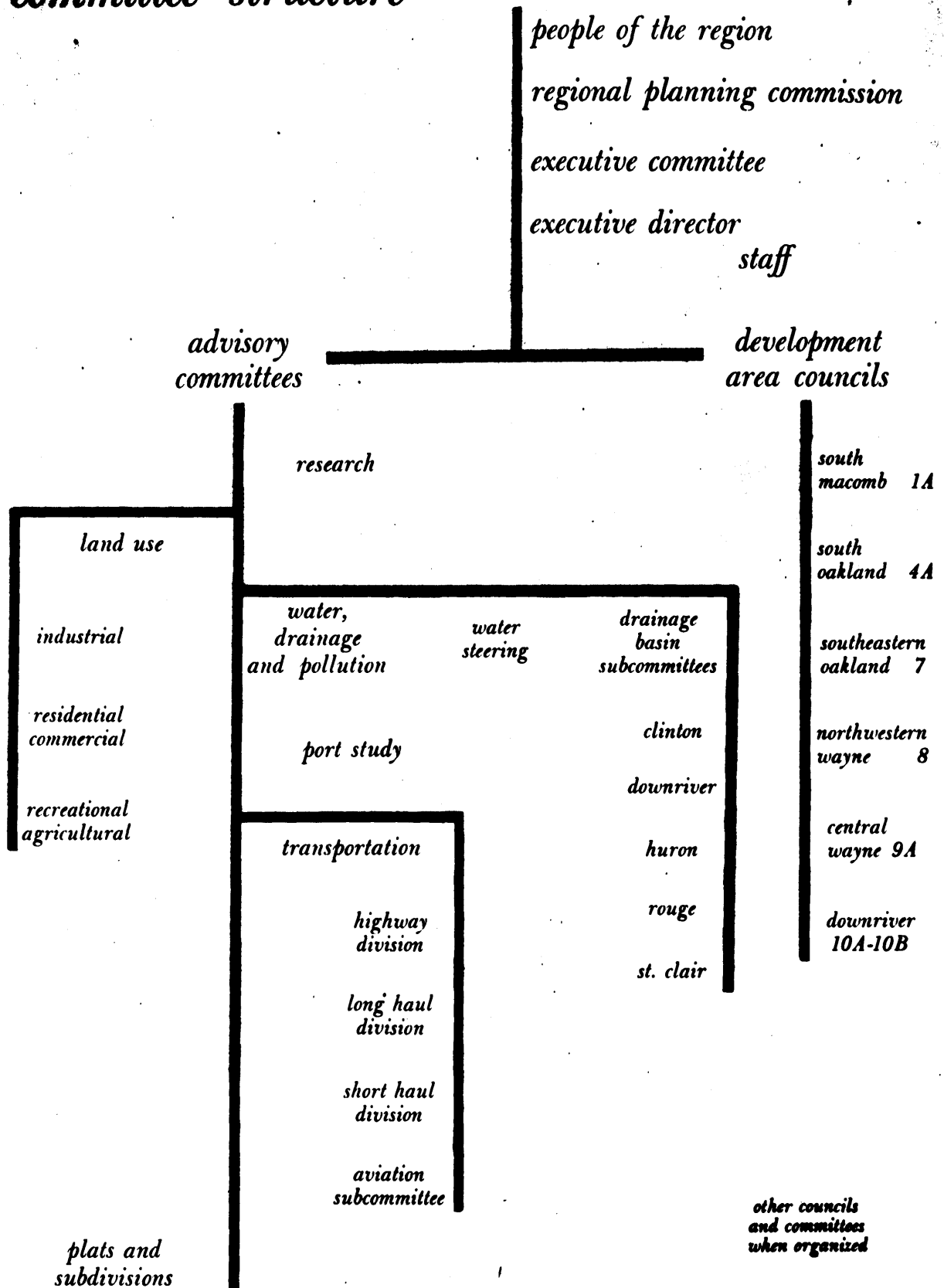


Chart 13. DETROIT METROPOLITAN AREA REGIONAL PLANNING COMMISSION.

private development in the Region".¹ It has emphasized local participation in fact-gathering and study. Whenever a major element of work is begun, an advisory committee is set up, which helps in formulating a program of study. The Commission maintains constant local contacts through "Development Area Councils". Each Council represents from 6 to 12 neighborhood communities subject to the same developments stimuli and in general comprising a logical 'local planning area'.

During the past five years of its existence the main concerns of the staff were the formulation of the basis of a Regional Plan, investigation into population and industrial potential, collection and analysis of land use data and information regarding major utilities.

The major obstacle to effective Regional Planning, states the 1951 Report of the Commission, is the multiplicity of the governmental units in the region. The answer to this problem was found by "the division of the entire region into 19 Development Areas".²

The Plan is still in a "preliminary stage, and the Commission is engaged in obtaining an agreement of 126 municipalities in the region on a logical land use plan".³ The Commission has "never

1. Ibid, p. 3.

2. Detroit Metropolitan Area Regional Planning Commission, Annual Report, 1951, page 7.

3. A.S.P.O. Newsletter, October, 1953 issue, p.83

had, nor has it sought, power under law to enforce its conclusions". As the Chairman for 1953 said, "the only power we have is the power of facts".¹

The full impact of this planning and the planning framework has yet to be felt. However, there are some interim benefits that have occurred. Outstanding in this regard is "the increasing number of communities grouping together and pooling their resources for the mutual solutions of their water sewerage, garbage, rubbish, transportation and other problems at great savings in dollars to the tax payers of each".²

To sum up: a well known planning official has said: "There is nothing in the United States to compare with the Regional Plan under operation in Detroit. It is the best program now in effect in any metropolitan city".³

6 - M E L B O U R N E:

Compared with the cities of the old World, Melbourne is comparatively very new. Yet within a period of 120 years of its existance, it has grown from a small settlement to a large city of nearly 1.5 million inhabitants. Melbourne to some extent, grew originally with a well-conceived plan especially in the

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1. Detroit Metropolitan Area Regional Planning Commission, Annual Report, 1953, page 3.
 2. Ibid, pp. 3,4-7,
 3. Walter Blucher: A leading American Planner was also then Executive Secretary of A.S.P.O., and now Vice-President of American Institute of Planners.

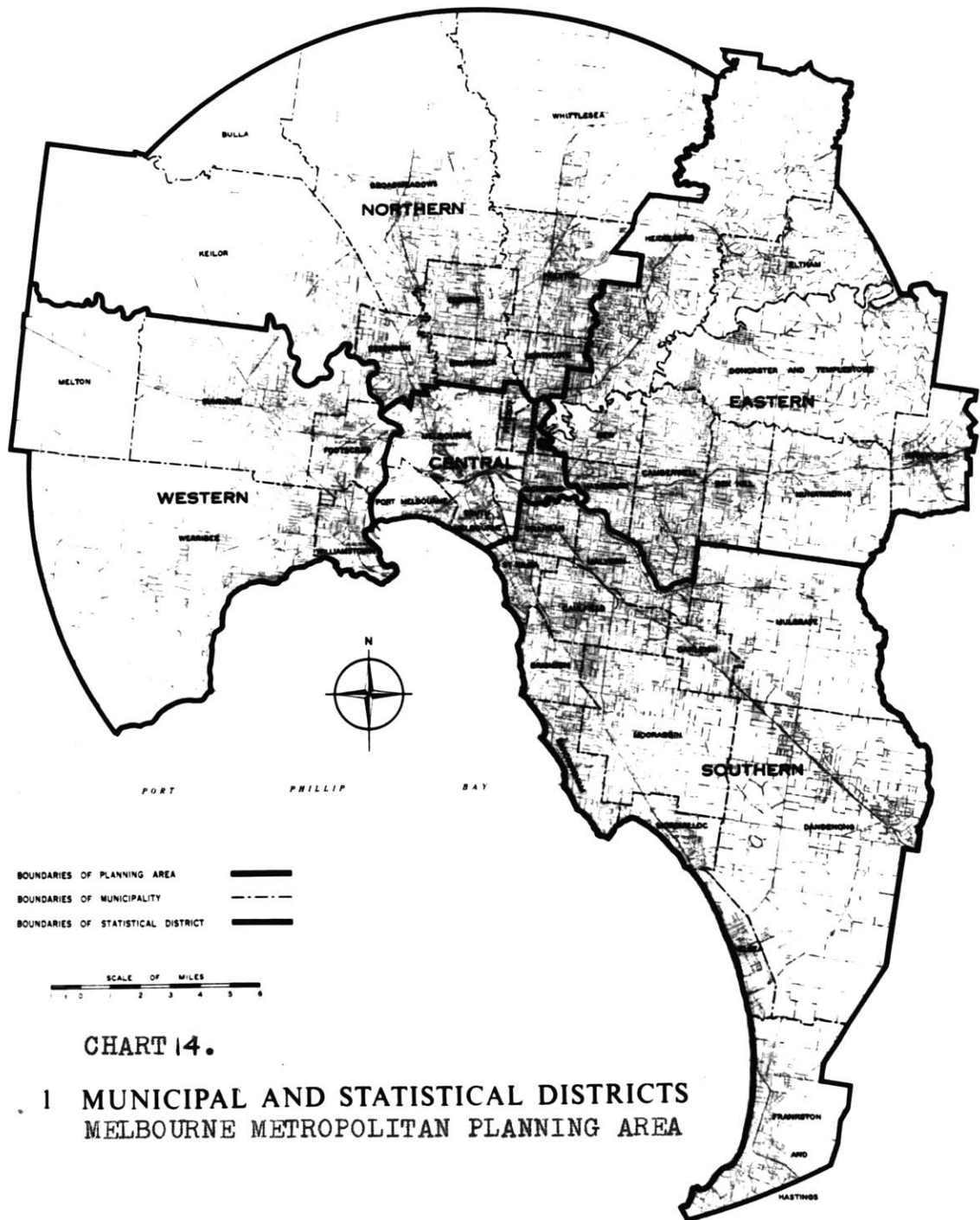


CHART 14.

1 MUNICIPAL AND STATISTICAL DISTRICTS
MELBOURNE METROPOLITAN PLANNING AREA

beginning. But its growth has been so rapid and the corresponding changes so extensive that "the city does not now provide the convenience and amenities which its citizens have a right to expect".¹

Melbourne to-day has 1,408,000 population and still continues to grow. It is the capital of ^{the state of} Victoria ~~province~~, and hence the administrative center. It was in 1949 that the ~~Parliament of~~ ^{Victorian Legislative Assembly} Australia gave responsibility of planning a metropolitan Melbourne to the "Melbourne Metropolitan Board of Works". The Board then constituted a Town Planning Committee which finally published its Plan in July, 1953.²

It should be noted at this point that as far back as 1922 a Metropolitan Town Planning Commission was constituted, and it even submitted "a well-studied, comprehensive and far reaching plan for controlling the development of the city".³ However, "no positive action was taken to give effect to these 'carefully considered' recommendations". So, when the Board was established with the responsibility of preparing a Plan for Metropolitan Melbourne, individual municipalities already had the power, under the Town and Country Planning Act of 1944, to prepare schemes for their own respective areas or to join with adjoining municipal bodies to frame joint planning schemes. Although the Town and

1. Melbourne Metropolitan Scheme, 1954, p. 13.

2. Ibid, p. 15

3. Ibid, p. 15.

City Planning Metropolitan Area Act of 1949 defined the Board's planning powers and responsibilities and to some extent also provided the machinery for liason between the Board and the respective Councils. "It did not in any way limit the ambit of the Board's responsibilities, or define the respective spheres of the Council and the Board".¹

The area for which the scheme had been prepared thus includes 648 square miles covering the jurisdiction of the individual municipalities as well. In preparing of the scheme for the Melbourne Metropolitan Area, the Parliament was "obviously actuated by the belief that, however, competent the local bodies might be in preparing planning schemes for their own areas the problems of the metropolitan region could not be effectively co-ordinated and solved by the individual approach of the 42 municipal councils whose districts, either wholly or in part, are within the metropolitan boundry".²

The Parliament realized that for an effective solution of metropolitan problems a unified and co-ordinated study of the area as a whole would be essential, and that until this was done, planning by individual local units could not be fully realistic or effective. It was apparent, therefore, that the Board's Planning Scheme should be considered as a framework into which the Planning Schemes of the local municipal units should

1. Ibid, p. 15.

2. Ibid, p. 15.

fit.

In summarizing the basic recommendations on cost and implementations the plan strongly asserts: "It is apparent that if the full benefits of metropolitan planning to be realized there will have to be a 'central authority with metropolitan jurisdiction' and with adequate powers and financial resources to enable it to effectively enforce and carry out the scheme".¹

The plan of 1953 further observes: "Thus it will be seen that the Metropolitan Planning Authority is essential if this Planning Scheme is to be carried out effectively and if it is not to become merely a paper dream or nullified by piecemeal and un-co-ordinated effort. To attempt to implement the scheme in any other way would be only a token attack on the problems confronting the metropolitan region and could be disastrous for the city and its citizens".²

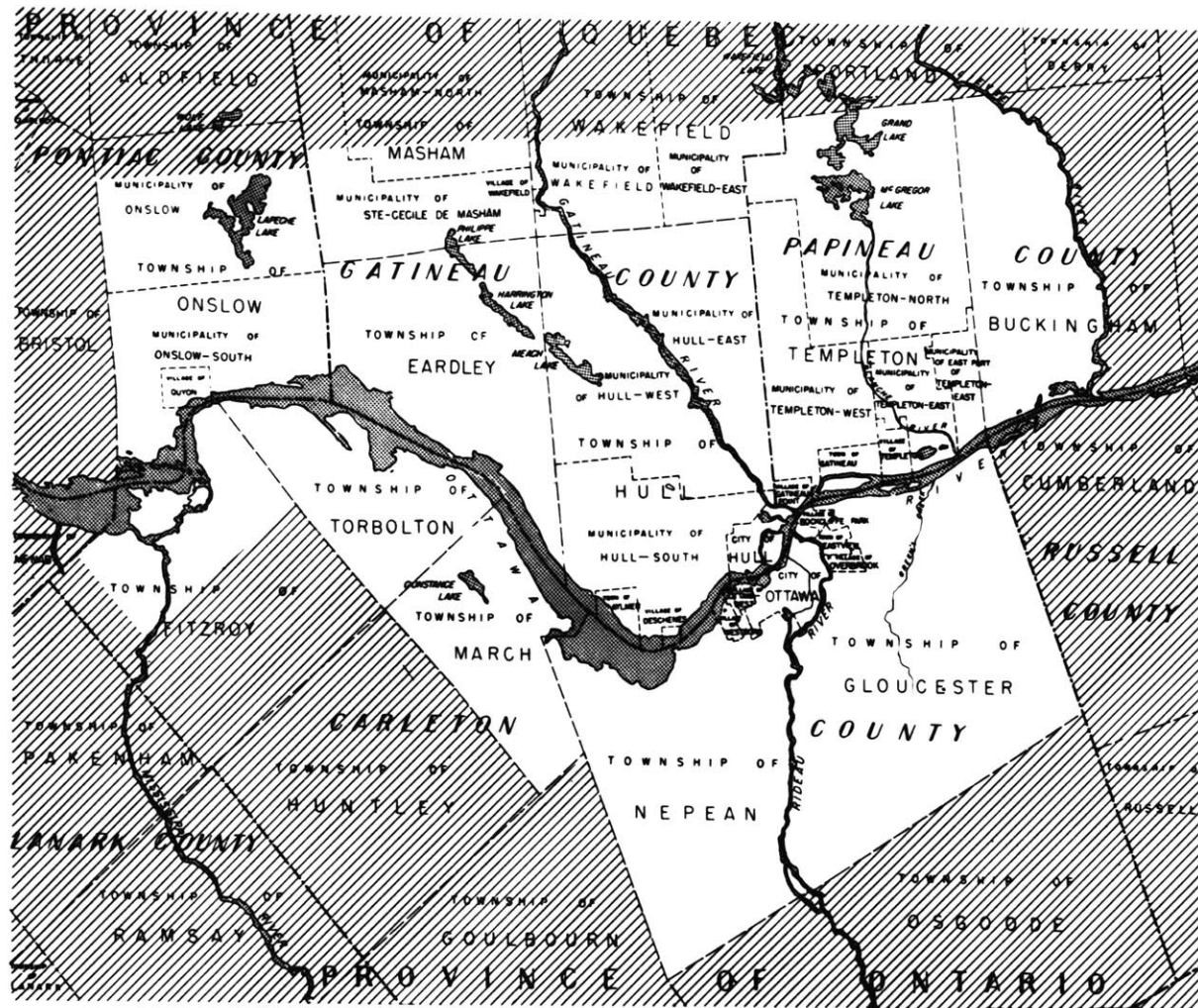
7 - O T T A W A:

Ottawa is the Capital city of Canada. It has for long shown concern to improve itself by town planning. As early as 1896,

1. Ibid, p. 12 and p. 130.

2. Ibid, p. 131

CHART 15: NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION : CANADA



- LEGEND
- INTERPROVINCIAL BOUNDARIES
 - COUNTY BOUNDARIES
 - TOWNSHIP BOUNDARIES
 - MUNICIPAL BOUNDARIES

ADMINISTRATIVE BOUNDARIES
WITHIN THE NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION

1948

THE NATIONAL CAPITAL
PLANNING SERVICE
J GRÉBER - CONSULTANT
0 1 2 3 4 MILES

the idea of transforming it into the 'Washington of North' gave shape to an Improvement Commission, which became subsequently the Federal District Commission. In 1949, on the initiative of the Prime Minister, the Government asked the French Town Planner, Jacques Greber to serve as a Consultant on drawing a Comprehensive Plan for Ottawa covering the whole city and the adjoining region which contains 30 municipalities, and 900 square miles. The area now includes, apart from the original Federal District, areas in the Province of Ontario and Quebec, with a population estimated at 273,000 (210,000 in Ontario, and 61,000 in Quebec) according to the 1947 Census.¹

By a decision of the Privy Council, approved by the Governor General, the National District was 'de-limited' to include an area of 900 square miles -- more or less".² The Federal District Commission created an enlarged body named: The National Capital Planning Committee, consisting of 17 members.

In 1950, the "Plan for National Capital, Canada" was published. Defining the scope of the Project the Report on the plan states:

"The National Capital Plan has a dual purpose; it aims primarily at the planning and mapping of the development of the municipalities which form the Capital Region; but also

1. National Capital Planning Committee, Plan for the National Capital, Canada, 1950, General Report, pp. 43,49,287.

2. Ibid, pp. 7-9.

FEDERAL - PROVINCIAL - MUNICIPAL ORGANIZATION FOR THE NATIONAL CAPITAL PLAN

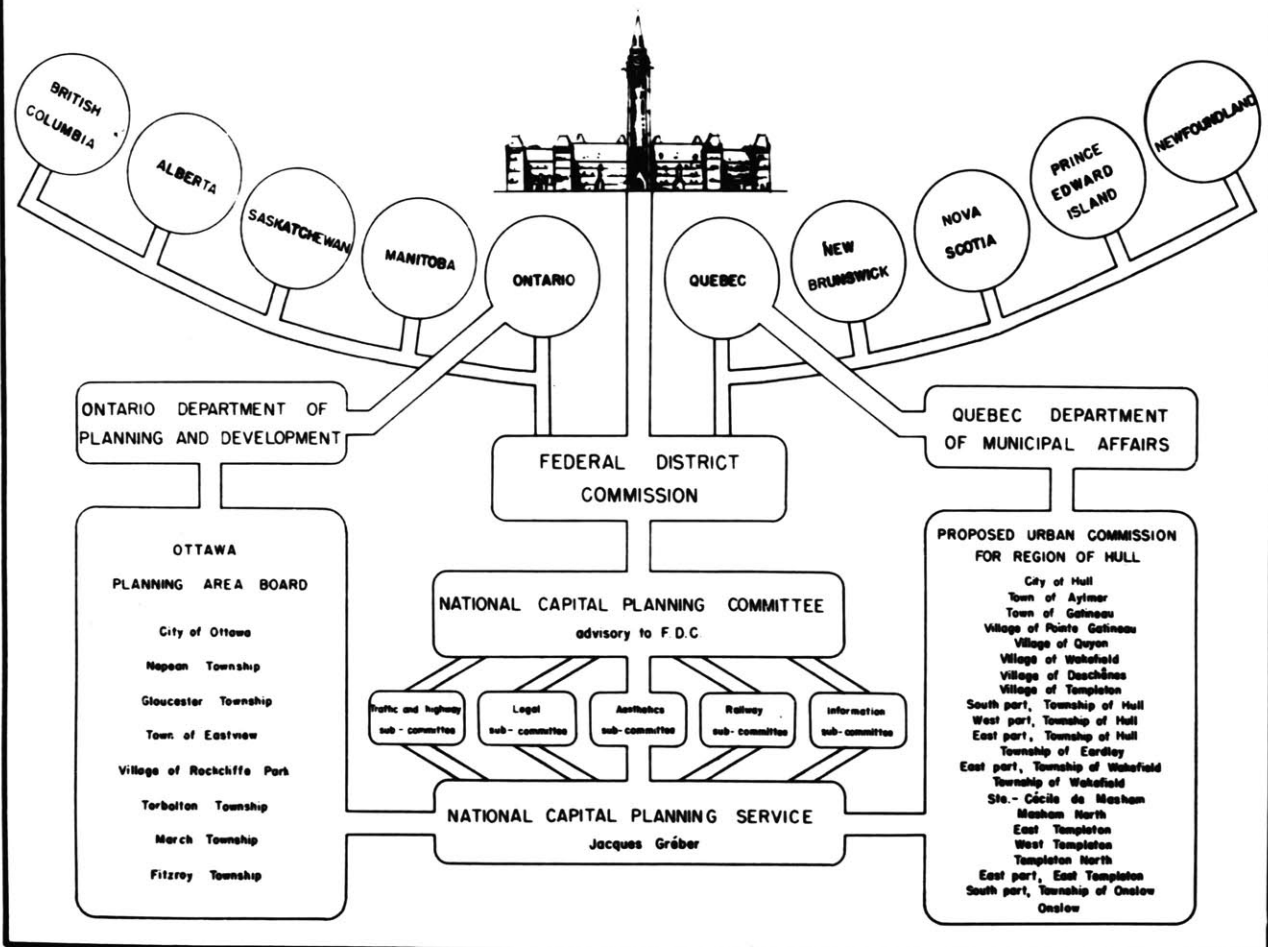


Chart 16. NATIONAL CAPITAL PLANNING ORGANIZATION : Canada

it must aim at the planning of a Capital, an undertaking which involves manifold problems related to its life and special functions".¹

The essential scope of the Plan is, therefore, "to contribute and harmonize" all developments within the various parts of the considered territory. The Plan is a "framework, within the main lines of which must be integrated the plans of the various municipalities which belong to the region".²

"Far from interfering with, or lessening the autonomy of any one of the components of the urban group", the plan very modestly emphasizes, "the unity of conception, and the vital conditions of success in this objective by full co-operation of all parties concerned".³

In Ontario Province there was created the Ottawa Planning Area Board which groups the municipalities in Ontario comprising the Capital Area, under the Provincial guidance of the Department of Planning and Development. Pending the creation of similar organization in Quebec, the Department of Municipal Affairs has appointed a Provincial Bureau of Town Planning, acting as a guide and advisor in connection with the particular problems.

1. Ibid, p. 14.

2. Ibid, p. 275.

3. Ibid, p. 275.

8 - T O R O N T O:

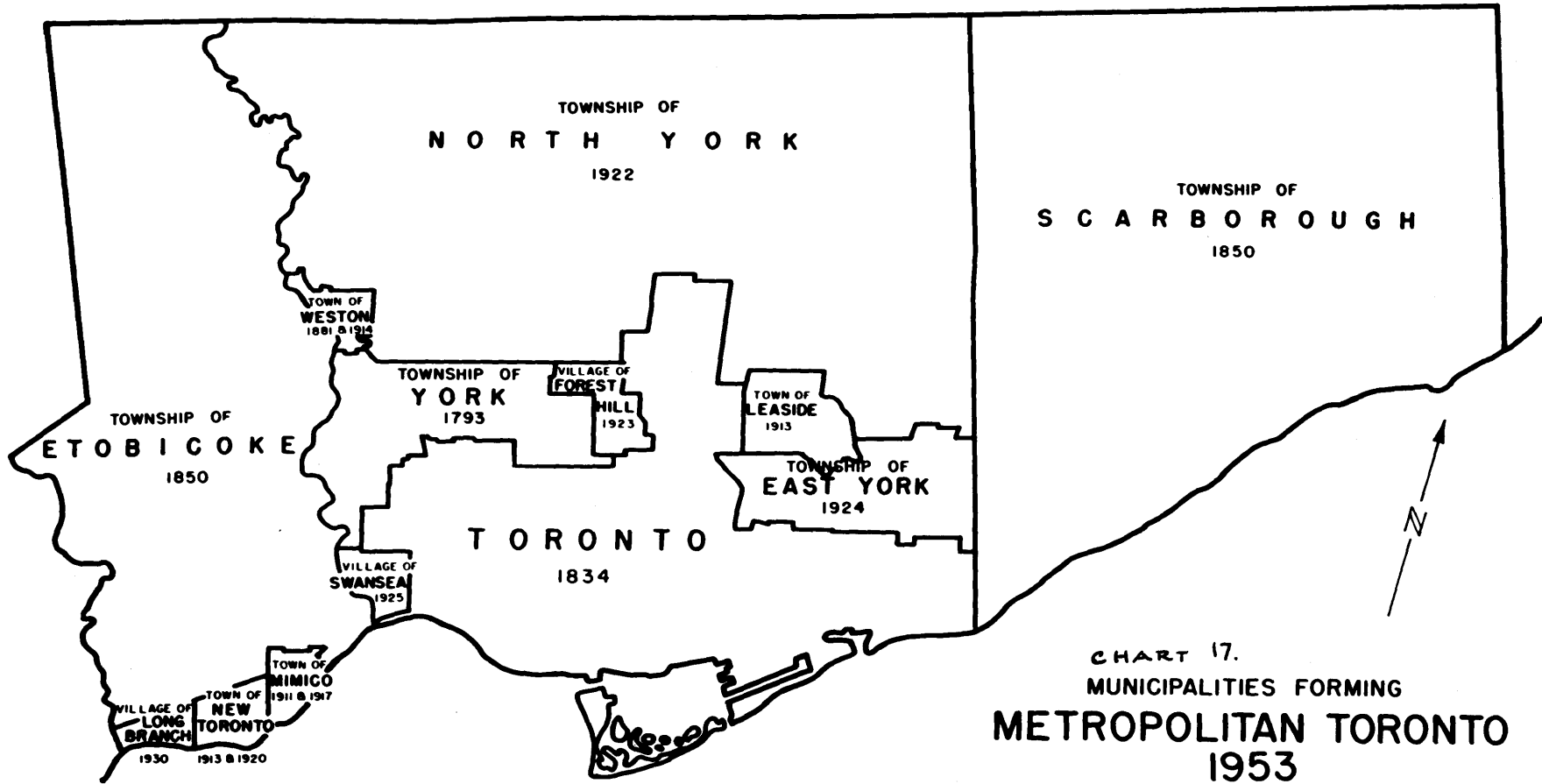
Metropolitan Planning in Toronto (Canada) needs special consideration for it was here that the concept of 'Federated Municipalities' was really put into effect by an Act of the Ontario Legislative Assembly in April, 1953, by incorporating 13 different municipal bodies into a Metropolitan Council. The Council, which is indirectly elected, is responsible for water supply, sewerage disposal, public transportation, public health and welfare, maintainance and construction of main roads and highways and the co-ordination of land-use planning. It has concurrent powers with the municipalities for Housing, re-development Schemes, and Public Parks. It also controls municipal borrowings and helps to equalize educational standards and costs.¹

This is, as such, first example in the western world of the assemblage in one agency of a true range of metropolitan functions.² The scope and the general purpose of the planning agency include:

- (a) Land Uses and their Planning,
- (b) Circulation and communication,
- (c) Sanitation,

1. Ontario Legislative Assembly, Act to provide for the federation of municipalities in the Toronto Metropolitan Area, page, 407.

2. Peter Self, "Planning in U.S.A. and Britain," Town Planning Review January, 1955, issue p. 280.



L A K E O N T A R I O

CHART 17.
 MUNICIPALITIES FORMING
METROPOLITAN TORONTO
 1953
 SHOWING DATES OF INCORPORATION

(d) Green Belts and Park Areas, and

(e) Public Transportation.

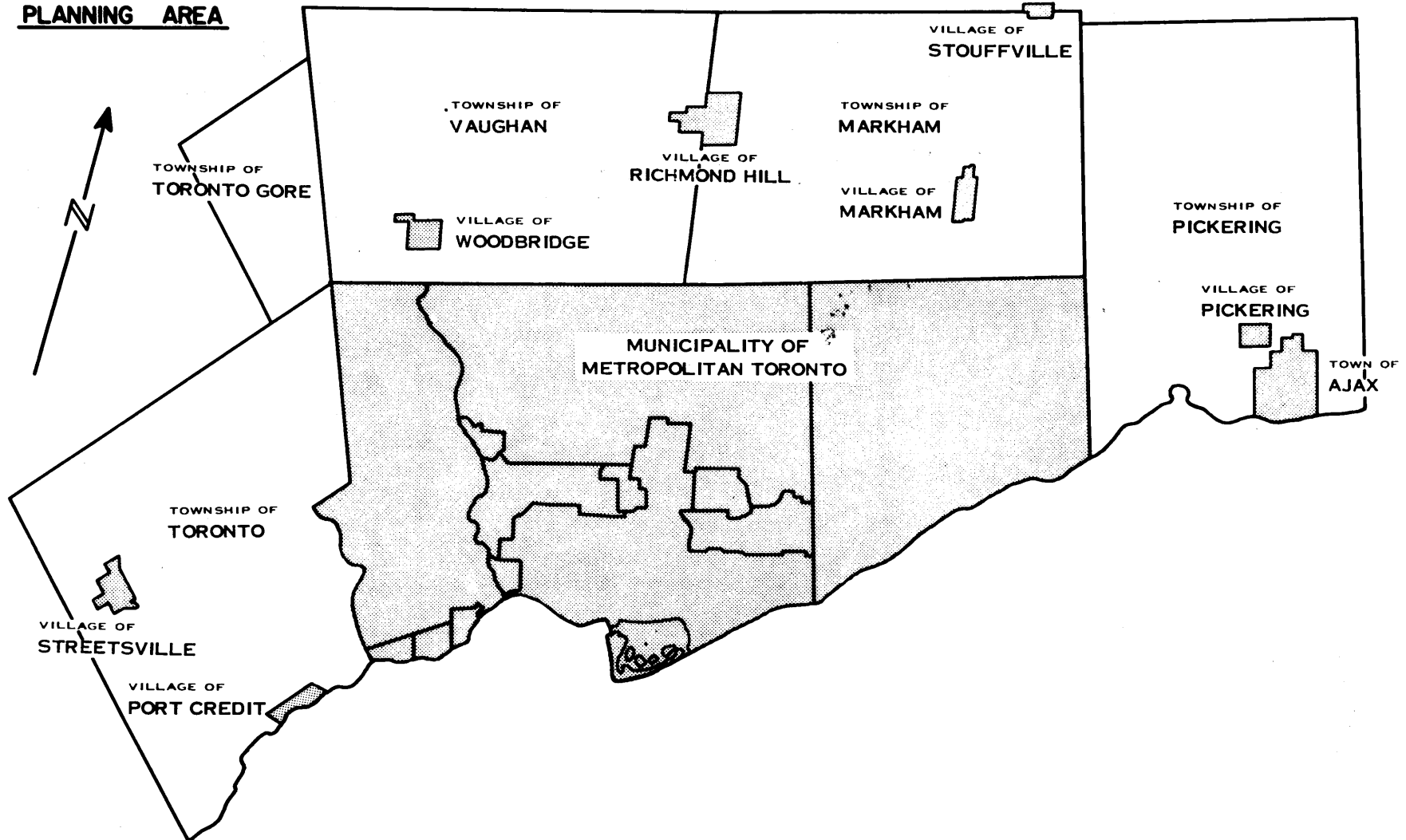
Besides these fundamental functions all other matters as the Minister of Planning and Development may from time to time define under the Planning Act.¹ An organization chart (no. : :) of the Council is given to explain the organizational set-up. The estimated population of the Region was estimated at 1,250,000 in an area of 240 square miles.²

All schemes for the organization of metropolitan government should be tailored to fit the needs of the area concerned. The Toronto plan has some features that are unique and certain elements that offer great challenge to other metropolitan communities. Professor Winston W. Crouch of the University of California in his paper on "Metropolitan Government of Toronto" has made some 'critical comments' which in brief include---³

1. The area assigned to the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan Council does not coincide entirely with what may become in the relatively near future, especially in the adjoining countries. The city and the present suburbs are 'too nicely balanced' in the membership of the Metropolitan Council to permit easy addition of new members, even by amending the Legislation,

1. Ontario Legislative Assembly Act for federation of municipalities in Toronto Metropolitan Area, pp. 476, 477.
2. Toronto Metropolitan Council: Metropolitan Toronto, pp. 4,6 & 9.
3. Winston W. Crouch, Metropolitan Government in Toronto, published in Public Administration Review, Volume xiv, no. :2:, spring, 1954, pp. 85-95.

CHART 18.
METROPOLITAN TORONTO PLANNING BOARD



2. Representation of population in Metropolitan Council is completely out of balance. The city has slightly more than half of the entire population has slightly less than half of the votes in the Council. While each suburb, has, however, equal weight whether it is 8,000 or 85,000;
3. The functions assigned to the Council does not include many important items such as Public Health or Police;
4. The number of administrative reviews required for school and municipal debentur proposals establishes a time-consuming process.
5. The new plan does nothing to improve the quality of performance of the smaller and presumably less efficient unit of government. And although they are some provisions to encourage efficient working of local units, yet there is "no guarantee in the plan itself, that this result will be realized".
6. To one set of critics the plan is simply one expedient effort to avoid clash into the local political authorities by leaving them in their own 'bailiwicks' and adding a new layer of government.

In conclusion, it may be said that it is too soon to evaluate the new plan in its various aspects. Toronto plan has been in operation only for a limited time. The crux of the problem is: Will it work? and according to Professor Crouch, the manner in

which the Council has approached its assignments indicates that such questions can be answered in affirmative.¹

9 - B O M B A Y:

As a comparison and contrast it would be helpful to observe as to what is happening in the form of metropolitan administration and planning in India itself. Bombay being the largest city,² and the second largest metropolitan area in India did a pioneered job in drawing a Master Plan which was published in 1948.³ The Plan was prepared under the Bombay Municipal Corporation and Bombay State Government with its special engineer as the chief planner and assisted by an American City Planning consultant.⁴ The area includes Bombay City and the suburbs, and so-called 'satellite towns' even beyond the suburbs.⁵ Bombay is an extremely overcrowded urban area, with a concentrated core of population in the Bombay Island (somewhat comparable to Manhattan), and yet sprawling into near and distant suburbs, which themselves are growing haphazardly and without any plan. The scheme, therefore, warns that "unless the Plan is adopted and speedily implemented by legislation and by actual action and development, Bombay will

1. Ibid, pp. 93-95.

2. Bombay City ~~alone~~ is the largest city, though as a metropolitan area Calcutta is bigger.

3. Bombay Municipal Corporation and Bombay State Government Greater Bombay Master Plan, page :3:

4. Albert Mayer from New York.

5. Ibid, p. 9.

grow just as an Industrial Enterprise used to grow --- adding a building here and a shed there, and a warehouse somewhere else -- the result -- utter confusion and obsolete development". It recommends the creation of a "Board or Commission from various functional, geographical and political elements in the city to give it the weight and prestige indispensable if the plan is to be realized". It further says in its Foreword that "it is presumed that the co-operation, not only of the municipalities and the government but also of the citizens at large, would be forthcoming without which this plan cannot be realized. If the citizens take up the opportunity that is offered in this Master Plan then only one we have done our duty to the community, children and grand children".¹ Divorced and isolated from the people and their problems, the planners of this scheme, instead of developing their research and schemes from the lower levels (thereby enlisting the co-operation of the masses), offer them a ready-made solution and hope, in vain, that they will 'grab' this opportunity. This, in fact, is not democratic planning or even an efficient or popular way to do such things because it does not really take the people into consideration.

The plan includes all the areas south of Bessin Creek as well as the town of Thana. The question of including certain other areas (such as Ambernath - Kalyan), and the type and purpose of the legislation which will control the growth or help in keeping up the major decisions of the plan are left

1. Ibid, page 46

unexplained. The Plan does not even delineates actual area and the population estimates are also open to question.

Yet apart from the planning, there are certain aspects in regard to the 'machinery that will effectuate the Plan' and this also remain un-answered. This may be due to the fact that the plan was drawn in a hurry, and it did not precisely define the boundries or even the extent of its jurisdiction. The scheme apparently recommends going farther than the present Greater Bombay Area.¹ However, no idea, except some general remarks, and that only pertaining to legislation have been made. There is no way of finding out as to the ways the proposal would be carried out. There is a section on planning and housing staff requirements suggested by the Consultant, but apart from that there is no idea given either as to the organizational structure or framework, nor any practical suggestion as to how the plan could really be carried out. Moreover, the role of the Bombay Municipality and the Bombay State Government on the one hand and the status of the other local municipal bodies and other administrative agencies, such as Bombay Transport System, Port Authority on the other is left to imagination.

Under the circumstances it is not surprising to see that the plan could not be carried over beyond its paper stage.

1. Ibid, page, 23.

CONCLUSIONS:

Following the scanning of the examples in various metropolitan area problems, planning and administration some broad generalizations can be mad:

- first** There are problems with striking similarity in almost all of these cities. Their background and origin may be somewhat different, and even there may be differences in both nature and intensity, yet there are quite a few common factors such as ---
- huge concentration of populations in central cities or core areas;
 - the unchecked urban sprawl with its own problems;
 - the growing burden on public services and ammenities;
- second.** The increasing realization in everyone of the metropolitan areas discussed that many public services can only be satisfactorily operated on a broader basis than the individual cities themselves. The search for ways and means to reduce the municipal burdens (costs) and public economy adds greatly to the pressure for devising some type of metropolitan or regional

set-up. In fact, some of these regions (like Toronto, Melbourne) have gone ahead in this respect.

third The great barriers in all such big 'conurbations' are the disintegrating pulls and fragmentations of local government units as well as, in some cases, the status of the statutorily constituted bodies such as the London Transport Authority or New York Port Authority. In practice many of the functions entrusted to local bodies and such constitutionally created bodies overlap and even conflict with each other. And none of these conditions spells a good situation for physical planning which must be broad based and well co-ordinated;

fourth..... The recognition of the fact the metropolitan regional planning containing many local agencies cannot be accomplished simply by voluntary co-operation of adjoining towns without proper legal jurisdiction or obligations.

fifth The increasing usefulness, effectiveness and popularity of the regional planning agencies are felt wherever they have been established, even though non-official or voluntary.

sixth The realization that in most of the cases (discussed above), as far as the implementation

of the plan is concerned, the planning agency is severely limited to stimulating others and to act as a watchdog of the plan. Absence of the power to implement its decisions (especially in the U.S.A.), has been a great drawback in the interest of long-range planning.

seventh.... The increasing awareness towards the need of metropolitan and regional planning organizations and some form of unified or well-integrated control of governmental functions.

CHAPTER :8:

PLACE AND STATUS OF PLANNING IN EXISTING SITUATION

1. Importance of Planning To-day:

Public planning in a democratic society is a relatively new process -- new even for some of the most developed countries of the world like the United States. Its application to the 'developing countries' is long due and in fact un-explored - nevertheless of tremendous importance and value. From the discussion in the previous chapters of this study, it is evident that the last fifty years of enormous growth in the Delhi metropolitan area has resulted in an un-precedented increase of urban functions and responsibilities, as well as complicated issues and problems. Today the city controls neither its functions nor its destiny!

"Its easy to build a city according to a plan, too. All you need is bulldozers, bricks, dirt, space, manpower, money and

organizing ability. In a dictatorship this is enough", wrote John T. Howard in an essay on "Democracy in City Planning".¹ From Egypt down through the Colonial India, the history of planning of all the new 'civil lines' and 'cantonments' including the 'imperial capital of New Delhi', have been a living testimony of this way. For a despotic government with its utter disregard of the people this is enough and constitutes a city.

In a democracy, however, the situation is different! As far as the public works are concerned they can be tackled to some extent, comparatively easily because the elected government is supposed to act under the mandate of the people. What is more problematic, therefore, is dealing with private works and individuals -- for the private land, development, and common people are the city. The public works and the facilities are only to serve their interests more adequately.

For dealing with the people "three tools" have been devised, namely:²

- compulsion,
- education, and
- persuasion - participation

Compulsion is the most direct, and has been in the past, least successful either in the interests of people or even in the

1. Professor John T. Howard, "Democracy in City Planning", Antioch Review, December, 1944, pp 518-530

2. Ibid

interests of planning itself. All the Civil Lines and Cantonments of British India are living examples of this in some form or the other. This approach usually alienates planning from the people.

The second is education - an effort on the part of the public officials to mold public opinion toward a pre-conceived objective. "Like compulsion it is fundamentally a procedure from the top down, --- an attempt to impose by propaganda those features of an ivory-tower plan that cannot be imposed by fiat".¹ The Bombay Plan in a way, believes in the same approach by urging people "to grab the opportunity" without their previous knowledge or participation in evolving the plan.

The second attempt, though far superior and some what more democratic than the first one, is nevertheless based on wrong fundamentals. It is not a planning for and by the people but a manifestation of planning in the name of people. This is, in fact, a typical petty-bourgeois trait, which may produce lot of propaganda, and even some effort as to familiarize people with the plan but requires very little actual co-operation from them.

The third device has been enunciated as participation, although in an experimental stage as a new technique but it has many potentialities. It is based (at least it should be) on the faith and confidence in people themselves. It implies obtaining the opinions, suggestions, and even active co-operation of the people themselves in translating a plan into reality.

1. Ibid

This process, which is fundamentally democratic, hold the best promise for a 'developing country' like India. This is so because no plan is likely to go far ahead by officials alone, whatever their power and authority may be, unless it is actually supported by people themselves at almost every stage.

"Planning in a democratic state is a social process, in which in some part, every citizen should have an opportunity to participate", so declared the Indian National Planning Commission in the draft of the first Five-Year (1951-56) Plan. In a developing country like India, where the goal of welfare state is promised by the Constitution, planning (perhaps) is the only hope. If the government has any responsibility for welfare, it has the whole responsibility. It has to be creative as well as directive.

"The planning agency can be a coagulator, a putter-together, a conjoiner which can bring hopes into focus and promises into possibilities; a protector of reason among competing imaginative conceptions, a reducer of vague expectations to measured charts, tables, maps, a filler-out of strategies with the stuff of 'tectical reality'. It can be, at times, a kill joy, and sometimes a fulfiller of dreams".¹

"Planners have for many years insisted that their main concern was in planning for the people ... and that the planner should act as the voice of the people ... so long as we live in a democracy the people must be heard ... and planners should be

1. ~~Roxford~~ Tugwell, "Place of Planning in Democratic Society", p. 38.

their advocates.

"Truly the people's problems are planners' problem"!¹

"The problem of city planning lies where people live. They can be led to the solutions of the problem -- in its big aspects, and its little aspects -- only by making city planning come alive to them, making it literally come home to them".²

If so, then ----

----- How does it compatible with popular representative government?

----- What shall be the status for such an institution, as planning (physical) is, in a democratic society;?

----- Has it to be an agency of the government or independent of the executive authority?

----- What shall be the role (and place) of physical planning in a National Capital Region such as Delhi State?

Such are the questions which must be answered before making concrete proposals for the framework.

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1. Excerpts from Dannis O'Harrow, "The People's Problems are Planner's Problems", an Editorial in A.S.P.O. Newsletter, March, 1955 issue.
 2. John T. Howard, "Democracy in City Planning".

2. Status and Place of Planning Abroad:

Different countries in Europe and America have dealt with the practice of city planning in their own ways, depending upon their respective systems of governments and historical trends. A brief description of the role of planning in these countries would be helpful in formulating the future policy regarding city planning in India in general.

The countries discussed are:

- 1 - United States of America,
- 2 - Great Britian, and
- 3 - Soviet Union.

United States:

In the United States from the very beginning, the leaders of the planning movement have placed almost an exclusive emphasis upon a "semi-autonomus citizen's board" as the proper planning agency, rationalizing on the argument that it was essential to keep planning on a plane above politics.¹ Such autonomy in some cases has taken the form of freedom from executive control, and in some cases, separate legal powers for the Commission. The desire to protect planning from periodical political changes has also, to some extent, contributed towards this tendency.

1. Robert Walker, "Planning Function in Urban Government" p. 147.

The serious question then comes; is it compatible with democratic philosophy to give this Commission (usually appointed by the Mayor or the City Council) some kind of veto over an elected legislative majority while the popular trend is to place the policy - determining responsibilities in an elected body.

This justification is based on two assumptions:

one ----- that the planning agency is to objective and hence should be above politics;

two ----- that the members of the Commission possess a special competence, and may be relied upon to take a long-range view of current proposals.

Both of these conditions, and particularly the second one may or may not happen! However, it is quite clear that in many instances, lack of executive control on the one hand, and fragmentation of innumerable local government units on the other has put un-necessary limitations on effective planning.

Great Britain:

Compared with the concept and practice of American planning ideology, the British system is somewhat simpler and more compact. "The most basic difference is the fusion in Britain of the functions of planning and execution that are separated in the United States".¹ The Planning Department in a British local authority is on much the same footing as any other executive department. "It is an

1. Peter Self, "Town Planning in United States and Britain", Town Planning Review, October, 1954 issue, p. 170.

executive and not an advisory agency".¹

In Britain the central planning powers were transferred from the Ministry of Works and Buildings to a new Ministry charged with the duty of "insuring consistency and continuity in the framing and execution of a national policy with respect to the use of land",² thus indicating the public recognition of the fact that the control of land use was sufficiently essential to the welfare of the community to warrant a separate administration at a National level.

The local planning authorities for this purpose are to be the County Councils, the County Borough Councils, or where county boundaries do not compose suitable units, Joint Planning Boards may be set up. In other words they are to be the local authorities who were already invested with wider responsibilities in other spheres of local government administration. The local planning authorities are expected to consult, at each stage, with the District Councils; who are designated in the final instance to be responsible for putting the plans into effect. Furthermore the local planning authorities are allowed to set up local planning committees to take over any or all of these functions, and these committees in turn may set up their own sub-committees.

1. Ibid, p. 170.

2. British Information Services, Ministry of Town and Country Planning Act, 1943, "Town and Country Planning in Britain" pp. 17,23 and 24.

Before any development is submitted, it must be given wide publicity and before the Minister gives his approval to any plan, a public hearing must be held. Every development plan has to be reviewed at five-year intervals.

The 1947 Act puts a strong emphasis on the control aspects of planning. The same department exercises the control functions which prepare the plan. It is quite different as compared to the American practice. "This arrangement involved a degree of administrative discretion which is contrary to the constitutional theory --- especially since it is not even covered by an effective right of appeal to the Courts".¹ Hence, "in Britain it is the government, whereas in the United States it is the Courts, which primarily determine what is, or is not, a reasonable use of public authority in planning of land use".² In Britain the powers of local authorities are defined, and they can seldom be challenged in the Courts.³

Soviet Union:

In the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the place, status, and function of Planning is altogether different! For it is here that the national economy is controlled almost

1. Peter Self, "Town Planning in United States and Britain", Town Planning Review, October, 1954 issue, p. 170.

2. Ibid, p. 167.

3. Ibid, p. 167.

exclusively by the state which is also, in the first place, committed (according to its Constitution) to the planned development of the entire resources of the country, both physical and economic. The land, as well as the land-use is determined by the State Planning Commission under the directives of the Communist Party.

The fundamental basis of all physical planning --- land had long been nationalized without compensation. It was not even valued! The Soviet government has to decide the best use of each piece of land. Individual owners do not exist, and therefore, there is no possibility of any public objections. E. D. Simon, a British author and planner, describing Moscow as "planner's paradise", states: "the sole question was: what is the best use of the land in the national interest?"¹

Describing the planning structure and process in the Soviet Union, Parkins has stated that with the maturing of city planning as a science, the structure has been centralized.² However, the administrative structure, like other government branches, has assumed a 'pyramical form'. At the top is the Central (Executive) Committee of all-Union Communist Party of the USSR which sets and watches the ideological development. The base of this pyramid is formed by numerous planning, housing, and architectural agencies. Every trust, enterprise, co-operative and Kolkhoz³ has a planning

1. E. D. Simon, "Rebuilding Britain-twenty years", p. 157.

2. -----Parkins, "City Planning in Soviet Russia", pp. 86-89

3. Kolkhoz is the Russian term for collective farm.

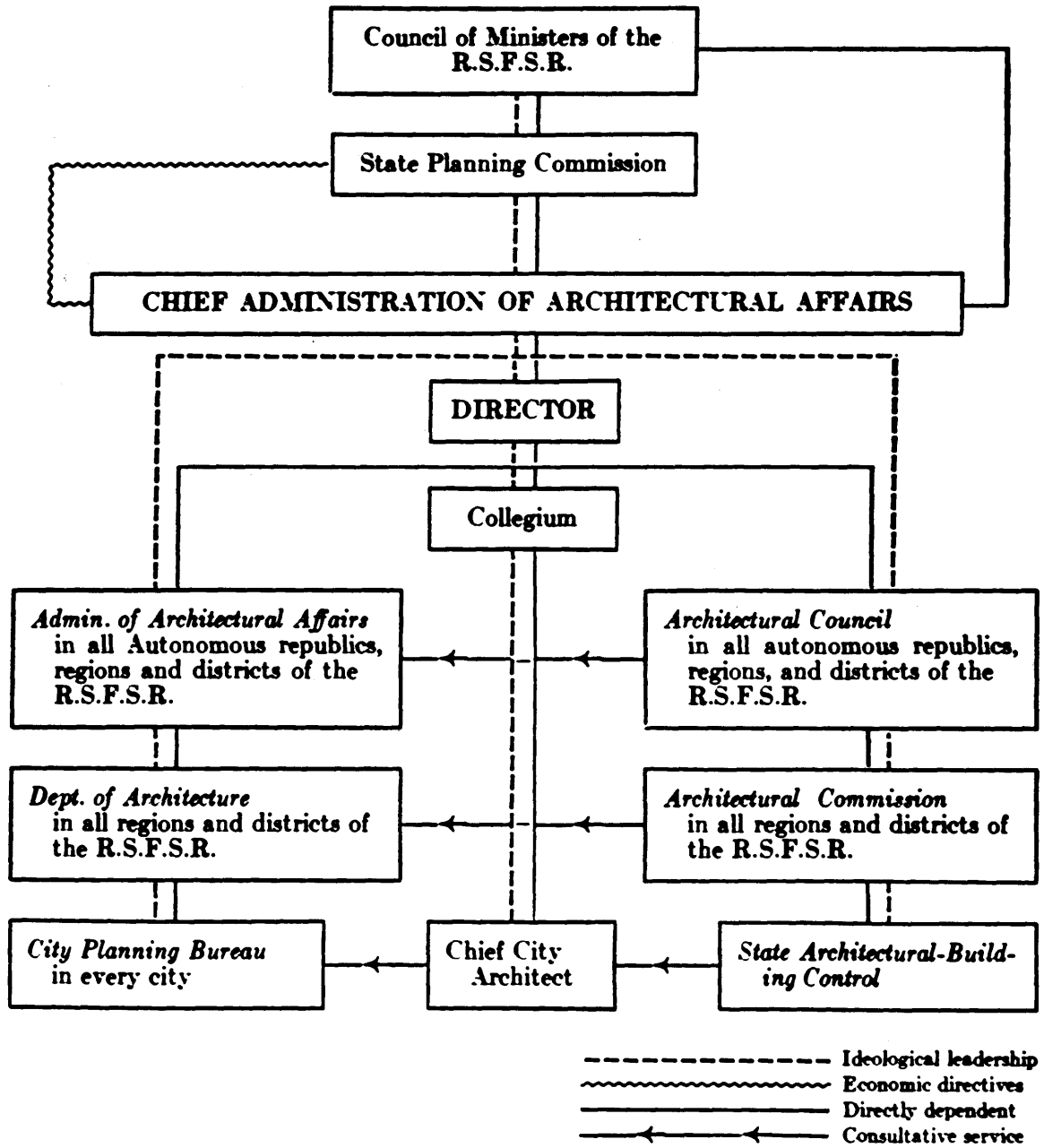
or housing agency, and the same is true for every Republic, Region, District, and City Soviet.

Gosplan (the state planning commission) is the highest expert central planning body. It has deep roots in every region, city, government agency, trust, and collective farms throughout the USSR. It is guided by the directions from the Party which are formally approved by the Supreme Soviet and its Presidium. On their directions, the Gosplan works out a General Plan to co-ordinate the entire economic and cultural activity of the country toward carrying out a long-term, integrated program. Gosplan does not work itself with details, methods or administration. It has no executive functions!

The general planning targets of Gosplan are considered by various ministries, the Glavks, which are planning and co-ordinating units below the ministries, combines and trusts. They in turn, have sub-ordinated planning departments. A chart (no. :19:) is given on p. 45-46 for reference. City Planning is thus brought into line with the principles of complex national and regional planning. In 1949 a new ministry called Ministry of City Building came into being by the decree of the Supreme Soviet. It was entrusted, among other functions, with "conducting city planning" and "controlling the implementation of the government decisions on questions of city building".¹

1. Pravda, June 2, 1949; quoted in Parkins, "City Planning in Soviet Russia", page 91.

CHART 19 :
PLANNING ORGANIZATION IN SOVIET UNION
STRUCTURE OF THE ADMINISTRATION ON ARCHITECTURAL AFFAIRS OF THE R.S.F.S.R.



State management of architectural and city planning work in the USSR is approved and effectuated by a special department called the Committee on Architectural Affairs,¹ directly responsible to the Council of Ministers of the USSR. The Committee has its own local co-ordinating agencies for administration and consultation. Its main functions include:

- 1 - Supervision, co-ordination, and control of various agencies, and organizations in the field of architecture and city planning;
- 2 - Development and approval of "norms and standards" for socio-economic as well as physical aspects of the cities;
- 3 - Proposals for approval by the Council of Ministers of projects and measures for city planning practices.

All this can be summarized in brief, by stating that the planning function has come to be assigned with any of the following three categories or their combination: They are ---

- (1) planning having a separate legal status, which can (when necessary) be ascertained in the Courts of Law;

1. Ibid, for detailed reference see the organizational chart.

- (2) planning as an executive function, either as a state policy (as in USSR) or as a direct function of local or central government;
- (3) planning just as an advisory capacity to the administration, where the advice may or may not be accepted.

3. Planning function in the Indian set-up:

For India this function has to be studied more thoroughly, which is beyond the scope of this paper. However, in order to propose a planning framework for the National Capital Region in India, certain assumptions have to be made following the examples in various other countries which may be appropriate to the local situation.

There are three important features of the Indian scene which can help in assigning a place for physical planning at present:

- first There is a general agreement on goals and objectives as to the necessity of planning. The idea that planning and only planning can help in eradicating economic and social problems within a short period of time has captured the imagination of many.

"It has been stated that the social

purpose governing our planning will be to establish a socialist pattern of society. This has been implicit all along in our Congress (Indian National Congress) objectives. It is right that we should make this perfectly clear now, and keep this picture in view at all stages in planning".

"Our aim is a Welfare State and a socialist economy".

Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru: Report to the India Congress Committee at its Annual Session at Avadi.¹

Of course this 'general agreement' on goals does not include physical or for that matter city planning by name, but it can be safely asserted that opinion can be mobilized under this very favourable situation;

second the 4th Amendment to the Constitution of India; amending Article: 31., has now defined more precisely the state power to acquire and requisition of private property in the interest of people.

1. Information services of India, Ottawa, Canada, "Caravan of India, volume 6, no. :2:, February 28, 1955 issue, pp. 26-27.

The Article 31 has been ammended to cover five more catagories of essential welfare legislation and to place them above challenge in the Courts of Law.

The new catagories includes, among others:
"planning in urban and rural areas"¹

This if properly understood and utilized is a great tool in the hands of planners.

third the possession of relatively more power by the Government of India in particular (which is also due to the influence of the old British tradition), and state and local governments in general, provides a remarkable scope for unified, integrated and well-co-ordinated planning.

It does not necessarily mean that India should have the planning function as more or less attached to the executive authority and divorced from the people. In fact that would be the denial of democracy, and repitition of the same mistakes which the Indian city dwellers are still enduring due to the building

1. INDIAGRAM, no. :657:, page 3

The other items are:

- fixing ceiling on agricultural holdings,
- state control over mineral and oil resources,
- state management, in public interest, of commercial and industrial undertakings for a temporary period.

of 'dignified isolations', like the Civil lines and Cantonments. The example of the United States, as regards public participation and co-operation is extremely valuable, and may be adopted with advantage.

However, in the United States there is much less agreement on goals, and often the interests of the private enterprise (in the name of the individual) conflicts with public interests. The planners may draw up a plan but there are no positive means to carry it out. The Planning Commission often becomes a "faithful watchdog of the plan rather than an initiator of measures to implement it".¹ Even at this level, constitutional procedures would not enable a planning agency to play an effective part of political currents are against it.

In USSR there is the extreme. The state controls almost everything and although 'criticism and self-criticism' allows considerable freedom of expression in theory, yet it is not known (during the time of this study) as to how the public participation is solicited. Moreover, the Soviets are reported to be re-examining their past and present achievements in City Planning with a view to find an expression that would symbolize the present "socialist way of life".² Development of city planning techniques and practice is, however, a continuous phenomenon, and in a democracy it cannot be other than broadly based upon the

1. Peter Self, "Town Planning in United States and Britain", Town Planning Review, October, 1954 issue, p. 176.

2. -----Parkins, "City Planning in Soviet Russia", p. 107.

participation and active co-operation of the great majority of the people themselves.

Planning in underdeveloped countries which have not only rural population and problems but large urban population and problems as well (India has for instance 61.9 million urban population) would be wise to take advantage of the experience in city planning in both East and West. Nevertheless it must be noted at this point that every country evolves its individual conception of the planning function, in its own way, suited to the related institutions and local circumstances.

In case of Delhi state which is also the National Capital Region of India, the following assumptions may be taken in order to envisage a physical planning framework:

1 ----- Legal Status:

The Indian Parliament should provide by Law the constitution of a National Capital Regional Planning agency, and give it among others:

- (a) power to define the planning area, from decade to decade;
- (b) power to draw a general plan for this area;
- (c) power of mandatory ^{regional} referral in regard to any major physical development;
- (d) power to initiate zoning and sub-division control and forward it to the President of India for further action;

- (e) protection of the historical areas from undesirable construction and encroachment;

2 ----- The Planning Effectation by Administration:

The Delhi State Government and other appropriate units of public administration outside the present boundries of Delhi state, should carry out the planning decisions arrived at by the Regional Planning agency.

3 ----- The Separation of Planning Agency from local Politics:

This could be achieved partly through the way the National Capital Planning Commission is organized (selected) and partly by having direct immediate contacts with the local people themselves, as proposed in the part D of this paper.

THE BASIS FOR PLANNING FRAMEWORK

In order to utilize the advantages of physical planning amidst the growing demands of the Region under study one has naturally to discover the basis on which an effective machinery can be set up. To some extent the existing administrative and local government structure puts a limitation on a possible framework, and this (as mentioned in the chapter dealing with metropolitan problems) is further complicated by the presence of some independent statutory bodies, like the Delhi Improvement Trust. The Trust instead of making a genuine effort towards rational distribution of population by setting up well defined and designed townships allowed developments and in many cases built such areas by itself that have now become problem areas themselves. And the Trust is just one of many such bodies. The basis for a planning framework has therefore to be sought in the emerging needs themselves apart from the 'artificial' limitations

that exist because of such bodies due to lack of coherent thinking and correct assessment of the metropolitan problems of physical growth and administration. These needs may broadly be summed up in two major aspects:-

first: The need for a better co-ordinated, more representative and yet integrated administration at the state level either by expanding the powers and functions of the Delhi State Government or with some basic changes in the part C States Act as applied to Delhi state. In both cases, however, the President of India and the Chief Commissioner would have the final say, and particularly so in the subject of law and order;

second: The need for a metropolitan planning for an area not only including the present boundaries of the Delhi state but also including the adjoining areas and towns in Uttar Pradesh (U.P.) and Punjab. This does not mean to include the whole area under the jurisdiction of the Delhi state and the Chief Commissioner but only in regard to planning functions, which the outside areas may have to delegate as an obligation under the (proposed) Act of the Indian Parliament. This boundary itself may be subject to revision after (say) every 10 years.

1 - Need for a Metropolitan Administration:

Delhi state with an area of 578 square miles, and an overwhelming urban population amounting to over 80% of the total with its growing suburbs and un-planned, un-coordinated and unexpected developments is a metropolitan area in itself. Even the adjoining towns of Ghaziabad in U.P., Faridabad in Punjab, and to considerable extent the Districts of Meerut, Bulendshar, Rhotak, and Gurgaon have begun to feel the impact of metropolitan Delhi. There is every likelihood that with the developing means of communications and transport the present trend of huge concentration in the central areas will reverse. The population will then begin to sprawl outside. This trend on a small scale is even now visible by the growing construction and building activity in a 5 to 10 mile radius. (Oaklah: 11 miles, Mehrauli: 12 miles, Kalakaji: 8 miles, Bhogal: 6 miles, Nizamuddin extension: 5 miles, Jheel Kuranjia: 4 miles, Bhahdra: $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles are but few examples).

As far as the Delhi state is concerned, although the Chief Commissioner as the chief executive has very wide and sweeping powers, seldom have these powers been utilized for community welfare and planning --- for making Delhi a better place to live. It was rarely used for a democratic integration of various overlapping functions now being performed by various units, small and big, local and regional. Many of the functions like education, health, public works, water supply and sanitation are now being carried by separate agencies, and have no co-

ordination and no future plan that may allow any orderly development and expansion of these services. Their various agencies work on their own, and initiative is rare, not to speak of any well-thought planning scheme that might have given due consideration to the growth of the metropolis. These functions can, however, be well taken care of more efficiently through incorporating some important changes in the administrative structure that are proposed in the following chapter.

Such independent agencies, having separate statutory status like the Delhi Transport Authority and Delhi Improvement Trust. They can be compared with the London Transport Authority or the New York Port Authority. These authorities may sometimes even "get results² in a big way (although at least in case of Delhi, the past history shows no example of any remarkable results) but they lack direct popular support. "They tend to be so overwhelmingly narrow-minded that their activities often aggravate rather than ease the problems of metropolitan area".¹

"Even though the planning framework, the apparatus and the tools for the metropolitan physical planning may seem to be clear, the machinery for the metropolitan political planning via control of land-uses is the one thing that has yet to be developed".² Without a unified administrative machinery, all the ideas of metropolitan planning or effective control of land

1. Peter Self, Town Planning in United States and Britain, Town planning Review, January, 1955 issue, p. 278.

2. John T. Howard, "metropolitan Planning Symposium", p. 27.

uses or even the planning organization will remain as paper dreams. There are more than half a dozen local government units (municipalities, notified area committees, and District Board) with their functions and powers varied and limited. They can hardly become effective and useful units for urban planning in their present form. And yet each one of these, with some modifications in their functional and organizational structure, can become helpful for focusing public participation and developing "planning consciousness" in their respective areas. They can contribute their share in planning decisions for the metropolitan region, but it would be incorrect, at least at this stage, to give them the responsibility to plan on their own irrespective of the rest of the region. In fact, "it is a bit like expecting a house to be re-designed decently when the control of development of each room is in independent hands".¹

Even under the existing circumstances the situation is not entirely hopeless; in fact there are latent potentialities for working out a reasonable solution in regard to metropolitan administration of Delhi state. This can partly be achieved by enlarging the functions of the Delhi State Government as also suggested in the following chapter.

1. Ibid, pp. 28,37-38.

2 - Need for Metropolitan Area Regional Planning:

Equally important is the imperative need to have a metropolitan regional planning agency to take care of the physical planning of the area. This should have a proper place and legal status in the functional structure of the administration. The various functions which are expected from the government committed to 'welfare state' are not at all by any means concentrated in a planning agency; but they can hardly be achieved unless such an agency exists. "It is a facility with which every efficient and popular government must be equipped".¹

The various problems arising out of urban growth and living can properly become the concern of the planning agency in terms of translating the community's social needs into plans for development aimed at creating a better physical environment.

The baffling situation that the citizens and authorities face today could have been easier had it been dealt with by deliberate planning efforts. Many of the new urban developments, all the new townships, and the refugee rehabilitation colonies that were built by different authorities (Ministry of Relief and Rehabilitation, and Health, the CPWD, the Improvement Trust, the Delhi and New Delhi Municipal Committees and other co-operatives and private concerns like Delhi Land and Finance Corporation) were wonderful opportunities for well co-ordinated urban planning. A rational

1. Raxford G. Tugwell, "Place of Planning in Democratic Society page 56 .

distribution of population, appropriate location for new employment centers (new industries), bazaars, properly designed mohallas (neighborhoods) and an efficient transport network to serve these areas, rightfully belong to the sphere of urban planning. Many planning opportunities were thus, irretrievably lost. In short, disorder and confusion resulted in a situation where efficient and scientific planning could have achieved a great deal.

In view of the rapid growth of the entire region no local community, or just one area or city, however, rich and big it may be, can solve its problems or plan its future growth and physical development in isolation. Economic interests, social and cultural relationships, and a network of highways bind each Mohalla (neighborhood), each village, and each town to the other. Planning requires the weighing of factors objectively outside the community as well as the different local influences within its borders. In short these problems can only be effectively dealt on a regional basis.

The region in this case should not be confined to the formal boundaries of the Delhi state, as its impact is being felt further. As such the National Capital Region, as a planning authority, should include the adjoining towns of Faridabad, Gurgaon, Ballabhgarh in Punjab and Ghaziabad in Uttar Pradesh. However, these boundaries may be subject to revision and extension after a regular interval (say 10 years) by the proposed commission. The commission would, of course, forward its decisions to the President of India for favor of action.

3 - Basic Essentials for the Planning Framework:

In conclusion the physical planning of the National Capital Region will have to be conceived as a subject of broad scope. It cannot be too specific. It may be considered theoretically to be based upon the following essential elements:

1 - Suitable Planning Authorities: As suggested previously, the Regional Planning Authority shall be constituted under an Act of Parliament and would include areas beyond the formal boundaries of Delhi state. Moreover provision would be made for future revision and expansion of this boundary at regular intervals (period to be determined after further study).

2 - Formulation of Basis Planning Policy: The framework for the planning should allow regional and local representation as well as participation of the local communities, which would help in evolving decisions, with respect to the whole area in a proper perspective. Thus the Plan would serve, more or less, as a broad guide in which various local plans will fit in with long term goals and objectives.

3 - Establishment of Planning Procedure and Standards: At present the Regional Planning agency may have to perform many function because of the lack of planners and planning technicians. Moreover the Indian ' planning technology ' will take some time to develop. At that time the local planning units can perform their functions more effectively -- both

in their own local areas and in co-ordination with the central planning agency. At present these local planning agencies would be of great help in collection of data and to bring into focus the problems of local communities which are liable to be neglected otherwise.

4 - Co-ordination of Planning with other Public Agencies:

The Regional Planning agency should be co-ordinating its activities with other branches of public administration like Public Works, Education Ministry, Joint Water and Sewer Board and other public and welfare units in urban and rural areas of the National Capital Region. This would partly be achieved through preparation of regular 5-year development plans which would be prepared by the National Capital Regional Planning Authority for appropriation from the government of India, as well as to the Delhi government for incorporating in its own social, economic and other development plans.

5 - Public Participation: The planning framework will allow special importance to cultivate favorable public opinion for evolution and effectuation of planning decisions. The local planning units will have a key role in this respect. It is proposed in the following chapters that the nucleus of people's participation would be the local planning councils in every Mohalla (neighborhood) or in case of villages by grouping a number of villages according to size and population. The main purpose of these 'grass root contacts' would be

to mobilize active public participation. These Mohalla committees would bring into focus the local conditions, problems, and proposals thus helping both in collection of data, evaluation of decisions and implementation.

Part D

PROPOSAL
institutional framework for planning

P A R T : D :

P R O P O S A L

Chapter 10 : THE ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP

page 136: Delhi State Government:

- 136: --- Local-self government,
- 137: --- Health, Sanitation and Water supply,
- 137: --- Education,
- 137: --- Transportation and Communications,
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- 140: --- Agriculture and Land Reforms etc,
- 141: --- Planning.

- 141: The Chief Commissioner and his Jurisdiction
- 142: The role of Local and Municipal Units

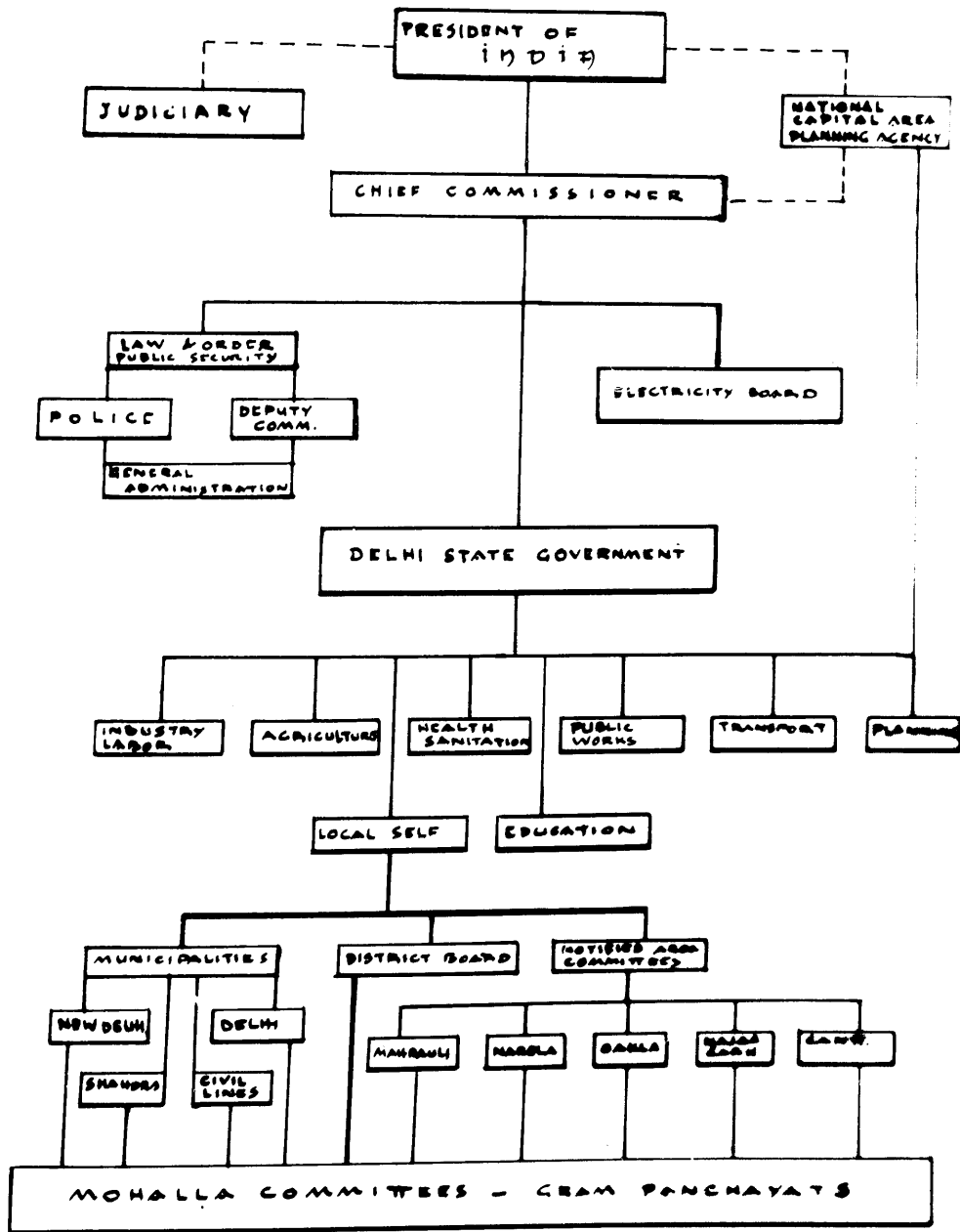
Chapter 11 : THE PLANNING FRAMEWORK

- page 146: The National Capital Area Planning Agency
- 147: The Composition of the Planning Commission
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CHAPTER : 10 :

THE ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP

It has been pointed out that the scope of urban planning is as broad as the scope of city government itself. It does not, however, mean that planners began to take charge the affairs of the government. On the other hand it can safely be asserted that without an efficient administration sympathetic to planning, no planning can go far by itself, at least in India! What is needed to-day is, therefore, first to enlist the active co-operation of the people themselves; and, second to have an administrative set-up in which planning could flourish, and could be implemented as a part of the governmental function through its various departments. This becomes even more important since the Delhi region is the national capital region of India. A federation of various municipal units both inside and outside the boundary of the state (the area that actually may be defined as the National Capital Region for planning purposes) may pave

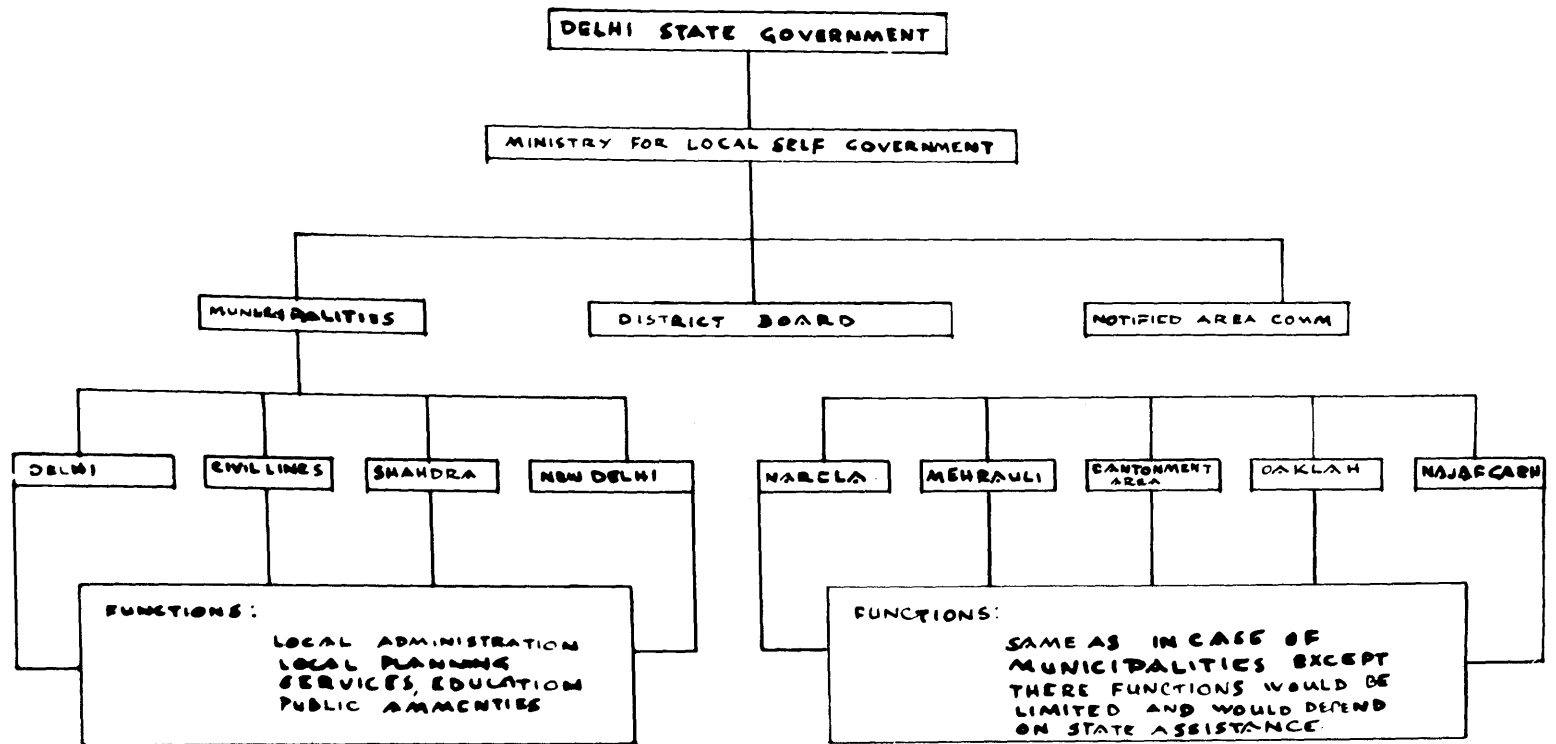


Cart 20. PROPOSED ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE FOR DELHI GOVERNMENT.

the way for effective municipal co-operation. This federation, in order to stress upon a unified and integrated government, shall have some of the residuary powers vested in the center. The central organization shall be the Delhi State Government. This, of course, cannot be done either without a Presidential Order or a proper legislation enacted by the Parliament of India, since it involves more than one state and also because of the fact that the region is also the 'seat of the central government'.

On the other hand a basic suggestion in regard to reforming the present Delhi government is that in order to unify the various agencies (statutory and otherwise), and to make them 'planning minded', it would be necessary to enlarge the scope and functions of the newly created Delhi State Government. Delhi State Government is considered more suitable for such 'merging of interests' because it is more widely representative of the people than any other single governmental unit. And what is more, even under the present part C States Act, its powers can be enhanced. Finally it would still be under the direct control of the Chief Commissioner and then the President of India. However, the power of Chief Commissioner to take decisions irrespective of popular interests would be curtailed and before passing any order, he would have to listen to proper agencies. It is suggested that the Delhi State Government be enlarged in such a way as to include under it all the following departments, some of which are existing by themselves under statutory powers as independent empires with little or no plan or co-ordination with other allied departments:

Chart 2) • DELHI STATE GOVERNMENT : MINISTRY FOR LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT (Proposed)



NOTE: All municipalities will be mainly elected except in New Delhi where the Chairman would be an ex-officio Deputy Commissioner

NOTE: All NACs would be mainly elected, and have non-official Chairmen.

1 - Local Self Government: (all municipalities etc): All these units should be under the direct supervision to the Delhi State Government. However, this does not mean that their own functions and powers would be curtailed. On the hand they might be given some more functions to become effective, useful, and more representative in character.

2 - Public Health, Sanitation and Water Supply: To-day these functions are done separately. Water supply and Sewerage are administered through a joint board and its distribution is performed by the various local municipalities and notified area committee units. Although some construction for the expansion of the sewer system and water supply econnections is being done, still there is no known program for a state wide plan.

Public health is partially under the Central Ministry of Health, and partially works under different local bodies, ranging from running of hospitals in the case of Delhi and New Delhi to dispensaries and anti-malaria control and vaccination centers by the district board. This obviously can be dealt with under a centrally co-ordinated department.

In short, therefore, public health, water supply, sewerage and drainage will form one Ministry which will have three directorates working in close collaboration with local agencies.

The National Capital Regional Planning Agency obviously can work in close co-ordination with the Health Department as

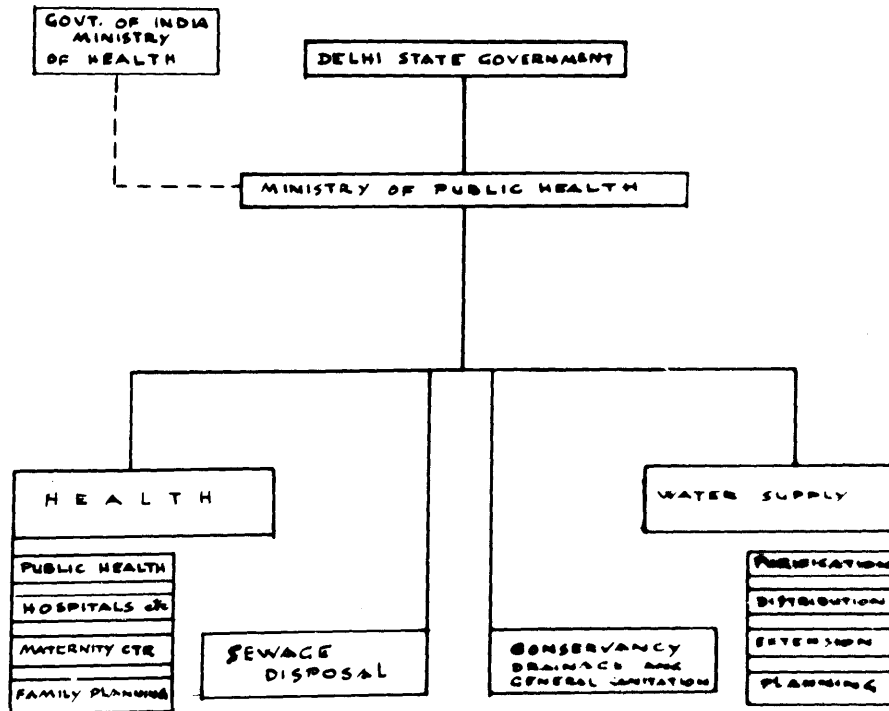


Chart 22. DELHI STATE GOVERNMENT : Ministry of Public Health, Sanitation and Water supply. (proposed)

far as developing standards are concerned, and with sanitation and water supply in regard to expansion and future planning.

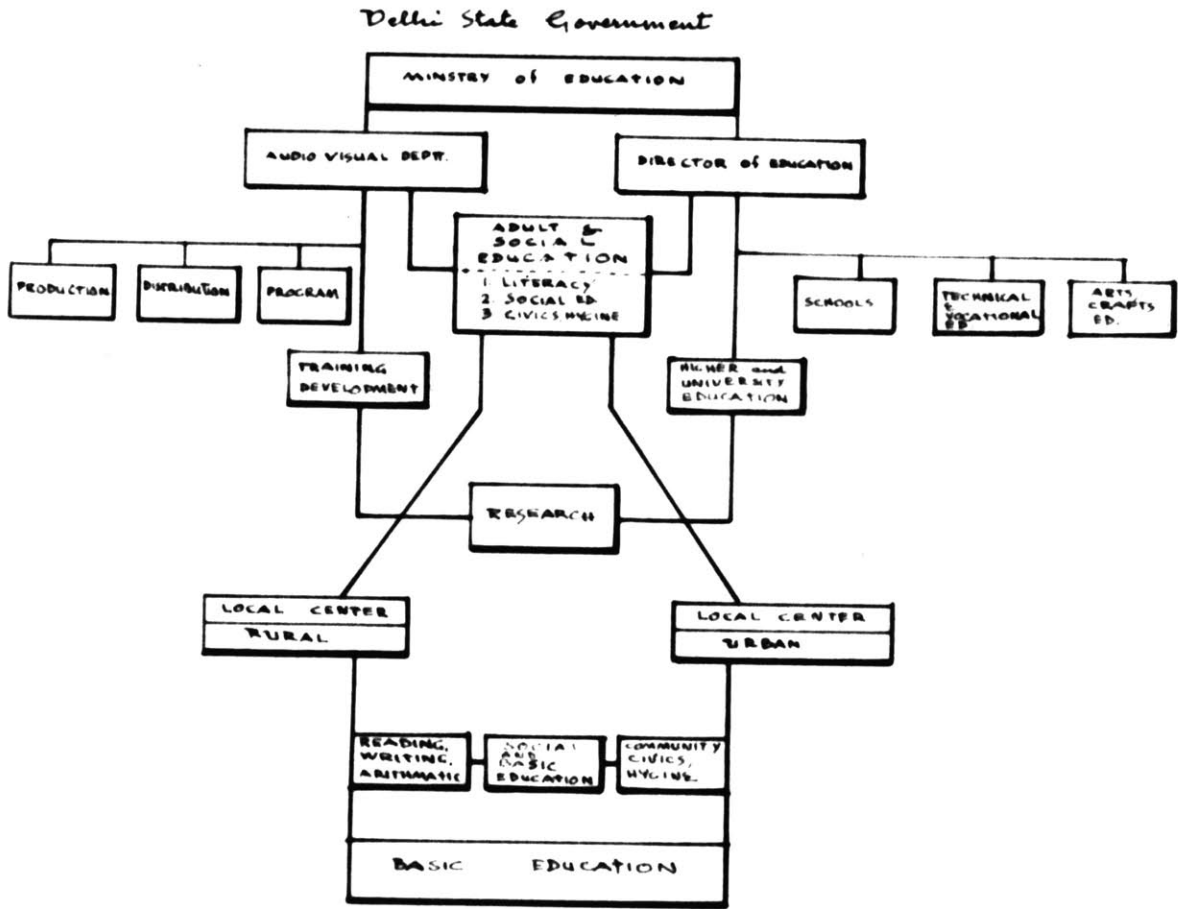
3 - Education: Education in Delhi state is also carried out by various agencies from the Central Government in charge of higher education (University-Polytechnic) to the district boards and municipalities in charge of elementary or primary education. Since there is only 38% literacy (actually not so bad in comparison with other states of India) this special function, as well as adult education is handled by the Directorate of Education of the Delhi State Government.

A more logical co-ordination with special emphasis on eradicating illiteracy within a short period of time by means of advanced techniques (such as Audio Visual Methods) is given in Chart no. : :

The primary aim again is to help in creating a framework under which effective co-operation at various levels, comprehensive plans in the field of education for the entire state could be smoothly carried out. The Planning Agency can greatly help in location of school plants and planning for future educational needs of various areas. Distribution of school population, provision of new schools, etc. all can be most efficiently dealt with by the planning agency in co-operation with education ministry.

4 - Transportation: Public transport, which is managed by the Delhi Transport Authority under an Act from the Parliament could well be taken care of under this Ministry. The Ministry

CHART 23.
 DELHI STATE GOVERNMENT : EDUCATION (proposed)



would also include the registration and licensing functions now performed under a different Police Department. Moreover, the functions of this Ministry can be so broadened as to include general circulation, state highways and traffic control.

This obviously would need co-ordination with the Central Public Works Department and the Planning agency especially when solutions are sought for existing problems and for future highway network.

5 - Public Works; Housing and Rehabilitation: Up till now most of the public construction, (that includes roads, buildings, culverts, bridges, etc.) are being done mostly under the CPWD. The CPWD has been doing this for the Improvement Trust, the New Delhi Municipal Committee, and various other committees.

Since the scope and functions of the government would be enlarged and many welfare public schemes would be coming in, it would be advisable to have a separate Ministry with a vision whose in charge should be a competent and experienced engineer from the CPWD. However, the Ministry should operate and determine its own policies in the light of requirements and recommendations from other allied departments.

As far as the constructions for the government of India are concerned, they could still be handled by the Central Ministry of Public works. However, construction and location of such structures should be subject to an advice, and approval by the National Capital Regional Planning agency;

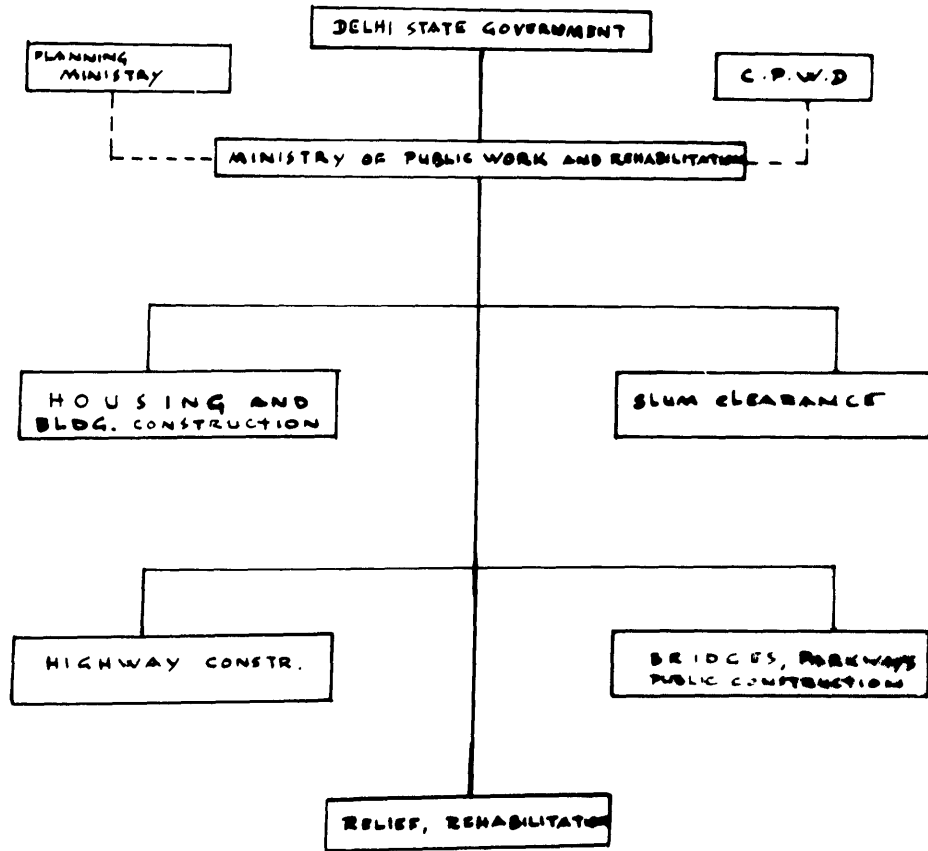


Chart 24. DELHI STATE GOVERNMENT: Ministry of Public Works, Relief and Rehabilitation. (proposed)

Similarly public relief and rehabilitation as well as housing projects for the displaced population were done through the Central Ministry of the same name, and the CPWD did most of the 'architectural planning' and construction. The problem of settlement of the refugees from Pakistan in a way has finished or is going to finish soon. However, even for years (or maybe decades to come) the need for public housing and giving public relief of various kinds would exist. Hence, it would be pertinent to have an agency to deal with it and with co-operation from other departments formulate its policies from time to time. On the other hand once such schemes are approved (say a Housing Project) the department should be able to execute its construction through the Public Works Department.

6 - Industries, Civil Supplies and Labor: Civil supplies (which included rationing) department has been operating under the Chief Commissioner under general management. Since rationing is now abolished most of the work of this department is confined to giving permits for controlled items such as cement, building materials, steel, etc. The need for an effective economic control of resources and a more balanced distribution is indispensable especially to carry out the economic targets of the National Five-Year Plans. This, however, can be better managed with a much needed collaboration from the various departments and ministries of Delhi State Government, which may itself have its own schemes requiring effective control of almost the same nature.

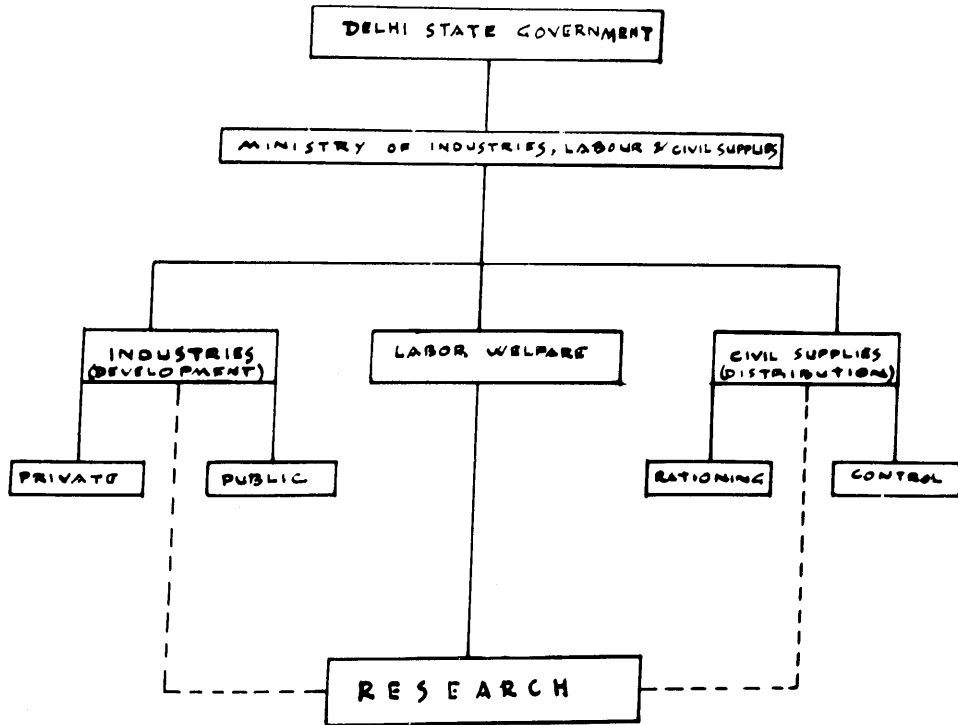


Chart 25. DELHI STATE GOVERNMENT : Ministry of Industries Labor and civil supplies. (proposed)

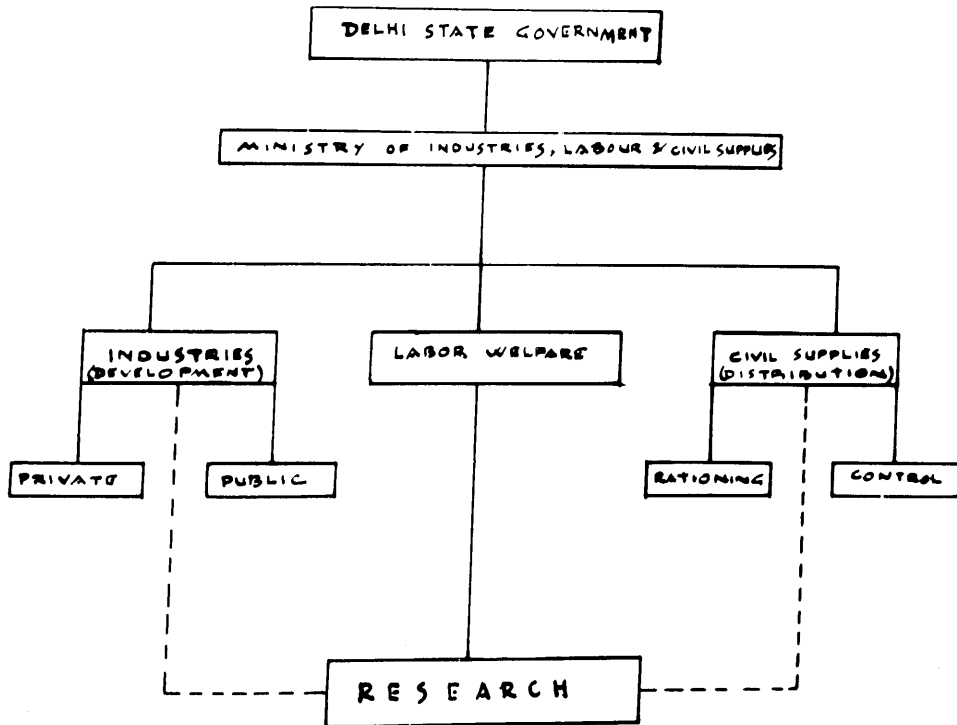


Chart 25. DELHI STATE GOVERNMENT : Ministry of Industries Labor and civil supplies. (proposed)

Industries and development of industries is one of those departments which have received little attention. Since Delhi is destined to become one of the most important industrial areas in the north, it is high time that it should be given proper importance. The department of industries will include:

- the development of industries, both in private and public sector including 'cottage industries';
- the labor welfare; trade unions, etc;
- the pertinent research as regards to potential and location, as well as to exploring the various economic possibilities for capital formation and investment techniques;

7 - Agriculture, Land Reforms and Land Revenue: The main job of this Ministry would be effecting the long awaited land reform, encouraging in the formation of economic co-operative farming; framing programs for agricultural production; arrangements for the cultivation of land not cultivated; securing minimum standards of cultivation to be observed in the villages; distribution of government's susidy as to seeds, money or taqavi loans (draught loans), and collection of land revenue;

The National Capital Regional Planning Agency could become helpful in working out proposals to protect good land from excessive urbanization and vice versa. The policy decisions on land uses can be one of the provinces of the

planning agency.

8 - Planning: Planning shall be dealt with in detail in the following chapter. It will be mentioned here that the Minister of Planning shall be the Chairman of the National Capital Regional Planning Commission. The ministry at the state level would, however, serve as an executive machinery to implement the decisions once they are accepted by the planning authorities and have received proper formal assent from the Chief Commissioner and the President of India.

It is the nature of planned development that the responsibility for enlisting the association and co-operation of other departments of the Delhi State Government and also of the local units of government should rest in this ministry.

Another important job of this ministry would be to prepare five-year plans in conjunction with the National Five-Year Plans of the National Planning Commission on various aspects covering social, economic and other spheres.

2 - The Chief Commissioner and his Jurisdiction:

The Chief Commissioner as a representative of the President of India would have almost all the powers that he has now with the only exception that his capacity in the fields discussed above will become more of a supervisory nature than immediate direct control. He will have taken into account of the popular feelings and yet to keep an objective view of the whole situation in the long-range interests of the State.

In the fields of public law and order, safety and security of public life and property his control will, however, be final and immediate. He would still continue to work through his Deputy Commissioner and the Police Chief. The Political Department, and such other activities that are entrusted from the central government of India shall be carried out by him through his own agents.

The Chief Commissioner would also ^{nominate} ~~appoint~~ the National Capital Regional Planning Commission but in consultation with the Chief Minister of the Delhi state government as well as appropriate authorities outside the state boundary. The appointment of the regional planning commission would, however, be in the name of the President of India.

The Deputy Commissioner shall still be the Chairman of the New Delhi Municipal Committee, but its Vice-Chairman would be non-officials. Similarly, the Magistracy and Police would still be under the direct control of the Chief Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner, however, will work in complete co-ordination with the Delhi State Government as far as land revenue collection and practical employment of police power is concerned.

In about the possibility of taking arbitrary and independent decisions irrespective of proper consideration to public opinion will have to be removed. This power would only reside in the President of India.

3 - The Role of Local, Rural and Municipal Bodies:

The primary objectives of the local units of governmental administration would be:

- first: to help in developing their own programs under the broad outline as formulated by the state government and carrying out the decisions;
- second: to carry out the functions such as listed below with the help and co-ordination of higher authorities.

The functions may broadly be described as:

- collection of property and house taxes;
- general welfare services, public works, etc;
- education: social (adult and basic) and primary, middle and high school with direct funds and help from state government;
- public health, conservancy and sanitation;
- water supply distribution, public baths, and hydrants
- neighborhood conservation and development,
- area planning advisory councils - panchayats or mohalla committees;

and such other activities as may be assigned from time to time by the Delhi State Government to bring into focus the local problems.

third: to give more opportunity to the people to participate in actual governmental activities.

For this reason it is proposed that the present organizational structure as well as the methods of representation on the municipal bodies be radically revised in order to make them more democratic. Specifically, the inclusion of certain planning functions, and wider representation will help in achieving this goal.

More specifically, for instance, instead of having all the New Delhi Municipal Committee being nominated, it shall be mainly elected. However, its Chairman shall still be the Deputy Commissioner for the simple reason that it is the 'seat of the National Government' and, hence, should be under the direct supervision of the Chief Commissioner. The same would be done in the case of the civil lines area which should be raised to the status of full-fledged municipality. Similarly it may be possible to give status of notified area committees to many more communities having a population of 10,000 or more. The various charts on local administration and other ministries and branches of the government are given *on previous pages*, and would help in understanding the nature of proposals.

THE PLANNING FRAMEWORK

A democracy working for social ends has to base itself on the willing assent of the people and not on the coercive power of the state. This leads to the application of the principle of co-operation in all phases of planning activity and in all the functions which bring together individuals for the pursuit of common purposes. The field of public co-operation becomes in fact synonymous with that of physical development such as city and regional planning.

It is, therefore, of the highest importance that the planning framework should allow enough flexibility so that the every district, town and village could fit in full harmony with the rest of the region. But this is not enough. What is, perhaps, first and foremost required is the necessity of an Act of Parliament which will enable the establishment of a planning organization.

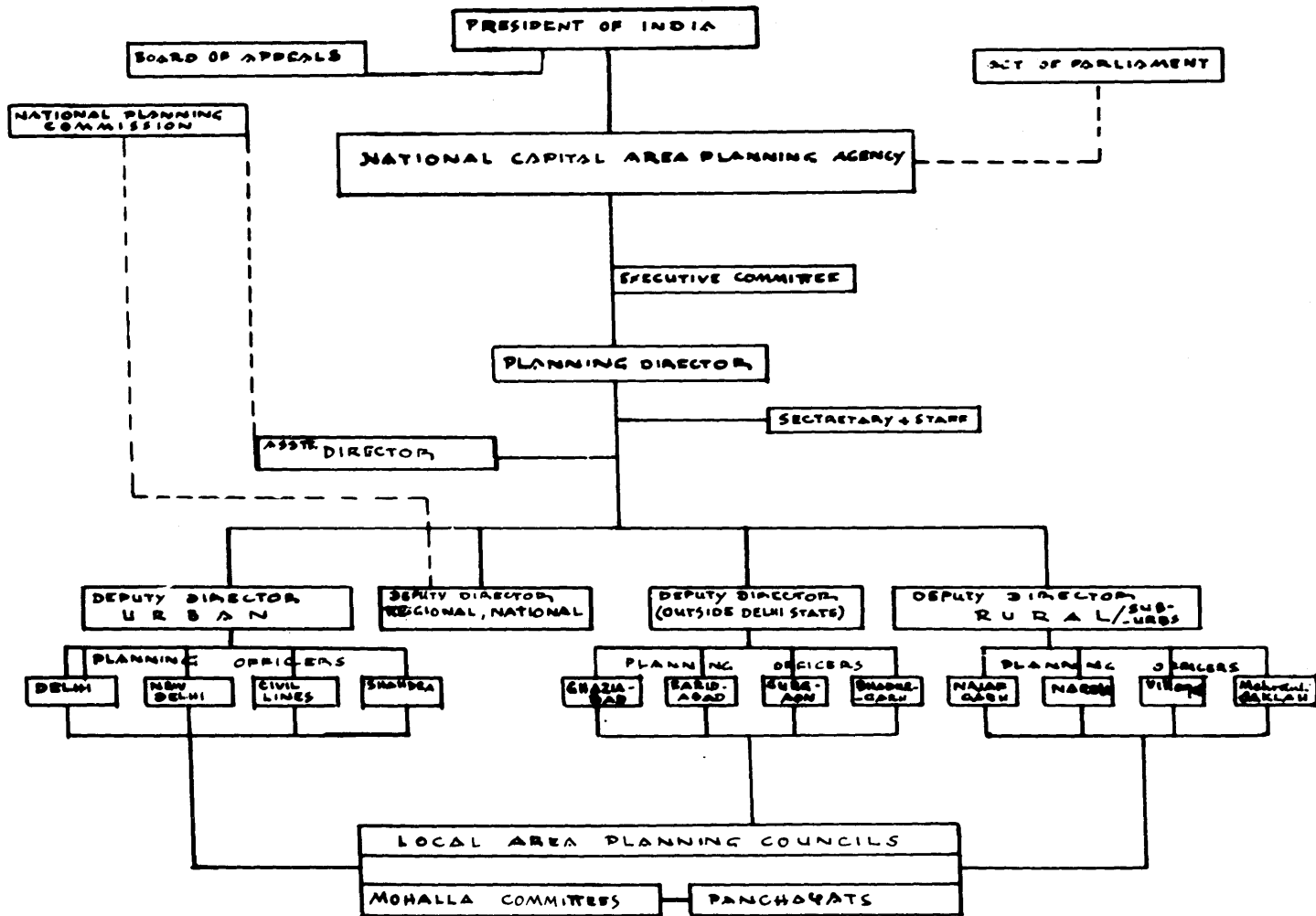
This organization to be known as National Capital Area Planning Commission or National Capital Area Planning Authority. The legislation should first define the region on the lines suggested previously. This would provide for the immediate inclusion of Faridabad, Guragaon, Ballabgarh, and Bhadurgarh in Punjab and Ghaziabad in Uttar Pradesh to become a part in the 'planning area and activities' of the National Capital Region. Moreover, a provision should be made, so that after ten or twenty years when the population began to sprawl out, certain other areas (at present constituting the outer ring), may also be incorporated for planning purposes. This would mean the inclusion of Rohtak, Palwal, Panipat, and Patudhi in Punjab and Bulendshahar, Hapur and Meerut in the U.P.

The planning authority or commission should be broad-based and well represented. A suggestion for its composition is made in the following proposal.

The Planning Commission:

The planning commission should be appointed in the name of the President of India by the Chief Commissioner in consultation with the Chief Minister of Delhi State Government and the district (or town) authorities in the adjoining states for representation from out of the state areas. It may consist of 25 to 50 members depending upon the number of communities represented and the size of the region from time to time.

Chart 26. PROPOSED PLANNING FRAMEWORK :
National Capital Area Planning Agency and its
organizational structure.



The Composition of the Commission:

The Commission should be composed of --

3 members elected from the Delhi Municipal Committee including its Chairman or a person appointed by him;

2 members from the New Delhi Municipal Committee including its President or a person appointed by him;

1 member from the Civil Lines Municipal Area;

1 member from the Delhi Cantonment Board;

5 members, one each from Shahdra, Najafgarh, Narela, Oakla, and Mehrauli Municipal areas;

2 members from the rural areas, elected by the district board;

6 members, one each representing the following professions:

1 member from labor - Trade Union: 2 names may be sent to the Chief Commissioner and he would choose one;

1 member from Architecture or Engineering;

1 member from the Medical profession;

1 member from the local bar association to represent the legal point of view;

1 member from the field of education; he may be the Vice-Chancellor of the Delhi University or a person elected by the University Court;

1 member representing the private industry or business
and may be nominated by the Chamber of Commerce;

5 members representing outlying areas in Faridabad, Ghaziabad,
Ballabgarh, Gurgaon and Bhadurgarh.

4 members appointed ex-officio from CPWD, Education Ministry
of Delhi State, Health and a person from the National Planning
Commission;

6 members elected from the Local Area Planning Councils;

Total of 35 members.

In addition to the above 35, the Minister for Planning Delhi
State shall be the ex-officio President and the Director of
Planning would be the Secretary of the Commission.

The Executive Committee:

Since the Commission is to be large and representative it
would not be possible for it to meet quite frequently. As such
it would be necessary to have an Executive Committee consisting
of not more than 12 members, including the Commission's Chairman
and Secretary to carry out the business. This Committee will
have the power of review, control and all such powers as the
Commission may designate from time to time. The Executive
Committee may from time to time, appoint sub-committees for
different phases of planning work and recommend them for the
formal approval of the Commission.

The National Capital Area Planning Commission will enjoy the following authority:

- 1 - It shall have the planning jurisdiction for the entire National Capital Region as defined from time to time. All the Planning Schemes in the local planning areas shall conform with the Comprehensive Guide Plan evolved by the Regional Commission, and the Commission shall have the final authority to approve all the local area plans;
- 2 - The Planning Commission shall have the sole privilege to initiate for regulative planning ordinances and to watch that the planning decisions are carried in full faith. In other words, it shall recommend to the President of India, proposals for uniform zoning ordinances, subdivision regulations and architectural control. The President can issue an ordinance if the matter is of a region-wide importance covering areas beyond the Delhi State in Punjab and U.P. or if it involves the interests of the government of India. However, before any such ordinance is enforced due publicity would be given so that objections could be raised and the proposed ordinance debated. The state or local governmental units would enforce the recommendation by their own administrative procedures, as prescribed by the legislation or by the President in the ordinance.
- 3 - The National Capital Area Planning Commission would also

work on a Capital Improvement Five-Year Plans in conjunction and co-ordination with the different units of governmental bodies in the area. This would be done in such a way that the Local Area Planning Agencies can suggest as well as incorporate in their own Capital Improvement Plans, proposals of the regional importance

(Of course this would be a two-way process: First the Local Planning Agencies would explore and develop their own Capital Program and put forward to the Regional Commission for advice, approval and incorporation join the regional plan if it involves appropriation of money from the Central Government.

On the other hand there would naturally be some projects concerning more than one area (like highways, Parks, etc.) for which the Regional Commission would ask the President for Central appropriations and subsidy as most of the Region is a part C State, a responsibility of the Central Government and, moreover, the Region is also the seat of the National Government).

4 - The National Capital Planning Commission would have also the authority of land acquisition for planning purposes as allowed under the 4th Amendment to the Indian Constitution.

The proposed projects (slum clearance, housing, re-development, neighborhood conservation, development of new sites or townships, or parks) would normally be

executed through the CPWD if they are of Regional wide interest or through the Public Works Ministry of the Delhi State Government if they pertain only to the interests of Delhi State. However, in case of a really big project (like the development of a new town site) the Planning Authority would suggest the President or the Delhi State Government (depending upon nature and extent of the project) for the establishment of a separate corporation (or agency), to execute and implement the project.

- 5 - The Commission shall have the exclusive power to approve, regulate, accept or reject the "urban development schemes" by private developers and organizations like the DLF.¹

Board of Appeals:

There would also be a Board of Appeal which would serve as a Court of last resort. This will consist of 3 to 5 members to be appointed by the President of India in the same manner as the justices of High Court. The members would be of the stature of High Court judges. The Board of Appeal would normally be appointed for a period of 5 years with overlapping terms.

-
1. DLF Housing and Construction is a limited company engaged in Real Estate business and construction around Delhi and New Delhi. DLF colonies in its own words are "spread all over Delhi to suit every pocket". It has developed, at least half-a-dozen colonies well known among them are, the DLF Model Town, Ashoka Park, Shivaji Park, Tilak Nagar, Rajouri Garden City and Krishana Nagar.
There are other organizations like that too.

The powers of the Board would be primarily:

- (a) to interpret the organic law establishing the Planning Authority, its jurisdiction, duties and powers,
- (b) to hear, on appeal, the cases arising from the decisions of the Planning Agency including disputes regarding compensation for land acquisition,
- (c) to ascertain the validity of such other planning ordinances or regulations as specifically prescribed by the President of India and/or the Indian Parliament.

The Board's decisions would be arrived at by a simple majority vote but before any final judgement is delivered the views of the appropriate planning agency would be heard.

The Organization of the Planning Agency:

The Planning Agency would be organized on a Regional wide basis with the Director of Planning (or Planning Secretary) as its Chief Technical Expert and Executive officer. Under him would be 4 Deputy Directors representing:

- Urban Areas;
- Rural Areas;
- Outlying (out of the State) Areas;
- Regional and State Planning

Under the Deputy Directors responsible for Rural and Urban Areas would be the Local Planning Units. In case of the cities of Delhi in New Delhi, they would be their local municipal planning agencies. In case of the other urban areas, it would be the

the respective local planning agencies of the towns concerned. In case of Rural Areas, a group of villages would have their own planning units. The same would also be true for the Deputy Director for outside-the-State areas. Under him would be the local planning units of the particular towns included in the National Capital Region.

Under the Deputy Director in charge of Regional and State Planning would be the co-ordination of various local schemes with the Regional Scheme and the Regional Scheme in the over all National Plan and co-ordination with the National Planning Commission.

For further details, see the organizational chart ~~no 028~~ in the appendix.

The Local Planning Agencies:

The Local Planning units would necessarily be within each city and town (or a group of towns) and in case of rural areas, probably with the District Board which would be working with the National Extension Scheme of Community Development Projects. The composition of these planning units would be comprised of a relatively small local Planning Committee. This Committee may consist of 3 to 6 members with the local Planning Officer as its Secretary. This Commission would, however, be assisted by a Local Area Planning Council.

The Local Area Planning Council would consist of representatives from various parts of a city (or from various villages in case of a Rural Area Planning Council) who would have their

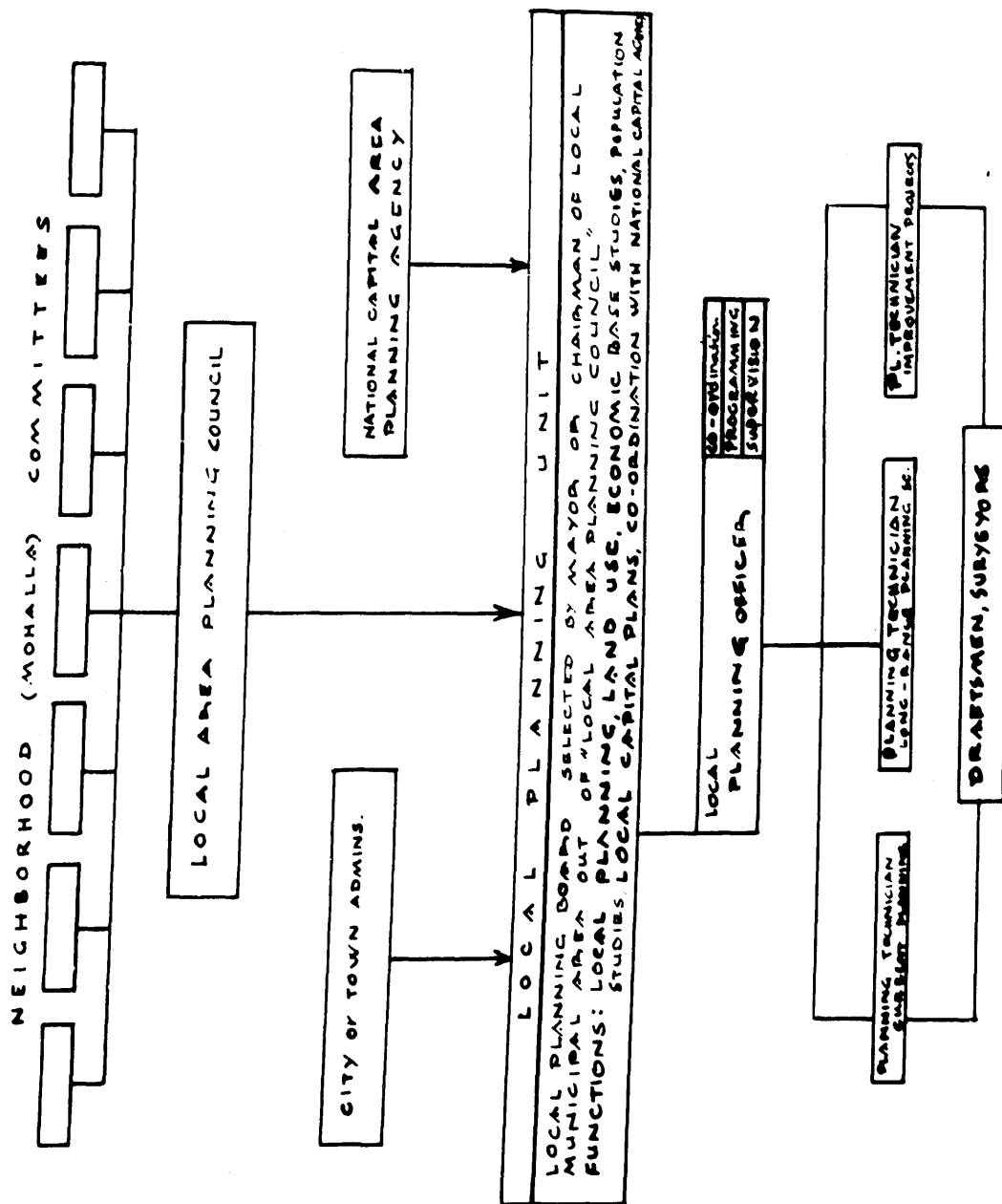


Chart 27. PROPOSED PLANNING FRAMEWORK :
 Local Planning Units, and their relationship
 with Local Area Planning Councils and the
 National Capital Area Planning Agency

own mohalla (or in case of Rural areas -- Gram Panchayats) Advisory Committees.

The work and functions of these Mohalla (Neighborhood) Committees would be to focus the attention of citizens as well as of authorities toward various planning problems, and help in collection of basic information and data, and for the cultivation of public opinion for planning programs. Finally these small un-official organizations can become an effective tool for public participation and effectuation of the plan. The planning can then become a center of constructive activity and public enthusiasm. Thus the people themselves would become the partners in the planning process, closely associated both in its formulation as well as in its implementation from stage to stage.

The functions of Municipal Planning Agencies would include land use studies, population distribution problems, developments of suitable locations for parks, playgrounds, schools and other community welfare activities which may be assigned to it either from the Municipal Government or the National Capital Area Planning Commission. It would have a technical staff consisting of a qualified Planning Officer, planning assistants, surveyors and draftsmen, depending upon the need and size of the job and the local unit. The Planning agency would, however, work under the general guidance and supervision of the Regional Planning Director as far as co-ordination and confirmity with the Regional Plan is concerned but would be appointed with advice from the Regional Director by the local governmental unit. In its execution of its duties it would be responsible to the city in which it is working.

The Functional Structure:

The functional organization of the National Capital Planning Agency is given in the Chart no. :28: As stated before its chief planning expert as well as its chief executive head would be the Planning Secretary (or Director of Planning). Under him would be 4 Deputy Directors responsible area-wise for rural, urban, out-of-the-Delhi State, and regional sections. However, each one of these Directors would be assigned a definite job in addition to his general duties in the area-wise aspect.

The Planning organization would be broadly divided into two sections:

---- long range, and

---- current.

The long-range would have Comprehensive Plan and Research sub-divisions, each under the responsibility of a Deputy Director. On the Current Planning section would also be two-sub-divisions, the main concern of one of which would be items like regulation of zoning ordinances, sub-division and architectural control; the other sub-division would be responsible for preparing Capital

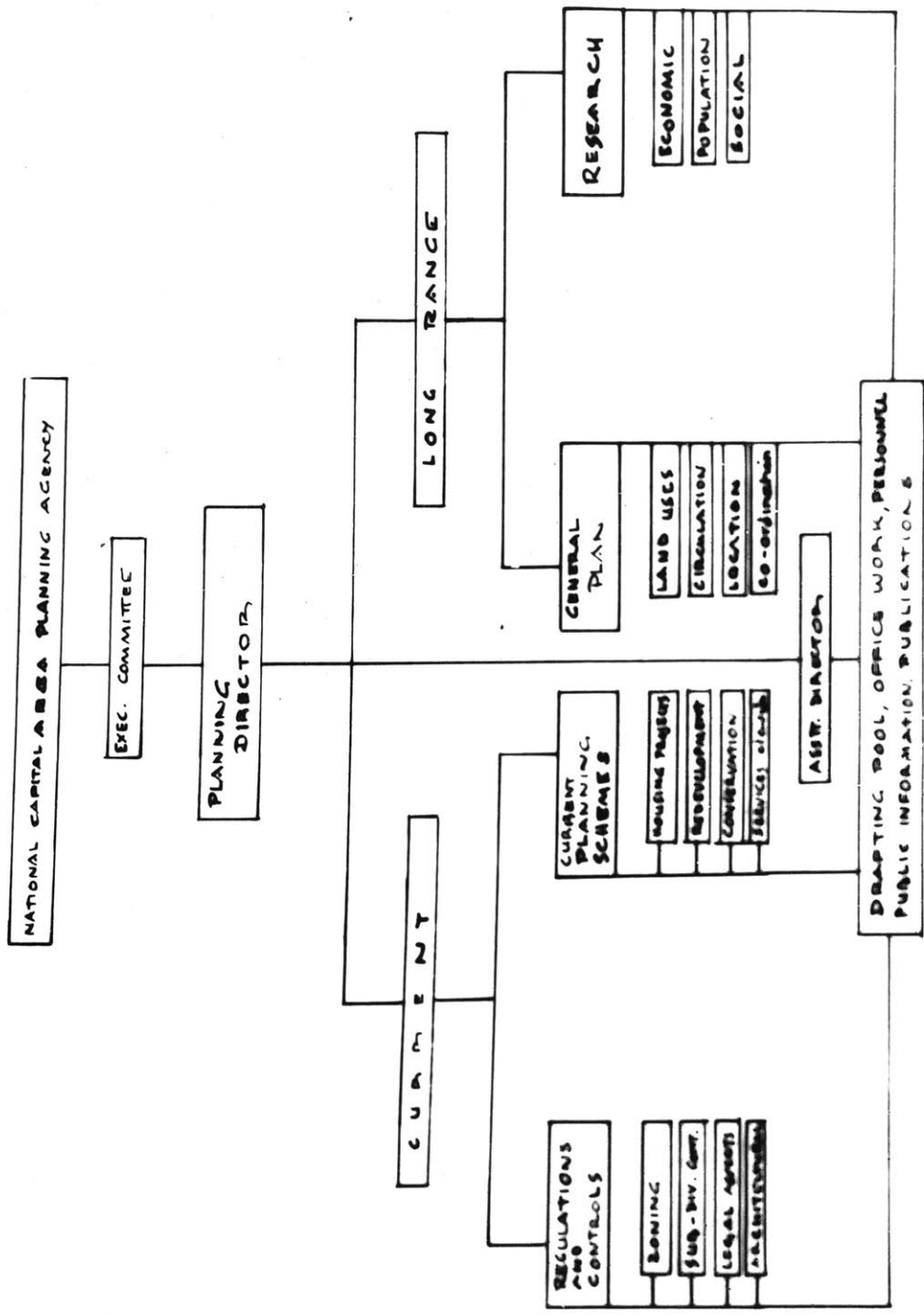


Chart 28. PROPOSED PLANNING FRAMEWORK:
Functional Structure:

Improvement projects, schemes for new development areas and public amenities such as transportation planning and traffic.

The Comprehensive Plan and Research Divisions would conduct studies for land use, population, economic base, industrial location and development, public services and future circulation network.

The Current Planning Section would devote its efforts to studies on housing and re-development projects, neighborhood conservation, extension of existing services and public utilities, development of new areas, and the preparation of periodical Capital Programs which will be both in co-ordination of National Plan as well as based on the recommendation of the local planning units. A sub-division of this section shall also be responsible for enforcement of regulations.

Public Relations, Information and Publications shall be under an Assistant Director of Planning immediately responsible to the Planning Director.

Besides this, there would be draftsmen and other experts, such as traffic experts and social scientists dealing with specific phases of the planning process. As the chart would show under the Deputy Directors would be the Assistant Directors in charge of various functions such as Land Use Surveys Re-development Projects, etc.

However, it is neither the intent of the author nor it is desirable to make any definite formulation as this in fact should

be the job of the Planning Director who could organize the staff, according to his own needs and situation. He must have a flexible hand if he would like to re-arrange various duties or functions.

A Note for the Future Possibilities:

The Indian Planning technique has yet to develop. In fact today India does not have as many qualified planners as a country of that dimensions would potentially need. As such care has been taken only to draw general outline and broad suggestions so that with the passage of time, when there would be more planners, and planning consciousness would really develop, the benefits of this framework could still be utilized. For instance, at this stage it may not at all be possible to have Planners (qualified) at every city or town level, not to speak for of and every town in the area. Nevertheless after 10 or 15 years each one of the cities and towns may be able to afford to have their own Planning Officers. Meanwhile these planning agencies can be organized, even on the smallest local levels. And this is extremely important because it would help in bringing problems into proper perspective and encourage public co-operation. People would cease to think of 'planning as a luxury only a few rich or new cities could afford'. Moreover, these local planning agencies at present can also help in collection of basic information and invaluable data.

A Note for Immediate Action:

It may not be out of place to mention here that even before the proposals suggested in this paper, certain immediate steps can be taken in the same direction. For instance one way could

be try enlarging the scope and function of the present Delhi Improvement Trust. This can easily be achieved by the appointment of a large committee or commission on the lines suggested for the National Capital Area Planning Commission. Yet another way is for the Chief Commission to appoint a Planning Commission till proper legislation is carried by the Parliament of India. The legislation by the Parliament would not only give Planning a definite and honorable legal status but would also help in creating a place of importance for the urban and rural physical planning.

However it must be kept in mind that none of these temporary measures should be taken as an end in itself but only a means to an end.

A Note on Public Participation:

Many a time in the past ambitious schemes and plans have been proposed but they failed mainly because they did not take into account -- at least properly -- the people themselves. A large number of the development schemes remained on paper because they could not stir the imagination of the people. An important objective of this proposal has been aimed at creating favorable conditions for 'people's participation' on various phases of planning activity so as to encourage evolution of "planning consciousness" in the citizens.

The live contacts in this respect would be maintained by the so designated Mohalla Committees in the urban areas and Gram Panchayats in the rural areas. In fact, the idea of Panchayats (or for that matter of Mohalla Sabhas is not original in itself)

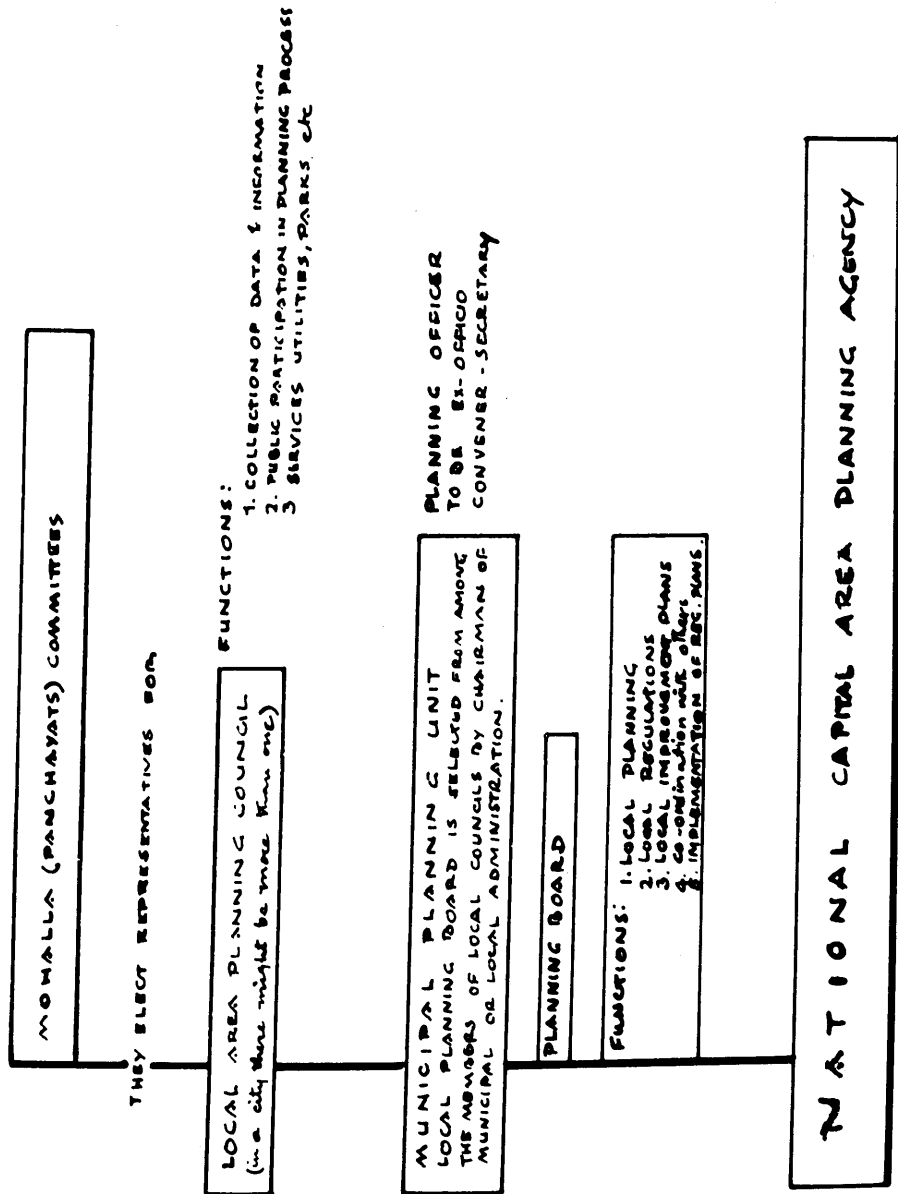


Chart 29. PROPOSED PLANNING FRAMEWORK :
 showing Public Participation in planning process
 at various stages of planning.

has been proposed and in some places adopted by various state, district and local governments as the 'grass roots' of democracy. Mohalla Sabhas would elect their representatives in local area planning councils, thus the council would be composed of popular representatives from various neighborhoods of the city (or from various villages, depending on their size). The Mohalla Sabhas would bring in their own problems and proposals with respect to their own small localities for the consideration of a bigger organization --- local area planning councils. In a city there may be one or more such councils.

On a higher level than this would be the Municipal Planning Unit governed by a small planning board. This planning board would be appointed by the chairman of the local governmental unit (Municipality or notified area committee) from the members of the local area planning councils. The member of this planning board shall be small and would range from 3 to 6 members in addition to the local planning officer who would be the convener-secretary and the chairman of the local government unit (or a person nominated by him) would be the chairman of the board.

The various local planning units would eventually be represented on the National Capital Area Planning Commission as proposed before. However, in addition to these there would be 6 members from the Local Area Planning Councils selected at large to represent on the Regional Agency.

As regards functions: the Mohalla Sabhas would help in bringing into focus various local problems that could possibly

be handled by planning. The Mohalla Sabhas would help in collection of basic data of various types, formation of voluntary help in effectuation of planning decisions (eg: road construction, etc.) and also in organizing various meetings and group discussions vis-a-vis planning problems, etc.

The Local Area Planning Councils would be holding its meetings whenever necessary but will have an Annual Planning Conference in which all the local area councils of the entire National Capital Region would get together and forward proposals for the consideration of the National Capital Area Planning Authority.

Thus it may be seen that though at present it may not be possible for each and every city or local area to have competent planning agencies yet by creating these 'grass roots' committees and having a live contact much can be achieved both in creating public opinion and participation.

This, then, is an approach for a planning framework ---- though the integration of overlapping administrative functions; through the co-ordination of various local bodies and finally through the active support and participation of the people. In short it is an effort to enlist the co-operation of the masses in the 'great adventure of building a new India'.

A P P E N D I C E S

appendix A : Tables

appendix B : Important Sections of Part C States Act

appendix C : Maps and Drawings.

BIBLIOGRAPHY :

- (a) principal references,
- (b) general refernces,
- (c) articles, periodicals, newsletters etc.

A P P E N D I X : A :

LIST OF TABLES :

- 1 - Population increase in selected States 1941 - 51
- 2 - Population percentages in Rural and Urban Areas in India
- 3 - Towns and Cities classified by population (Census of India)
- 4 - Population increase in ten largest cities of India.
- 5 - Urban areas by major Indian Regions.
- 6 - Towns and villages classified by size. (in Delhi State)
- 7 - Variation in population in Delhi State (by decades).
- 8 - Population and density in Urban Area : Delhi State.
- 9 - Area, Houses and Population in Delhi State.
- 10 - Density of Population in various localities in Delhi State.
- 11 - Refugee Colonies in Delhi State.
- 12 - Urban Areas (Cities and towns) arranged by livelihood Classes.
- 13 - Occupational Characteristics of Displaced Population.
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- 20 - Literacy in Delhi State (Rural and Urban areas) 1951.
- 21 - Progress of Literacy in Delhi State in last two decades.
- 22 - Number of squatters in Delhi area. (Urban only).

POPULATION INCREASE IN SELECTED STATES 1941-1951

Table No. 1

STATE	POPULATION		PERCENTAGE INCREASE	AREA IN SQ. MILES	DENSITY		PERCENTAGE INCREASE
	1941	1951			1941	1951	
DELHI	917,939	1,744,072	90.28	578	1,581	3,017	97.0
AJMER	383,693	698,372	82.3	2,417	158	280	72.0
COORG	168,726	229,405	36.9	1,586	106	142	34.0
TRIPURA	513,010	639,029	24.6	4,032	127	157	23.5
TRAVANCORE	7,500,057	9,280,425	23.7	9,144	823	1,001	23.7
BOMBAY	29,181,146	35,956,150	23.0	111,434	262	325	23.8
MYSORE	7,337,818	9,074,972	21.5	29,489	245	300	22.5

Source: Census of India 1951, Volume 1: part I-A
page 15.

POPULATION PERCENTAGES IN RURAL & URBAN AREAS (1921-51)

Table No. 2

DECADES	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION	
	RURAL	URBAN
1921	88.7	11.2
1931	87.9	12.1
1941	86.1	13.9
1951	82.7	17.3

Source: INDIA 1954, p. 15
Table XIV

TOWNS & CITIES CLASSIFIED BY POPULATION

Table No. 3

		Total Number	POPULATION	URBAN POPULATION PERCENTAGE	
CITIES	100,000 - over	73	23,500,000	38.0))) 68.1
MAJOR TOWNS	20,000 - 100,000	485	18,600,000	30.1	
MINOR TOWNS	5,000 - 20,000	1,848	17,800,000	28.6	
TOWNSHIP	5,000 - under	612	2,000,000	3.3	
		3,018	61,900,000	100.0	

Source: Adopted from:

- (1) Census of India, 1951: Volume I. part I-A Report
- (2) Also see INDIA 1954, p. 44

POPULATION INCREASE IN 10 LARGEST CITIES OF INDIA (1941-51)

Table No. 4

	P O P U L A T I O N		PERCENTAGE INCREASE
	1951	1941	
1. CALCUTTA	4,578,000	3,107,000	47.5
2. BOMBAY	2,839,000	1,695,168	68.0
3. DELHI	1,431,134	695,686	102.5
4. HYDERABAD	1,086,000	739,159	47.0
5. MADRAS	1,416,000	777,481	82.0
6. AHMEDABAD	788,333	600,000	31.5
7. BANGALORE	778,000	406,760	91.5
8. KANPUR	705,000	487,324	45.0
9. POONH	480,982	278,165	73.0
10. LUCKNOW	497,000	383,177	29.5
TOTAL:	14,599,449	9,169,920	Mean Growth: 66.0% (arithmetic)
			Average: 61.7%

Source: INDIA 1954, p.47

URBAN AREAS BY REGIONS

Table No. 5

ZONE	CITIES Number	POPULATION In 100,000	MAJOR TOWNS	
			Number	Population In 100,000
NORTH INDIA	14	33	62	24
EAST INDIA	13	46	82	34
SOUTH INDIA	18	49	133	50
WEST INDIA	11	55	84	32
CENTRAL INDIA	8	26	62	23
NORTHWEST INDIA	9	26	62	23
INDIA	73	235	485	186

Source: Census of India, 1951
Volume I Part I-A
Report P.46

TOWNS AND VILLAGES CLASSIFIED BY SIZE

Table No. 6

	Number	P O P U L A T I O N			Percentage		
		Total	Male	Female			
TOTAL DELHI STATE	314	1,744,072	986,538	757,534	100.0		
A.	1. Less than 500	110	31,305	16,896	14,409	1.77	
	2. 501 - 1,000	96	67,720	36,157	31,563	3.94	
	3. 1001 - 2,000	68	97,555	52,469	45,086	5.61	
	Sub-Total	274	196,580	105,522	91,058	11.32	11.32
B.	4. 2001 - 5,000	26	73,642	40,821	32,821	4.42	
	5. 5001 - 10,000	6	45,482	24,890	20,592	2.65	
	Sub-Total	32	119,124	65,711	53,413	7.07	7.07
	6. 10,001 - 20,000	2	23,377	13,987	9,390	1.32	
	7. 20,001 - 50,000	2	71,752	44,404	27,348	4.10	
	8. 50,001 - 100,000	2	142,135	83,576	58,559	8.15	
	9. 100,000 - above	2	1,191,104	673,338	517,766	68.04	
	Sub-Total	8	1,428,368	815,305	613,063	81.61	81.61
							100.00

Source: Census of India 1951, Delhi State,
District Census Handbook - Vol. 27
p. 4 and 5.

VARIATION IN POPULATION BY DECADES IN DELHI STATE 1951

Table No. 7

	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951
DELHI Rural	197,244	181,014	184,032	188,804	222,253	306,938
DELHI Urban Non-City	2,041	3,693	24,705	35,048	80,104	240,030
DELHI Urban City	206,534	229,144	248,259	347,539	521,849	914,790
NEW DELHI Urban			31,456	64,855	93,733	276,314
TOTAL - URBAN	208,575	232,837	304,420	447,442	695,686	1,437,134
TOTAL - DELHI STATE	405,819	413,851	488,452	636,246	917,939	1,744,072

PERCENTAGE
INCREASE

2.0% 10.6% 30.6% 42.0% 90.28%

* DELHI:

Civic Lines			17,304	16,334	19,395	83,273
West Delhi						58,862
Delhi Cantt			6,272	8,798	23,140	40,950
Shadra	4,160	5,286	6,628	8,262	15,955	30,802
Narela					8,050	9,597
Mehrauli					6,050	7,436
Najafgarh					5,774	5,088
Red Fort	2,041	3,693	1,127	1,641	1,740	10,022

Source: IBID, p.

POPULATION AND DENSITY IN URBAN AREA: DELHI STATE 1951

Table No. 8

	Area	POPULATION		DENSITY		PERCENTAGE INCREASE	
		1941	1951	1941	1951	Population	Density
DELHI: Rural	500.8	222,253	306,938	444	613	38.1	38.25
DELHI: Urban Non-City	37.9	80,104	246,030	2,117	6,502	206.0	205.0
DELHI: Urban City	6.7	521,849	914,790	77,888	136,536	75.0	75.5
NEW DELHI: Urban	32.8	93,733	276,314	2,856	8,419	196.0	192.0
Civil Lines	8.86	19,395	83,273	2,200	9,450	330.0	346.0
West Delhi	3.45	-	58,862	-	17,000	-	-
Delhi Cantt (12,170 Acres)	2.25	23,140	40,950	10,300	18,200	77.5	76.5
Shahdra	4.0	15,955	30,502	4,000	7,650	91.5	92.0
Narela	1.5	8,050	9,597	5,350	6,400	19.2	19.8
Red Fort	0.81	1,740	10,022	2,150	12,450	485.0	500.0
Mehrauli	0.5	6,050	7,436	12,000	14,800	23.0	24.2
Najaf Garh	1.0	5,774	5,091	5,774	5,091	-13.5	-13.5
TOTAL URBAN	77.4	695,686	1,437,134	8,988	18,568	88.0	106.0
DELHI DISTRICT B BOARD	498.4	-	302,800	-	610		
TOTAL DELHI STATE	578.2	917,939	1,744,072	1,588	3,016	90.2	91.0

AREA, HOUSES AND POPULATION IN DELHI STATE (1951)

Table No. 9

TRACT	AREA IN SQ. MILES	VILLAGES	TOWNS	HOUSES	PERSONS	MALES	FEMALES	DENSITY IN SQ. MILES
DELHI RURAL	500.8	304	—	53,258	306,938	167,106	139,832	613
DELHI Non-city urban	37.9	—	8	44,264	246,030	146,094	99,936	2,117
DELHI City urban	6.7	—	1	159,954	914,790	515,737	398,053	136,536
NEW DELHI City urban	32.8	—	1	55,277	276,314	156,601	119,713	8,419
DELHI URBAN	77.4	—	10	259,495	1,437,134	819,432	617,702	11,664
TOTAL DELHI STATE	578.2	304	10	312,753	1,744,072	986,538	757,534	3,017

Source: Adopted from Delhi District Census Handbook 1951

DENSITY OF POPULATION IN VARIOUS LOCALITIES
IN DELHI CITY 1951

Table No. 10

LOCALITY	TOTAL AREA (Acres)	BUILTUP AREA (Acres)	POPULATION 1951	GROSS DENSITY (Per Acre)	NET DENSITY (Per Acre)
1. Kashmiri Gate	270.8	67.5	20,181	74	299
2. Mori Gate	51.6	46.5	23,390	453	503
3. Chandni Chowk	98.8	56.3	15,103	152	268
4. Katra Neel	62.0	46.5	18,735	302	403
5. Shardanand Bazaar	87.2	65.6	18,426	211	280
6. Jama Masjid	60.0	21.0	23,687	394	1128
7. Maliwara	36.0	34.2	21,722	603	635
8. Charkhewalan	48.4	45.98	20,107	415	437
9. Ballimaran	47.6	45.22	23,513	493	520
10. Naya Bas	60.0	41.0	18,664	311	455
11. Frash Khana	49.2	41.8	19,124	388	457
12. Kutcha Pandit	92.8	44.45	12,928	139	291
13. Kuttha Pati Ram	63.6	38.0	24,205	380	639
14. Kalan Masjid	47.6	28.4	15,502	326	545
15. Lal Darwaza	36.6	34.2	16,105	440	470
16. Churiwalan	38.0	36.1	15,658	412	433
17. Matia Mahal	94.4	63.4	21,154	224	333
18. Darya Ganj	147.6	94.0	14,946	101	159
19. Chatta Lal Mian	47.6	28.0	17,164	360	613
20. Suiwalan	68.0	48.6	20,014	294	412
21. Rahanara Ext.	284.8	67.8	24,312	85	358
22. Kamla Nagar	232.8	93.0	24,005	103	258
23. Sahemganj-Kothi	29.2	27.4	24,672	845	900
24. Arya Pura	76.8	61.6	17,557	228	285
25. Rath Ganj	36.6	28.5	11,168	305	392
26. Bara Hindu Rao	149.2	51.3	25,588	178	518
27. Pul Bangash	52.8	43.8	15,397	291	351
28. Teliwara	47.6	36.6	17,706	372	483
29. Deputy Ganj	58.8	48.6	17,036	290	350
30. Pahari Dhiraj	40.8	34.2	15,718	385	459
31. Model Basti	58.4	44.6	14,210	243	318
32. Manahpura	92.0	66.3	19,416	211	293
33. Qasabpura	102.0	68.0	21,149	207	311
34. Basti Julahan	43.6	35.1	16,356	375	465
35. Ram Nagar	136.4	72.0	30,245	221	420
36. Qadam Shrief	85.6	61.8	20,027	234	324
37. Motia Khan	163.2	98.2	17,494	107	177
38. Dariba Pan	22.0	19.0	8,505	386	447

DENSITY OF POPULATION IN VARIOUS LOCALITIES
IN DELHI CITY 1951
(Continued)

Table No. 10
(Cont'd)

LOCALITY	TOTAL AREA (Acres)	BUILTUP AREA (Acres)	POPULATION 1951	GROSS DENSITY (Per Acre)	NET DENSITY (Per Acre)
39. Mantala	38.8	27.5	17,501	568	635
40. Gurgaon Road	32.0	30.4	15,254	476	501
41. Chuna Mandi	52.0	45.2	18,084	348	399
42. Khajoor Road	156.4	93.8	24,607	157	262
43. Tibbiya College	156.4	95.4	20,489	131	214
44. Kishanganj	258.4	154.4	24,312	94	157
45. Dev Nagar	115.2	87.2	25,346	220	291
46. Reharpura	92.0	69.0	26,600	290	385
47. Pusa Road	300.0	165.0	20,550	68	124

Source: Rajdhani Weekly, Delhi State Supplement

REFUGEE COLONIES IN DELHI STATE 1951

Table No. 11

NAME OF COLONY	AREA (In Acres)	ANTICIPATED POPULATION	OVERALL DENSITY Person/Acre
1. RAJINKRA NAGAR	255	22,000	86
2. PATEL NAGAR (Shadipur)	400	24,000	60
3. MALKAGANJ	28	2,500	90
4. KINGSWAY	151	18,000	119
5. VIJAY NAGAR	40	3,000	75
6. NIZAMUDDIN	33	2,500	71
7. NIZAMUDDIN-Extension	64	4,000	63
8. JANGPURA	156	8,500	54
9. LAJPAT NAGAR (Kilkori)	(450 300)	27,000 18,000	60 61
10. KALKAJI	335	17,000	51
11. MAIVIA NAGAR	400	24,000	60
12. BHARAT NAGAR	14	1,500	107
13. TILAK NAGAR (Tehar)	266	15,000	57
14. PURANA QILA	200	6,000	30
15. KOTLA FEROSHSHAH	7	1,500	215
16. AZADPUR	9	1,500	167
17. REGHARPURA	7½	2,500	335
18. ANGURI BAGH)	20	750	375
19. PARDAH BAGH)			
TOTAL	3,135	199,250	

Source: Adopted from Delhi District Census Handbook

Name—Urban Area: City - Town	POPULATION			AGRICULTURAL CLASSES				NON-AGRICULTURAL CLASSES							
	Total	Male	Female	Cultivators		Non-Cultivators Agr. Rent Receivers		Production		Commerce		Transport		Other	
				Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
DELHI CITY	914,790	516,737	398,053	338	380	1,556	1,193	122,169	87,136	169,854	136,247	35,674	25,346	187,146	147,751
	100.0%			.04%	.04%	.17%	.13%	13.3%	9.5%	18.5%	14.8%	3.8%	2.8%	20.4%	16.1%
NEW DELHI	276,314	156,601	119,713	196	161	535	388	9,371	6,177	13,249	9,613	6,581	4,846	126,669	98,582
	100.0%			.07%	.05%	.19%	.14%	3.3%	2.2%	4.8%	3.5%	2.4%	1.75%	45.8%	35.6%
CIVIL LINES	83,273	48,637	34,637	89	85	419	370	4,697	3,027	9,562	7,754	2,374	1,868	31,496	21,532
WEST DELHI	58,862	34,939	23,923	16	22	165	39	6,508	4,193	5,571	4,323	4,020	3,097	18,659	12,249
DELHI CAUTT	40,950	27,377	13,573	364	76	944	793	1,182	851	1,372	1,059	372	233	23,123	10,561
SHAHDARA	30,802	17,027	13,755	43	31	537	413	2,006	1,433	4,365	2,836	1,271	1,075	8,805	6,987
NARELA	9,597	5,052	4,545	50	55	1,153	1,064	658	1,304	1,304	1,111	212	205	1,675	1,461
RED FORT	10,022	6,587	3,435	4	-	86	34	644	346	1,744	760	633	303	3,476	1,992
MEHRAULI	7,436	3,800	3,636	40	42	296	295	435	460	1,103	909	139	109	1,787	1,821
NAJAF GARH	5,088	2,675	2,413	91	74	192	160	411	378	971	944	84	85	926	772
TOTAL* Urban	1,437,134	819,432	617,702	1,231	926	5,883	4,749	148,081	104,650	209,095	165,556	51,380	37,167	403,762	303,654
	100.0%			.08%	.06%	.41%	0.3%	10.3%	7.2%	14.5%	11.5%	3.6%	2.6%	28.1%	21.2%

Source: Delhi District Census
Handbook 1951 - p. 8

OCCUPATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DISPLACED POPULATION
BY LIVELIHOOD CLASSES

OCCUPATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DISPLACED POPULATION
BY LIVELIHOOD CLASSES

Table No. 13

	TOTAL POPULATION DISPLACED PERSONS			AGRICULTURAL CLASSES								NON-AGRICULTURAL CLASSES							
	Persons	Males	Females	I. Cultivators wholly/parti-ally owned & dependents		II. Cultivators wholly or mainly owned & dep'ts		III. Cultivat'g laborers-landless peasants		IV. Non-cultivat'g owners and/or rent receivers		V. Production other than Cultivation		VI. Commerce		VII. Transport		VIII. Other services and miscellaneous	
				Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
DELHI STATE	495,391	265,679	220,712	133	180	1,322	1,231	493	435	232	253	41,378	34,692	92,200	77,540	19,568	15,654	110,353	99,727
%	100.0			.03	.04	.27	.25	.09	.08	.05	.05	8.35	7.0	18.61	15.65	3.9	3.2	22.3	20.13
DELHI RURAL	25,005	13,459	11,546	-	-	872	790	407	379	-	-	1,794	1,325	3,858	3,109	1,285	971	5,243	4,972
%	100.0			-	-	3.4	3.1	1.6	1.5	-	-	7.2	5.3	15.43	12.43	5.14	3.89	21.0	19.9
DELHI URBAN	470,386	252,220	218,166	133	180	450	441	86	56	232	253	39,584	33,367	88,342	74,431	18,283	14,683	105,110	94,755
%	100.0			.03	.04	.1	.09	.02	.01	.05	.05	8.42	7.10	18.8	15.82	3.9	3.12	22.34	20.14
DELHI CITY	285,763	152,929	132,834	57	78	214	206	44	26	109	146	30,562	26,405	64,824	55,183	11,370	8,820	45,749	41,970
%	100.0			.01	.02	.07	.07	.01	-	.04	.05	10.69	9.24	22.69	19.31	3.98	3.08	16.00	14.69
NEW DELHI CITY-URBAN	85,518	45,613	39,905	43	42	24	50	-	-	52	47	3,572	2,767	7,746	6,085	2,496	1,995	31,680	28,919
%	100.0			.05	.05	.02	0.6	-	-	.06	0.5	4.2	3.23	9.1	7.11	2.92	2.33	37.04	33.82
DELHI NON-CITY URBAN	99,105	53,678	45,427	33	60	212	185	42	30	71	60	5,450	4,195	15,772	13,163	4,417	3,868	27,681	23,866
%	100.0			.03	.06	.21	.19	.04	.03	.07	.06	5.5	4.23	15.91	13.28	4.45	3.90	27.93	24.08

Source: Adopted from Delhi District Census Handbook 1951

Source: Adopted from Delhi District Census Handbook 1951

DELHI STATE'S POPULATION BY LIVELIHOOD CLASSES

Table No. 14

	DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON CITY URBAN	DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE	PERCENTAGE
TOTAL POPULATION:	306,938	1,437,134	246,030	914,790	276,314	1,744,072	100.0
<u>ALL-AGRICULTURAL CLASSES:</u>	159,397	12,789	8,042	3,467	1,280	172,186	9.9
1. Self-supporting persons:	39,503	3,627	2,077	1,115	435	43,130	2.7
2. Non-earning dependents:	96,398	8,197	5,251	2,134	812	104,595	6.0
3. Earning dependents:	23,496	965	714	218	33	24,461	1.2
<u>NON-AGRICULTURAL CLASSES:</u>	147,541	1,424,345	237,988	911,323	275,034	1,571,886	90.1
1. Self-supporting persons:	49,274	469,334	80,260	287,707	101,367	518,608	29.5
2. Non-earning dependents:	89,557	910,791	150,187	599,056	161,548	1,000,348	57.1
3. Earning dependents:	8,710	44,220	7,541	24,560	12,119	52,930	3.5

BREAKDOWN BY MAIN LIVELIHOOD CLASSES

1. Cultivators of land wholly/mainly owned:	114,065	6,743	4,516	1,717	510	120,808	7.0
2. Cultivators of land wholly/mainly un-owned:	13,558	2,939	1,692	872	385	16,497	1.0
3. Cultivating labourers landless peasants:	28,326	950	762	160	28	29,276	1.6
4. Non-cultivators and/or rent-receivers:	3,448	2,157	1,082	718	357	5,505	0.4

BREAKDOWN FOR AGRICULTURAL CLASSES

Table No. 15

	DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON CITY URBAN	DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE	PERCENTAGE		
TOTAL POPULATION:	306,938	1,437,134	246,030	914,790	276,314	1,774,072	100.0		
<u>ALL-AGRICULTURE:</u>	159,397	12,789	8,042	3,467	1,280	172,186	= 100.00	9.9	
1. Self-supporting:	39,503	3,627	2,077	1,115	435	43,130	25.0	2.7	
2. Non-earning dependents:	96,398	8,197	5,251	2,134	812	104,595	61.0	6.0	
3. Earning dependents:	23,496	965	714	218	33	24,461	14.0	1.2	
<u>I. CULTIVATORS OF LAND</u>									
<u>Wholly/mainly owned</u> and their dependents:	114,065	6,743	4,516	1,717	510	120,808	= 100.0	7.0	
1. Self-supporting:	26,981	1,600	840	584	276	28,581	23.6		
2. Dependents:	67,930	4,502	3,169	1,011	322	72,432	60.0		
3. Earning dependents:	19,154	641	497	122	12	19,795	16.4		
<u>II. CULTIVATORS OF LAND</u>									
<u>Wholly/mainly</u> un-owned:	13,558	2,939	1,692	872	385	16,497	= 100.0	0.9	
1. Self-supporting:	3,764	900	504	283	113	4,664	28.2		
2. Dependents:	8,371	1,941	1,118	562	261	10,312	62.5		
3. Earning dependents:	1,423	98	60	27	11	1,521	9.3		

BREAKDOWN FOR AGRICULTURAL CLASSES
(Continued)

Table No. 15
(Cont'd)

	DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON CITY URBAN	DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE		PERCENTAGE	
<u>III. CULTIVATING LABOURERS</u>									
<u>Landless peasants:</u>	28,326	950	762	160	28	29,276 =	100.0	1.6	
1. Self-supporting:	7,481	333	239	82	12	7,814	26.5		
2. Dependents:	18,193	522	435	73	14	18,715	64.0		
3. Earning dependents:	2,652	95	88	5	2	2,747	9.5		
<u>IV. NON-CULTIVATORS</u>									
<u>rent-receivers:</u>	3,448	2,157	1,082	718	357	5,505 =	100.0	0.4	
1. Self-supporting:	1,277	794	494	166	134	2,071	38.0		
2. Dependents:	1,904	1,232	529	488	215	3,136	53.5		
3. Earning dependents:	267	131	59	64	8	298	8.5		

BREAKDOWN FOR NON-AGRICULTURAL CLASSES

Table No. 16

	DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON CITY URBAN	DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE	PERCENTAGE	
TOTAL POPULATION:	306,938	1,437,134	246,030	914,790	276,314	1,774,072	100.0	
<u>NON-AGRICULTURAL:</u>	147,541	1,424,345	237,988	911,323	275,034	1,571,886	= 100.0	90.1
1. Self-supporting persons:	49,274	469,334	80,260	287,707	101,367	518,608	32.0	29.5
2. Non-earning dependents:	89,557	910,791	150,187	599,056	161,548	1,000,348	64.5	57.1
3. Earning dependents:	8,710	44,220	7,541	24,560	12,119	52,930	3.5	3.5
V. <u>PRODUCTION (Other than cultivation):</u>	49,366	252,731	27,878	209,305	15,548	302,097	= 100.0	17.3
1. Self-supporting persons:	16,184	78,953	9,093	64,913	4,947	95,137	31.5	
2. Non-earning dependents:	28,912	164,760	18,105	136,889	9,766	193,672	64.0	
3. Earning dependents:	4,270	9,018	6,800	7,503	835	13,288	4.5	
VI. <u>COMMERCE AND BUSINESS:</u>	20,500	375,651	46,688	306,101	22,862	396,151	= 100.0	22.7
1. Self-supporting persons:	5,899	109,807	12,392	91,170	6,245	115,706	28.0	
2. Non-earning dependents:	14,020	258,201	33,623	208,613	15,965	272,221	68.5	
3. Earning dependents:	581	7,643	673	6,118	652	8,224	3.5	

BREAKDOWN FOR NON-AGRICULTURAL CLASSES
(Continued)

Table No. 16
(Cont'd)

	DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON CITY URBAN	DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE	PERCENTAGE		
<u>VII. TRANSPORT & COMMUNI- CATION:</u>	6,621	88,547	16,100	61,020	11,427	95,168	=	100.0	5.5
1. Self-supporting per- sons:	1,815	28,968	4,263	21,155	3,560	30,783		32.4	
2. Non-earning dependents:	4,557	57,295	11,453	38,214	7,628	61,852		64.6	
3. Earning dependents:	249	2,284	394	1,651	239	2,533		3.0	
<u>VIII. OTHER SERVICES AND MISCELLANEOUS SOURCES:</u>	71,054	707,416	147,322	334,897	225,197	778,470	=	100.0	45.5
1. Self-supporting per- sons:	25,376	251,606	54,522	110,469	86,615	276,982		35.4	
2. Non-earning dependents:	42,068	412,535	87,006	215,340	128,189	472,603		61.0	
3. Earning dependents:	3,610	25,275	5,794	9,088	10,393	28,885		3.6	

BREAKDOWN FOR INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES

Table No. 17

	DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON CITY URBAN	DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE		
ALL INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES TOTAL DELHI STATE:	49,077	465,835	79,838	285,126	100,871	514,912	=	100.0
1. Employers:	161	8,427	121	7,910	396	8,588		1.6
2. Employees:	27,417	263,651	55,972	130,928	76,751	291,068		56.6
3. Independent workers:	21,499	193,757	23,745	146,288	23,724	215,256		41.8
1. Primary Industries:	2	1,123	13	1,099	11	1,225		0.24
2. Mining and Quarrying:	22	231	-	231	-	253		
3. Processing & Manufact'g:	3,545	37,419	6,002	29,871	1,546	40,964		8.10
4 (a) Cotton textiles mfg:	1,382	12,356	398	11,639	319	13,738		2.7
(b) Made-up textile goods:	1,198	11,745	1,339	9,250	1,161	12,948		2.4
(c) Textiles (otherwise un- classified):	235	4,606	3,699	897	10	4,841		0.9
(d) Leather goods & foot- wear:	176	4,187	437	3,813	37	4,363		0.8
4. Metals, Chemicals Mfg., e- lectrical machinery, trans- port equipment, etc.	930	18,124	1,207	14,478	2,444	19,054		3.45
5. Wood, Furniture, Rubber, 11,685 Cement, Bricks, Paper, Paper products, Printing:		22,056	1,871	19,234	951	33,741		6.30
6. Construction, Works and Services:	1,997	47,629	2,298	33,730	11,601	49,626		9.51

BREAKDOWN FOR INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES
(Continued)

Table No. 17
(Cont'd).

	DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON URBAN	CITY DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE	PERCENTAGE
7. Commerce, Business, Re- tail; Insurance, Banking, Real Estate:	5,899	109,807	12,392	91,170	6,245	115,706	22.40
8. Transport, Storage, Communi- cation; Railways, Post & Telegraph, Telephone:	1,815	32,407	6,110	22,733	3,564	34,222	6.59
9. Health, Education, Public Administration:	3,591	129,016	34,375	34,500	60,137	132,607	26.20
10. Services not classified elsewhere: Legal, Laundry, Bankers, Religion, etc; Beggars, Journalists, Artists, etc.	19,591	68,023	15,566	38,080	14,377	87,614	17.21

POPULATION BY RELIGIOUS CLASSIFICATION AND
POSITION OF MINORITIES IN DELHI STATE

Table No. 18

		DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON URBAN	DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE
TOTAL POPULATION:		306,938	1,437,134	246,030	914,790	276,314	1,744,072
		167,106	819,432	146,094	516,737	156,601	986,538
		139,832	617,702	99,936	398,053	119,713	757,534
SIKHS:	Total:	14,084	123,012	23,580	76,149	23,283	137,096
	Males:	7,510	69,518	12,255	45,319	11,944	77,028
	Females:	6,574	53,494	11,325	30,830	11,339	60,068
MUSLIMS:	Total:	4,002	95,499	1,310	92,795	1,394	99,501
	Males:	1,788	51,311	650	49,900	761	53,099
	Females:	2,214	44,188	660	42,895	633	46,402
JAINS:	Total:	535	19,639	1,322	17,004	1,313	20,174
	Males:	206	9,710	593	8,537	580	9,916
	Females:	329	9,929	729	8,467	733	10,258
INDIAN CHRISTIANS:	Total:	622	18,063	5,074	4,973	8,012	18,685
	Males:	375	8,643	2,429	2,524	3,690	9,018
	Females:	247	9,420	2,645	2,453	4,322	9,667
BUDDHISTS:	Total:	-	503	14	205	284	503
	Males:	-	384	6	130	248	384
	Females:	-	119	8	75	36	119
ZOROASTRIANS:	Total:	-	164	14	21	129	164
	Males:	-	78	14	13	51	78
	Females:	-	86	-	8	78	86

POPULATION BY RELIGIOUS CLASSIFICATION AND
POSITION OF MINORITIES IN DELHI STATE
(Continued)

Table No. 18
(Cont'd)

		DELHI RURAL	DELHI URBAN	DELHI-NON URBAN CITY	DELHI CITY	NEW DELHI	DELHI STATE
JEWS:	Total:	3	87	4	38	45	90
	Males:	-	55	-	37	18	55
	Females:	3	32	4	1	27	35
HINDUS:	Total:	287,692	1,180,162	214,710	723,598	291,854	1,467,854
	Males:	157,227	679,728	130,145	410,274	189,309	836,955
	Females:	130,465	500,434	84,565	313,324	102,545	630,899

SCHEDULED CASTES AND ANGLO-INDIANS

SCHEDULED CASTES:	Total:	63,993	114,619	17,922	86,520	40,177	208,612
	Males:	38,330	87,535	10,571	45,287	31,677	125,865
	Females:	25,663	57,084	7,351	41,233	8,500	82,747
ANGLO-INDIANS:	Total:	28	784	-	106	678	812
	Males:	1	141	-	54	87	142
	Females:	27	643	-	52	591	670

LANGUAGES SPOKEN AS MOTHER TONGUE IN DELHI STATE, - 1951

Table No. 19

Languages	Speakers		
	Total	Males	Females
<u>Mother Tongues:</u>			
Hindustani*	1,646,476	942,648	703,828
Marathi	19,955	9,127	10,828
Sindhi	15,110	7,319	7,791
Gujrati	14,038	6,677	7,361
Bengali	10,315	956	9,359
Malaylam	9,805	4,890	4,915
Telugu	9,667	5,307	4,360
Tamil	8,745	4,218	4,527
Assamese	4,548	2,066	2,482
Pashto	931	919	12
Kashmiri	411	343	68
Kandi	85	-	85
Bihari	2	2	-
Konkani	1	-	1
<u>Foreign Languages:</u>			
English	3,685	1,869	1,816
Other	298	197	101
Totals	<u>1,744,072</u>	<u>986,538</u>	<u>757,534</u>

*Also includes: Urdu, Kindi, Punjabi, and Pahari

Source: Delhi Census, 1951, D-1 (i), p. 134

LITERACY IN DELHI STATE
RURAL AND URBAN AREAS: 1951

Table No. 20

	TOTAL POPULATION: DELHI STATE			LITERATES			PERCENTAGE		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
TOTAL POPULATION:	1,744,072	986,538	757,534	669,073	424,118	244,955	38%	43%	32%
Rural:	306,938	167,106	139,832	86,497	76,709	9,788	28	46	7
Urban:	1,437,134	819,432	617,702	582,576	347,409	235,167	41	42	38

Source: Delhi District Census Handbook
p. lvii

PROGRESS OF LITERACY SINCE 1931

Table No. 21

Years	POPULATION	LITERATES			PERCENTAGE		
		Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1931	636,246	89,472	73,377	16,095	14.1%	20.0%	6.0%
1941	917,939	229,603	171,233	58,370	25.8	32.0	15.25
1951	1,744,072	669,073	424,118	244,955	38.4	43.0	32.3

Source: Ibid, p. lix

AREA	NUMBER OF SQUATTERS ON PAVEMENTS
1. DELHI MUNICIPAL COMMITTEE	21,642
2. WEST DELHI NOTIFIED AREA COMMITTEE (Now merged with DMC)	1,415
3. CIVIL LINES AREA	4,014
4. NEW DELHI MUNICIPAL COMMITTEE	3,068
5. IMPROVEMENT TRUST AREA	479
6. RED FORT NOTIFIED AREA COMMITTEE	225
7. SHAHDARA MUNICIPAL COMMITTEE	<u>108</u>
TOTAL	27,951

Table No. 22

Source: Rajdhani Weekly - p. 56

A P P E N D I X : B

RELEVANT SECTIONS OF PART C STATES ACT OF 1951

The following are the important Clauses of the Government of Part C States Act 1951:

Article 5 : Duration of Legislative Assemblies: The Legislative Assembly, unless dissolved earlier, shall continue for five years from the date appointed for its first meeting and no longer, and the expiration of the said period of five years shall operate as a dissolution of the Assembly:

Provided that the said period may, while a Proclamation of Emergency issued under clause (1) of article 352 is in operation, be extended by the President by order for a period not exceeding one year at a time and not extending in any case beyond a period of six months after the Proclamation has ceased to operate.

Article 9 : Sessions of the Legislative Assembly, prorogation and dissolution: (1) The Chief Commissioner shall, from time to time, summon the Legislative Assembly to meet at such time and place as he thinks fit, but six months shall not intervene between its last sitting in one session and the date appointed for its first sitting in the next session.

- (2) The Chief Commissioner may, from time to time:
- (a) prorogue the Assembly;
 - (b) dissolve the Assembly.

Article 12 : Right of Chief Commissioner to address and send messages to the Assembly: The Chief Commissioner may address the Assembly and may for this purpose require the attendance of members and he may also send messages to the Assembly whether with respect to a bill then pending in the Assembly or otherwise, and when a message is so sent, the Assembly shall with all convenient dispatch consider any matter required by the message to be taken into consideration.

Article 13 : Rights of the Chief Commissioner and Ministers as respects the Assembly: The Chief Commissioner and every Minister shall have the right to speak in, and otherwise to take part in the proceedings of, the Legislative Assembly of the State, and to speak in, and otherwise to take part in the proceedings of, any committee of the Legislative Assembly of which he may be named a member, but shall not by virtue of this section be entitled to vote.

Article 21 : Extent of legislative power: (1) Subject to the provisions of this Act, the Legislative Assembly of a State may make laws for the whole or any part of the State with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the State List or in the Concurrent List:

Provided that the Legislative Assembly of the State of Delhi shall not have power to make laws with respect to any of the following matters, namely:

- (a) public order;
- (b) police, including railway police;
- (c) the constitution and powers of municipal corporations and other local authorities, of improvement trusts and of water supply, drainage, electricity, transport and other public utility authorities in Delhi or in New Delhi;
- (d) lands and buildings vested in or in the possession of the Union which are situated in Delhi or in New Delhi including all rights in or over such lands and buildings, the collection of rents therefrom and the transfer and alienation thereof;
- (e) offences against laws with respect to any of the matters mentioned in the foregoing clauses;
- (f) jurisdiction and powers of all courts, with respect to any of the said matters; and
- (g) fees in respects of any of the said matters other than fees taken in any court.

(2) Nothing in sub-section (1) shall derogate from the power conferred on Parliament by the Constitution to make laws with respect to any matter for a State or any part thereof.

Article 22 : Inconsistency between laws made by Parliament and laws made by the Legislative Assembly of a State: If any provision of a law made by the Legislative Assembly of a State is repugnant to any provision of a law made by Parliament, then the law made by Parliament, whether passed before or after the law made by the Legislative Assembly of the State, shall prevail and the law made by the Legislative Assembly of the State, shall, to the extent of the repugnancy, be void.

Explanation: For the purposes of this section, the expression "law made by Parliament" shall not include any law which provides for the extension to the State of any law in force in any other part of the territory of India.

Article 23 : Sanction of the Chief Commissioner required for certain legislative proposals: No Bill or amendment shall be introduced into, or moved in, the Legislative Assembly of a State without the previous sanction of the Chief Commissioner, if such Bill or amendment makes provision with respect to any of the following matters, namely:

- (a) constitution and organisation of the court of the Judicial Commissioner.

- (b) jurisdiction and powers of the court of Judicial Commissioner with respect to any of the matters in the State List or in the Concurrent List;
- (c) State Public Service Commission.

Article 24 ; Special provisions as to financial Bills:

(1) A Bill or amendment shall not be introduced into, or moved in, the Legislative Assembly of a State except on the recommendation of the Chief Commissioner, if such Bill or amendment makes provision for any of the following matters, namely:

- (a) the imposition, abolition, remission, alteration, or regulation of any tax;
- (b) the amendment of the law with respect to any financial obligations undertaken or to be undertaken by the State;
- (c) the appropriation of moneys out of the Consolidated Fund of the State;
- (d) the declaring of any expenditure to be expenditure charged on the Consolidated Fund of the State, or the increasing of the amount of any such expenditure;
- (e) the receipt of money on account of the Consolidated Fund of the State or the custody or issue of such money:

Provided that no recommendation shall be required under this sub-section for the moving of an amendment making provision for the reduction or abolition of any tax.

(2) A Bill or amendment shall not be deemed to make provision for any of the matters aforesaid by reason only that it provides for the imposition of fines or other pecuniary penalties, or for the demand or payment of fees for licences or fees for services rendered, or by reason that it provides for the imposition, abolition, remission, alteration or regulation of any tax by any local authority or body for local purposes.

(3) A Bill which, if enacted and brought into operation, would involve expenditure from the Consolidated Fund of the State shall not be passed by the Legislative Assembly of a State unless the Chief Commissioner has recommended to that Assembly the consideration of the Bill.

Article 26 : Assent to Bills: (1) When a Bill has been passed by the Legislative Assembly of a State, it shall be presented to the Chief Commissioner and the Chief Commissioner shall reserve the Bill for the consideration of the President.

(2) When a Bill is reserved by a Chief Commissioner for the consideration of the President, the President shall declare either that he assents to the Bill or that he withholds assent therefrom;

Provided that the President may direct the Chief Commissioner to return the Bill to the Legislative Assembly together with a message requesting that the Assembly will reconsider the Bill or any specified provisions thereof and, in particular, will consider the desirability of introducing any such amendments as he may recommend in his message and, when a Bill is so returned, the Assembly shall reconsider it accordingly within a period of six months from the date of receipt of such message and, if it is again passed by the Assembly with or without amendment, it shall be presented again to the President for his consideration.

Article 27 : Requirements as to sanction and recommendations to be regarded as matters of procedure only: No Act of the Legislative Assembly of a State, and no provision in any such Act, shall be invalid by reason only that some previous sanction or recommendation required by this Act was not given, if assent to that Act was given by the President.

Article 28 : Annual financial statement: (1) The Chief Commissioner of each State shall in respect of every financial year cause to be laid before the Legislative Assembly of the State, with the previous approval of the President, a statement of the estimated receipts and expenditure of the State for that year, in this Part referred to as the "annual financial statement".

(2) The estimates of expenditure embodied in the annual financial statement shall show separately:

(a) the sums required to meet expenditure described by this Act as expenditure charged upon the Consolidated Fund of the State, and

(b) The sums required to meet other expenditure proposed to be made from the Consolidated Fund of the State, and shall distinguish expenditure on revenue account from other expenditure.

(3) The following expenditure shall be expenditure charged on the Consolidated Fund of each State:

(a) the emoluments and allowances of the Chief Commissioner and other expenditure relating to his office as determined by the President by general or special order;

(b) the salaries and allowances of the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the Legislative Assembly;

(c) expenditure in respect of the salaries and allowances of a Judicial Commissioner;

(d) any sums required to satisfy any judgment, decree or award of any court or arbitral tribunal;

(e) any other expenditure declared by the Constitution or by law made by Parliament or by the Legislative Assembly of the State to be so charged.

Article 29 : Procedure in Legislative Assembly with respect to estimates: (1) So much of the estimates as relates to expenditure charged upon the Consolidated Fund of a State shall not be submitted to the vote of the Legislative Assembly of the State, but nothing in this sub-section shall be construed as preventing the discussion in the Legislative Assembly of any of those estimates.

(2) So much of the said estimates as relates to other expenditure shall be submitted in the form of demands for grants to the Legislative Assembly, and the Legislative Assembly shall have power to assent, or to refuse to assent, to any demand, or to assent to any demand subject to a reduction of the amount specified therein.

(3) No demand for a grant shall be made except on the recommendation of the Chief Commissioner.

Article 30 : Appropriation Bills: (1) As soon as may be after the grants under section 29 have been made by the Assembly there shall be introduced a Bill to provide for the appropriation out of the Consolidated Fund of the State of all moneys required to meet:

- (a) the grants so made by the Assembly, and
- (b) the expenditure charged on the Consolidated Fund of the State but not exceeding any case the amount shown in the statement previously laid before the Assembly.

(2) No amendments shall be proposed to any such Bill in the Legislative Assembly which will have the effect of varying the amount or altering the destination of any grant so made or of varying the amount of any expenditure charged on the Consolidated Fund of the State, and the decision of the person presiding as to whether an amendment is inadmissible under this sub-section shall be final.

(3) Subject to the other provisions of this Act, no money shall be withdrawn from the Consolidated Fund of the State except under appropriation made by law passed in accordance with the provisions of this section.

Article 31 : Supplementary, additional or excess grants: (1) The Chief Commissioner shall:

- (a) if the amount authorised by any law made in accordance with the provisions of section 30 to be expended for a particular service for the current financial year is found to be insufficient for the purposes of that year or when a need has arisen during the current financial year for supplementary or additional expenditure upon some new service not contemplated in the annual financial statement for that year, or

- (b) if any money has been spent on any service during a financial year in excess of the amount granted for that service and for that year,

cause to be laid before the Legislative Assembly of the State, with the previous approval of the President, another statement showing the estimated amount of that expenditure or cause to be presented to the Legislative Assembly of the State with such previous approval a demand for such excess, as the case may be.

(2) The provisions of sections 28, 29 and 30 shall have effect in relation to any such statement and expenditure or demand and also to any law to be made authorising the appropriation of moneys out of the Consolidated Fund of the State to meet such expenditure or the grant in respect of such demand as they have effect in relation to the annual financial statement and the expenditure mentioned therein or to a demand for a grant and the law to be made for the authorisation of appropriation of moneys out of the Consolidated Fund of the State to meet such expenditure or grant.

Article 36 : Council of Ministers: (1) There shall be a Council of Ministers in each State with the Chief Minister at the head to aid and advise the Chief Commissioner in the exercise of his functions in relation to matters with respect to which the Legislative Assembly of the State has power to make law except in so far as he is required by any law to exercise any judicial or quasi-judicial functions:

Provided that, in the case of difference of opinion between the Chief Commissioner and his Ministers on any matter, the Chief Commissioner shall refer it to the President for decision and act according to the decision given thereon by the President, and pending such decision it shall be competent for the Chief Commissioner in any case where the matter is in his opinion so urgent that it is necessary for him to take immediate action, to take such action or to give such direction in the matter as he deems necessary:

Provided further that in the State of Delhi every decision taken by a Minister or by the Council in relation to any matter concerning New Delhi shall be subject to the concurrence of the Chief Commissioner, and nothing in this sub-section shall be construed as preventing the Chief Commissioner in case of any difference of opinion between him and his Ministers from taking such action in respect of the administration of New Delhi as he in his discretion considers necessary.

(2) The Chief Commissioner shall, when he is present, preside at meetings of the Council of Ministers, and, when the Chief Commissioner is not present, the Chief Minister or, if he is also not present, such other Minister as may be determined by the rules made under sub-section (1) of section 38., shall preside at meetings of the Council.

(3) If any question arises as to whether any matter is or is not a matter as respects which the Chief Commissioner is required by any law to exercise any judicial or quasi-judicial functions, the decision of the Chief Commissioner thereon shall be final.

(4) If in the State of Delhi any question arises as to whether any matter is or is not a matter concerning New Delhi, the decision of the Chief Commissioner thereon shall be final:

Provided that in case of any difference of opinion between the Chief Commissioner and his Ministers on such question, it shall be referred for the decision of the President and his decision shall be final.

(5) The question whether any, and if so, what advice was tendered by Ministers to the Chief Commissioner shall not be inquired into in any court.

Article 37 : Other provisions as to Ministers:

(1) The Chief Minister shall be appointed by the President and the other Ministers shall be appointed by the President on the advice of the Chief Minister.

(2) The Ministers shall hold office during the pleasure of the President.

(3) The Council of Ministers shall be collectively responsible to the Legislative Assembly of the State.

(4) Before a Minister enters upon his office, the Chief Commissioner shall administer to him the oaths of office and of secrecy according to the forms set out for the purpose in the Fourth Schedule.

(5) A Minister who for any period of six consecutive months is not a member of the Legislative Assembly of the State shall at the expiration of that period cease to be a Minister.

(6) The salaries and allowances of Ministers shall be such as the Legislative Assembly of the State may from time to time by law determine, and, until the Legislative Assembly so determines, shall be determined by the Chief Commissioner with the approval of the President.

Article 38 ; Conduct of business: (1) The President shall make rules

- (a) for the allocation of business to the Ministers;
- (b) for the more convenient transaction of business with the Ministers, including the procedure to be adopted in the case of a difference of opinion between the Chief Commissioner and the Council of Ministers or a Minister and in relation to any matter concerning New Delhi.

(2) All executive action of the Chief Commissioner, whether taken on the advice of his Ministers or otherwise, shall be expressed to be taken in the name of the Chief Commissioner.

(3) Orders and other instruments made and executed in the name of the Chief Commissioner shall be authenticated in such manner as may be specified in rules to be made by the Chief Commissioner and the validity of an order or instrument which is so authenticated shall not be called in question on the ground that it is not an order or instrument made or executed by the Chief Commissioner.

Article 39 ; Consolidated Fund of the State:

(1) As from the first day of April, 1952, in the case of any of the States of Ajmer, Bhopal, Coorg, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh and Vindhya Pradesh, and as from such date as may be appointed in this behalf by the Central Government by notification in the Official Gazette in the case of any other State, all revenues received in that State by the Government of India or the Chief Commissioner in relation to any matter with respect to which the Legislative Assembly of that State has power to make laws, and all grants made from the Consolidated Fund of India to that State shall form one Consolidated Fund to be entitled "the Consolidated Fund of the State".

(2) No moneys out of the Consolidated Fund of a State shall be appropriated except in accordance with, and for the purposes and in the manner provided in, this Act:

Provided that the balance standing at any time at the credit of the Consolidated Fund of a State shall not be less than such amount as the President may by order specify.

(3) The custody of the Consolidated Fund of a State, the payments of moneys into such Fund, the withdrawal of moneys therefrom and all other matters connected with or ancillary to those matters shall be regulated by rules made by the Chief Commissioner with the approval of the President.

Article 40 : Relation of Chief Commissioner and his Ministers to the President: Notwithstanding anything in the foregoing provisions of this Act, the Chief Commissioner and his Council of Ministers shall be under the general control of, and comply with such particular directions, if any, as may from time to time, be given by the President.

Article 41 : Provision in case of failure of constitutional machinery: If the President, on receipt of a report from the Chief Commissioner of a State or otherwise, is satisfied that a situation has arisen in which the administration of the State cannot be carried on in accordance with the provisions of this Act, the President may, by order, suspend the operation of all or any of the foregoing provisions of this Act for such period as he thinks fit and make such incidental and consequential provisions as may appear to him to be necessary or expedient for administering the State in accordance with the provisions of article 239.

Article 43 : Power of the President to remove difficulties: If any difficulty arises in giving effect to the provisions of this Act and, in particular, in relation to the constitution of the Legislative Assembly of any State, the President may by order do anything not inconsistent with such provisions which appear to him to be necessary or expedient for the purpose of removing the difficulty.

A P P E N D I X : C :

LIST OF MAPS AND DRAWINGS

- 1 - Map showing the 'seven cities of Delhi'.
- 2 - Map showing the Population by villages, towns etc.,
- 3 - Map showing location of new colonies for 'displaced population', and by private real estate developers.
- 4 - Maps showing the boundries of various municipal units in the urban area of Delhi State,
- 5 - Map showing location of important public activity (location of Government of India offices, University, colleges, business areas and factory areas).

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