

UNEQUAL REALITIES

Identity, Housing and
Basic Services in
Six Indian Cities
2018



SUGGESTED CITATION

Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action. (2019).

Unequal Realities: Identity, Housing and Basic Services in Six Indian Cities, 2018.

City Say. Mumbai: India.

PUBLISHED BY:

Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action (YUVA)

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India

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Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action (YUVA) is a non-profit development organisation committed to enabling vulnerable groups to access their rights and address human rights violations. YUVA supports the formation of people's collectives that engage in the discourse on development, thereby ensuring self-determined and sustained collective action in communities. This work is complemented with advocacy and policy recommendations on issues.

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PUBLISHED BY:

Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action (YUVA)
YUVA Centre, Sector 7, Plot 23, Kharghar, Navi Mumbai – 410210 (India)
January 2019

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ABBREVIATIONS

AMRUT	Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation	MCGM	Municipal Corporation of Greater Mumbai
APL	Above Poverty Line	MMRDA	Mumbai Metropolitan Region Development Authority
BLC	Beneficiary Led Construction	NMC	Nagpur Municipal Corporation
BMC	Brihanmumbai Municipal Corporation	NSDP	National Slum Development Programme
BSFC	Basic Service Facilitation Centre	NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
BSUP	Basic Services for Urban Poor	PAN	Permanent Account Number
CBSE	Central Board of Secondary Examination	PDS	Public Distribution System
CIDCO	City and Industrial Development Corporation	PHC	Primary Healthcare Centre
EWS	Economically Weaker Section	PMAY	Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana
GDP	Gross Domestic Product	R&R	Rehabilitation and Resettlement
GMC	Guwahati Municipal Corporation	RAY	Rajiv Awas Yojana
ICDS	Integrated Child Development Scheme	SBM	Swachh Bharat Mission
ICSE	Indian Certificate of Secondary Education	SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
IMC	Indore Municipal Corporation	SRA	Slum Rehabilitation Authority
JNNURM	Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission	ULB	Urban Local Body

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FOREWORD

The dominant development paradigm in post-colonial India concentrated upon infrastructure development, construction of big dams, the establishment of heavy industries and the acceleration of mining and mineral appropriation for the 'growth' and 'development' of the country. The paradigm and concomitant governmental policies resulted in large-scale displacement of people from rural to urban areas.

With the liberalisation of the economy, the pace of urbanisation has accelerated in the last three decades. However, the lived experiences of different sections of people residing in Indian cities are varied and uneven. A large segment of people are engaged in urban informal work who experience lack of housing and shelter, water, sanitation, health, education, social security and livelihood on a recurring basis.

One of the most visible expressions of urban poverty in India is the proliferation of informal settlements. As a reflection of asymmetrical social reality, the experiences of people living in informal settlements lays bare the inequitable experiences in accessing housing and essential services. Their experiences to claim social citizenship and enjoy the right to the city are marred with the contention around identity and status. Characterised mostly as the urban poor, the vast majority of them are migrants from different parts of the country. They invariably live in slums, squatters and pavements in squalid conditions and expose the paradox of urbanisation. The hierarchical spatiality is quite discernible in the cityscape of various cities in India; visible through the fragmentation and segregation.

To understand the nuances of socio-spatial division that influences the life and circumstances of people living in informal settlements, Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action (YUVA) embarked upon a journey

of empirical exploration in select cities. Based on several decades of engagement with informal settlements in Mumbai and experiences of running Basic Service Facilitation Centres in inadequate settlements in the cities of Mumbai, Navi Mumbai, Nagpur, Indore, Bhubaneswar and Guwahati, the idea and conceptualisation of the research study took shape. This multi-city study undertaken by YUVA brings forth the complex nature of 'social citizenship' under the neoliberal economic influence. The report highlights that the statist conception and articulation of legality and illegality of settlement and habitat has implications for security of tenure and access to basic services such as water supply, sanitation, infrastructure, and electricity. Despite specific policies and programmes for urban development in place, the report succinctly highlights that people living in non-notified slums lack security of tenure and are less likely to receive municipal services and access to government schemes.

In the backdrop of diverse trajectories of urban policies and varied socio-economic, political and demographic realities, the selected cities for the study represent various stages of urbanisation and its consequences on people living in informal settlements. By blending both quantitative and qualitative approaches, the study critically analyses accessibility to basic services among inadequate settlements, and in a rehabilitation and resettlement (R&R) site. Drawing from decades of direct work and engagement with communities, supported by empirical research exploration, YUVA's study elucidates the deepening inequality and divide in the urban. The study finds that the divide is often manifested through inadequate or differentiated access to water, electricity, sanitation, housing and basic legal entitlements for dignified living. Despite tall claims by authorities, the findings

of the study highlight that access to education, health services and subsidised food under the Food Security Act is a far cry for people living in the informal settlements.

The report provides a valuable source of information and insights about identity and access to housing and basic services in Indian cities. It contributes towards knowing urban realities from below. Non-profits, community-based organisations, the government and others can use the findings and the recommendations made in the study for dialogue and engagement towards ensuring a dignified life for marginalised people living in informal settlements.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

OVERVIEW

With 31 per cent of India's total population currently living in urban areas (Census of India, 2011) urbanisation is increasing at a fast pace and scale in the country. The number of urban centres has increased by 2,775 since the last Census (from 5,161 in 2001 to 7,936 in 2011). This rise is particularly visible in the number of million plus cities that have grown from 35 in 2001 to 53 in 2011, accounting for 43 per cent of India's urban population. The Report of the High Power Expert Committee (2011) estimated that by 2031 India will have over 87 metropolitan areas and the country's urban population is likely to soar over 600 million, adding approximately 225 million more to the urban population.

Although there is growth in the urban, both in terms of economic contribution and population, the delivery of urban infrastructure and basic services has been inadequate, especially for a vast majority who live in informal settlements. Urban poverty is widely experienced by those from economically weaker sections (EWS), migrating to cities in search of better living and livelihood opportunities.

According to the Census 2011, in India 65 million people live in urban slums¹ and 59 per cent of these slums are 'non-notified' or lack legal recognition from the government. While the government of India has implemented flagship programmes to foster holistic development in the urban, these schemes have largely failed to assure a decent quality of life for the marginalised. The divide between notified slums (recognised by the government) and non-notified slums (which lack recognition) is visible in terms

of the severity of deprivation noticed in the latter. Settlements which are non-notified, where people lack security of tenure, are less likely to receive municipal services and access to government schemes and carry the tag of illegality with them. This study is an attempt to bring to light the extent of deprivation across notified and non-notified settlements and also those living in state-provided rehabilitation and resettlement (R&R) colonies.

In some states, the notified status confers basic security of tenure, including the right to rehabilitation in the event of displacement-for-development projects. In addition, notification authorises residents of slums to access services such as water supply, sanitation, and basic infrastructure. The availability of these services largely contributes to the differences visible between notified and non-notified slums (Nolan, Bloom and Subbaraman, 2017).

Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action (YUA) published Identity, Housing and Basic Services in Four Indian Cities (2016) to bring to light the link between identity documents, access to basic services and housing. Identity, Housing and Basic Services in Six Indian Cities (2018) takes forward these findings, supplemented by community narratives. The study aims to create an evidence-based report on the status of access to legal entitlements and basic services in various types of inadequate settlements across six cities (Mumbai, Navi Mumbai, Nagpur, Indore, Bhubaneswar and Guwahati). The household surveys as well as case studies documented provide detailed accounts on these thematic.

1 / Though we prefer to use the word 'basti' in place of 'slum' we have kept to this terminology as it is more widely used

YUVA runs Basic Service Facilitation Centres (BSFCs) in inadequate settlements or slums in the cities of Mumbai, Navi Mumbai and Nagpur (Maharashtra), Indore (Madhya Pradesh), Bhubaneswar (Odisha) and Guwahati (Assam) to empower the urban poor and facilitate their access to legal entitlements and basic services, contributing to the improvement of the Human Development Index. For this report, 1,232 urban slum households in five cities, i.e., Mumbai, Navi Mumbai, Nagpur, Bhubaneswar and Guwahati were selected. Additionally, detailed case studies on access to basic services were documented in an R&R colony in Indore. This was done with the aim to focus on issues in access across various habitats and contexts.

The cities selected as samples differ when it comes to socio-economic, cultural, demographic and political dynamics and they also represent distinct stages of

urbanisation. Over the years, these cities developed in different phases and specific approaches towards the process of development have also been different among them. The sample size selected for the study cannot holistically depict or represent the status of basic service accessibility and entitlements in each of the cities, but can indicate larger trends of accessibility to basic services among inadequate settlements, and in R&R sites.

Data was collected from primary as well as secondary sources. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods have been used. The quantitative method used is household surveys in slums and the qualitative method used is case studies of communities living in R&R sites. Additionally, an analysis of secondary data has also been done.

KEY FINDINGS

The study revealed the following key findings:

1. **No guarantee of land ownership among non-notified slum residents:** The data revealed that none of the residents living in non-notified slums have ownership over the land where they have been living for years.
2. **Despite notification, no adequate access to basic services:** The legal status of the slum is a key deterministic factor for slum residents to get access to basic services but not the only factor. The case of Bhubaneswar reflects the same. Despite some slums in the city being notified, there is hardly any visible difference when compared to the non-notified slums (except for legal recognition).
3. **The issue of drinking water and its visible lack of access persists:** Another trend prominent across surveyed city slums was that most of the slum residents do not have access to clean drinking water. They have to purchase drinking water from private sources, paying up to INR 200 on a monthly basis. For example, in Mumbai 99.3 per cent of the surveyed households purchase water for drinking and other requirements.
4. **Open defecation is not limited to slums:** In the surveyed slums, people continue to defecate in the open. This is also the case for people living in the R&R site of Bhuri Tekri, in Indore, where toilet infrastructure exists but there is no water supply. The residents of this R&R site are forced to defecate in the open to prevent blocking the drainage system. In cities like Guwahati, 18.8 per cent surveyed households defecate in the open. In Mumbai, 22 per cent of surveyed slum households openly defecate due to lack of access to toilets.
5. **Legal access to electricity is questionable:** In slums across cities, a considerable number of surveyed households mentioned that they do not have legal electricity connections. Those who have electricity meters in their name often let others (who do not have meter connections) borrow electricity from them, and this is how most of them secure electricity connections. Only a miniscule percentage households have legal connections. In R&R sites, the case study narratives reveal that despite access to legal electricity connections, load-shedding is frequent

and there are times when there is no electricity for weeks.

6. **The absence of legal entitlements denies access to basic services and tenure security:** The lack of access to basic services is linked to the absence of legal entitlement documents. In their daily struggle to earn a living, taking time from work to procure legal documents has often been a long, cumbersome and corruption-ridden procedure.
7. **Access to good quality and regular ration (food subsidy) is a distant reality:** Ration (food subsidy) is available but in the surveyed cities it is not regular. The quality of ration received is poor, especially of rice—this is a common concern in almost all the surveyed cities. Some of the surveyed slum households, specifically those in Mumbai and Nagpur, are unable to access ration as their legal entitlement documents have their native village address, from where they have migrated. Given the peripheral location of the R&R sites, the distance to the ration shop raises accessibility concerns.

8. **Access does not define functionality or speedy service delivery in primary healthcare centres (PHCs) and municipal hospitals:** When the surveyed slum residents were asked whether municipal hospitals or PHCs are accessible, most responded with a 'yes'. When asked in detail, they mentioned that doctors and pharmacists at PHCs are not responsive and irregular (seen in the case of Bhubaneswar, Mumbai, Guwahati) and service delivery is slow. Those living in R&R sites mentioned that reaching municipal hospitals is difficult given the distance, service delivery is slow and often patients who come from poor economic backgrounds are ignored. The word 'access' indicates the way in or entry, but does not imply functionality, affordability and service delivery.
9. **R&R colonies rank low on accessibility to services:** The case studies of the R&R site in Bhuri Tekri, Indore reflect the existence of weak infrastructural facilities and lack of implementation of basic services.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the key findings, the recommendations proposed are:

1. **Ensure guarantee of secure and adequate habitat:** Access to land and security of tenure are strategic prerequisites for the provision of adequate shelter for all and for the development of sustainable human settlements. The central and state governments should bring in institutional reforms and legislative measures to augment tenure security.
2. **Strengthen urban local bodies (ULBs):** State governments should play a significant role to facilitate the ULBs, providing an enabling environment for their functioning as effective units of self-governance at the local level. The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act envisages that the functions of urban poverty alleviation and improvement of slums and their upgradation, including the provisioning of urban basic amenities to the poor should be focused on by the municipalities. City-specific urban poverty reduction plans need to be prepared by the ULBs and fund release should be demand driven.
3. **Bolster participatory planning process through 74th Constitutional Amendment Act:** Planning for citizens should be for the people and by the people. Participatory planning should be a prerequisite for any endeavour for urban renewal. The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act should be implemented in its true spirit.
4. **Municipal governments should provide comprehensive information on services and welfare schemes:** Easily accessible and comprehensive information on welfare schemes, basic services and time limits for approvals should be provided by local governments.
5. **Enable universalisation of access to water and sanitation in urban areas:** Every citizen should be provided with safe drinking and household-use water along with a clean toilet, sewerage, storm

water drainage and solid waste management facilities. The provisioning of basic water and sanitation should be de-linked from issues of land tenure and legal status. An integrated network of regular water supply and provision for treatment of sewage should be built in settlements. Proper arrangements should be made for collection and treatment of waste. Basic sanitation facilities, including construction of toilets, should be done irrespective of the legal status of the settlement.

6. **Sync between central schemes and state and municipal level implementation:** Although the major flagship schemes such as Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (PMAY) and Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM) elaborate on provisions for the urban poor, the stigmatisation of the marginalised by the authorities is a barrier in enabling such access. For example, although PMAY scheme guidelines mention in-situ rehabilitation for slums situated on central government land, this has been completely ignored by the State, citing their ineligibility as they are situated on Railways land. Similarly, SBM allows construction of toilets in non-notified slums, but this has been ignored by the state authorities. Independent monitoring committees should be set up at the local and state level and these bodies should include participation from beneficiaries. The problem in the cities is not of paucity of schemes/policies but that of lack of convergence between central schemes and municipal implementation.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 INCREASING URBANISATION

India is witnessing an unprecedented pace and scale of urbanisation. The degree of urbanisation or the percentage share of urban population to total population stood at 10.3 per cent in 1911. In 1951, about 17.3 per cent of the population lived in cities and towns. The figure steadily increased to 23.3 per cent in 1981, 25.7 per cent in 1991 and reached 27.8 per cent in 2001. The level of urbanisation was 31.16 per cent in 2011 (Census of India, 2011).

As the population is increasing, the delivery of urban infrastructure and basic services has fallen short, and is insufficient in providing citizens with a decent quality of life. Urban India is underserved in terms of basic utilities, suffers from inadequate housing stock and is

highly congested and polluted. The National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) in its report 'India - Housing Condition Survey' (58th Round) says that while service deprivations are commonly observed in cities and towns, the extent of deprivation is higher in slum and squatter settlements.

Therefore, within the context of urban development, there is a case to be made for the centrality of basic services, especially for the urban poor, because lack of these services in informal settlements exposes one to the structural violence of poverty, its severity and associated complexities of despair and deprivation—relative or absolute—which constitute violation of universal human rights.

1.2 THE UNDERSERVED

Census 2011 elaborates on the definition of slums as:

1. Notified slums are areas in a town or city declared as such under any statute including Slum Acts.
2. Recognised slums may not be notified under statutes but are acknowledged and categorised as slums by State or local authorities.
3. Identified slums are areas with at least 300 residents or about 60–70 households of poorly built congested tenements, in unhygienic environments usually with inadequate infrastructure and lacking in proper sanitary and drinking water facilities that are identified by the charge officer and inspected by a nominated officer by the Directorate of Census Operations.
4. A non-notified slum is one which not notified as per the Census definition, and can be regarded as part of the 'non-slum' category.

The Census 2011 data on slums reflects that 34 per cent were notified, 29 per cent recognised and 37 per cent identified. The largest category, therefore, constitutes that of identified slums. The Census enumeration of a 'slum' is questionable due to its exclusionary nature. Contrast this to the NSSO 65th round (2008–09) definition of the slum as a cluster of 20 or more households, which is nearly a third of the '60–70 household' cut-off that Census 2011 uses. This significant shift has led to major under counting of slums in India. Indian cities, especially the larger urban centres, have seen increasing cases of eviction and displacement of the urban poor. Contemporary evictions have also been accompanied by particularly low rates of resettlement (Bhan and Jana, 2013).

After an eviction, the households that often find themselves most vulnerable are those which do not qualify for resettlement (specifically residents of non-notified slums and the homeless), those who lack resources and those who are unable to survive

in peripheral rehabilitation and resettlement (R&R) colonies—most of these households are then rendered homeless or persist in deeply vulnerable and scattered accommodations, such as clusters of households along a railway line, behind a stadium, living in open space between buildings, etc. Such households are not covered under the Census and this is due to their exclusion from the ‘slum’ definition and generalisation in the ‘non-slum’ category (Ibid).

We need to look at spatialisation of poverty in Indian cities by separating the ‘slum’ from the ‘poor’ and what this separation means for delivery of urban services, social security benefits and shelter. The marginality associated with slums seem to be largely prevalent in the officially unrecognised non-slum households as well. Although several government and mainstream media reports emphasise on improvements and access to amenities and services in the slums, we must nuance the category of access as well as insist on consideration of quality of service delivery. Scholars have noted the ‘poverty premium’

for services where poor households pay a significantly larger percentage of their monthly income for basic services. Additionally, access to basic services may have improved in certain cases but it is also important to assess regularity and quality of supply, particularly within households supplied with illegal connections (Ibid).

Additionally, cities (specifically metropolitan cities) are spatially unequal in different degrees, reflecting the failure of effective urban governance. The most decentralised unit of urban governance, i.e., wards have never become operationally or politically important units of governance, indicating the failure of the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act. Data alone cannot make wards important units of urban governance. This can be possible only if central and state schemes move towards tracking implementation of projects and outcomes at the ward-level and such a move can act as a primary vision to reduce the high scale of exclusion of the urban poor (Bhan and Jana, 2015)

1.3 SCHEMES AND PROGRAMMES OVER THE YEARS

Many urban development programmes were started in the mid-fifties, launched by the Central Government but subsequently transferred to the states. Several State Governments started such programmes on their own at different points of time. Some major schemes and programmes implemented include, Urban Community Development, Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums, National Slum Development Programme (NSDP), Integrated Low Cost Sanitation Scheme, etc.

In the seventies and early eighties, the government emphasised the notion of ‘slum free cities’ (Buckley et al., 2005). What this often meant was forced or voluntary resettlement of slums from central areas of these cities. However, over time, the weaknesses of such a programme became evident. The Task Forces on Urban Development (Planning Commission, 2012) also pointed out that all formal housing schemes of the government are ‘way beyond the means of the economically weaker sections and low income groups and there is insufficient evidence that the urban poor have benefited from these’. Also, the resource

requirement for such housing schemes for the poor would be enormous. Accordingly, in the eighties, the government came up with programmes for providing only water supply, sanitation and a few other facilities.

It was only in the late nineties that the Government’s focus shifted from merely providing a few basic services to planning a holistic and focused policy towards slum development. Along with physical and social development programmes, poverty alleviation programmes were sponsored by the Central Government in the urban areas. In 1996, the NSDP was launched for the upgradation of urban slums by providing physical amenities like water supply, storm water drains, sewer, community latrines, widening and paving of existing lanes, street lights etc. and social infrastructure such as pre-school, non-formal and adult education facilities, maternity, child health and primary healthcare, including immunisation, etc. This was followed by the launch of Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana in 1997, after subsuming existing schemes like Nehru Rozgar Yojana, Urban Basic Services for the Poor, and Prime Minister’s Integrated

Urban Poverty Eradication Programme as part of the poverty alleviation programme of the government and Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana for slum upgradation.

NSDP was subsumed under Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM), which was launched on 3 December 2005 to give focused attention to integrated development of urban infrastructure and services in 63 select cities, with an emphasis on the provision of basic services to the urban poor. A provision of INR 50,000 crore was made as reform-linked central assistance over the Mission period of seven years, beginning 2005–06 (Planning Commission, 2012). Although the Mission was credited for being the first to allot huge financial resources along with provisions for reducing urban poverty in a holistic manner and brought issues of the urban poor to the forefront, it was criticised for

restricted reach and delay in implementation and lack of sufficient capacity and capability at the State and urban local body (ULB) level to develop and execute projects. Currently, the Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs is running a host of programmes to facilitate the provisioning of housing and basic amenities through its flagship programmes such as Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (PMAY), Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM) and Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT), but a close examination of the implementation of these schemes reflects the same gaps that plagued its predecessor, the JNNURM. Slow physical and financial progress, lack of citizen engagement and destruction of informal settlements in the name of development are projecting these Missions as programmes against poor people rather than against poverty.

YEAR	PROGRAMME NAME
1958	Urban Community Development
1972	Environmental Improvement of Urban Slums
1981	Low Cost Sanitation for Liberation of Scavengers
1986	Urban Basic Services
1989	Nehru Rozgar Yojana
1990	Urban Basic Services for the Poor
1995	Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme
1996	National Slum Development Programme
1997	Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana
2005	Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission
2011	Rajiv Awas Yojana
2013	National Urban Livelihood Mission
2014	Swachh Bharat Mission (Urban)
2015	Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (Urban)
2015	Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation

Table 1.1 | India's urban poverty alleviation and urban development programmes

1.4 RECOGNISING ALL ASPECTS OF URBANISATION

The proliferation of slums and the widening of the income inequality gap are evidence enough to prove the failure of erstwhile schemes, be it at the level of policy conception or implementation. The truth is that 'the urban poor are trapped in an informal and illegal world—in slums that are not reflected on maps, where waste is not collected, where taxes are not paid and

where public services are not provided. Officially, they do not exist'. In majority cases, residents of slums exist outside of the law where they live and work. They are not able to access most of the formal institutions of society, and lacking a legal address they are often unable to access social services. (United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2003).

According to the report of the Steering Committee on Urbanisation (2012–2017), Planning Commission, 'the slum and informal settlements are potential and viable entry points for addressing the visible manifestations of poverty in cities and towns. They are identifiable, and although outside of the legal system, have acquired stability, and have vast amount of potential currently constrained by distorted and exclusionary policies'. Significantly, the NSSO data shows that

55 per cent slum residents have been living in slum settlements for over 15 years and another 12 per cent between 10–15 years, establishing that slums are an integral part of the phenomenon of urbanisation, and are contributing significantly to the economy of cities by being a source of affordable labour supply for production both in the formal and informal sectors of the economy but are a reflection of the exclusionary socio-economic policies and planning in the country.

1.5 UNDERSTANDING URBAN CONCENTRATION IN SAMPLE CITIES

India is faced with a real urbanisation challenge. The annual growth in urban population in India between 2010–2015 was 1.1 per cent, the highest among major economies according to the United Nations World Urbanisation Prospects 2014 report. Indian cities already contribute more than 62 per cent to our national gross domestic product (GDP). While the government talks about Smart Cities, the reality of India's urbanisation is a web of increasing inequalities and powerless local authorities (Bhunia, 2017). For the purpose of this study we have taken into consideration the following cities:

I) MUMBAI

With approximately 28,000 people per sq. km. (73,000 per square mile), Mumbai is one of the most densely populated cities in the world. It is also one of the wealthiest cities in India, accounting for 25 per cent of industrial output and 70 per cent of maritime trade. The city is the commercial and financial hub of India. It is interesting to note that 62 per cent of all Mumbaiers live in slums, with absolute numbers reaching nine million plus. Mumbai as a city is characterised by rapid growth and inequality, with soaring real estate prices and a significant increase of investments in construction and transportation projects. Mumbai has been constantly evolving as a global city but, contradictorily, the extent of housing disparity and unplanned growth clearly affects the city's overall productivity. The urban poor and the homeless are struggling in the city to meet the increasing demand for access to basic services (Kamdar, 2014). The study will further explore in details the conditions of the marginalised in the city.

II) NAVI MUMBAI

Located close to Mumbai, Navi Mumbai is characterised by burgeoning population size and uncontrolled development. This area is also regarded as a budding industrial belt which, over the years, has started offering job opportunities of every conceivable kind, drawing in engineers, mechanics, clerks, peons and others. With a large population of job seekers migrating to Navi Mumbai, its urban/metropolitan population is 18,394,912 (Census of India, 2011). Although Navi Mumbai is a planned city, that aimed to provide housing for households of various income groups, one can locate slum pockets in the city and these slum residents have little or no access to basic services.

III) NAGPUR

Nagpur, the 'Orange City', is currently emerging as a prominent trading and commercial hub. As per Census (2011) the urban/metropolitan regional population of Nagpur is 2,497,870. Nagpur has grown to be the fourth most urban populous district located in the state of Maharashtra. Slum mapping by the Nagpur Municipal Corporation in 2011 revealed that there are 8,58,983 people living in 447 slums (The Times of India, 2011). Of these, 64 per cent are notified slums, 31 per cent are non-notified, and 5 per cent are newly developed slum pockets (Government of India, Ministry of Urban Development, 2015). Most of the economically weak migrant population in the city engages in informal sector work. Initially, urbanisation in Nagpur was comparatively low, but now with increase in industrial growth the population of the region has been expanding rapidly. This high

concentration of urban population has resulted in significant densification of the city, which affects urban service delivery, especially with respect to housing.

IV) INDORE

According to Census 2011, the urban/metropolitan region population of Indore is 10,42,385. With the city's urban growth one can witness growth of slum residents in the urban space, rapid changes in land use patterns and lack of management of resources. Today, 35 per cent of the city's population lives in slums and another 15 per cent in unauthorised colonies without any adequate infrastructure, prone to rampant demolitions (Sukumaran, 1999).

V) BHUBANESWAR

Bhubaneswar, located in Odisha, has a population of 8,86,397 in the urban/metropolitan region. This city is also characterised by rapid urbanisation which has immensely altered the land use pattern in the city. The slum population in the city is 1,63,983, i.e., 16 per cent of the total population (Census of India, 2011). The city has over 500 slum settlements and most of them, i.e., 75 per cent are unauthorised. Majority slums in Bhubaneswar are on Central and State Government land. As a result, none of the settlements have any occupancy documents. The government rehabilitation sites are located extremely far away from the city which has, in turn, affected the livelihood of the urban poor and their access to basic services is also limited (YUVA and IIHS, 2017).

VI) GUWAHATI

Urbanisation in Guwahati has changed the city from its traditional rural character to an emerging urban centre. As per Census 2011 the urban/metropolitan region population is 9,62,334. The city is also home to innumerable migrant poor living in the urban slums located mostly on Railway land.

CHAPTER 2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study attempts to unravel and highlight issues and hurdles that the urban poor face with respect to access to different types of legal identity documents, housing and basic services in the cities of Mumbai, Navi Mumbai, Nagpur, Indore, Bhubaneswar and

Guwahati. It aims to examine linkages between identity, marginalisation and habitat along the housing continuum and to draw conclusions that can help promote a better quality of life for the urban poor.

2.2 METHODOLOGY

The study uses a mixed methodology. Quantitative and qualitative data has been collected from the field and analysed, with the former substantiated by the latter.

Primary data, collected from YUVA's intervention fields, has been further substantiated with secondary data (information from the National Sample Survey Organisation [NSSO], census reports, newspapers, articles etc.)

The research methods used include:

1. **Participant observation:** This was done by the data collection team. Their observations of the community and their conditions of living were noted while collecting the data.

2. **Household survey:** This was conducted with the help of a structured questionnaire. Door-to-door survey of each sample household living in the slums was covered through this survey. The household surveys were conducted in five cities, namely, Nagpur, Mumbai, Navi Mumbai, Bhubaneswar and Guwahati.
3. **Case studies:** This was to record experiences of the urban poor community. The documentation of case studies helped present a microscopic view of the experience of people within the rehabilitation and resettlement (R&R) colony of Bhuri Tekri in Indore, representative of typical characteristics of urban exclusion.

The research tool used was a structured questionnaire prepared for the household surveys and a case study checklist for documentation of the case studies.

2.3 SAMPLING

Considering the difference (households and population size) in the surveyed cities, it was necessary to select a rational sample size that can be representative of the population in different cities.

From each of the four cities (Nagpur, Guwahati, Indore and Navi Mumbai) a 40 per cent sample was selected from across five non-notified slums (per city). Since

the slums selected in Mumbai have a much larger population, a multistage sampling method was used whereby a 20 per cent sample set was selected, across two non-notified slums in Mumbai. For the purpose of a comparative analysis we have also taken into consideration 40 per cent (in 3 informal settlements) and 20 per cent (in 1 informal settlement) sample set across four notified slums in Bhubaneswar.

The sample selection procedure that has been followed is simple random sampling whereby samples were selected based on the understanding of the slum, with adequate representation of the population living in the slum. Additionally, a degree of heterogeneity

was taken into consideration while selecting the samples. The method of sampling followed was also guided by the practical limitations of time and resources.

	NAME OF THE CITIES AND SLUMS	NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS	TOTAL POPULATION	SAMPLE (40%)	MULTISTAGE SAMPLING (20%)
1	NAGPUR				
a)	South of Indira Mata Nagar	93	651	37.2	
b)	Bhimwadi	136	750	54.4	
c)	New Pilli Nadi (NE of Kalamna)	45	250	18	
d)	New Pilli Nadi (South)	87	610	34.8	
e)	South Dhamadeep Nagar	78	550	31.2	
	Total			175.6	
2	GUWAHATI				
a)	Bhootnath	150	1,150	60	
b)	Shivnagar	100	500	40	
c)	Madhabpur	65	300	26	
d)	Bhorolomukh	50	300	20	
e)	Uzanbazar	180	950	72	
	Total			218	
3	BHUBANESWAR				
a)	Janta Lodgeside Basti	40	164	16	
b)	Mali Sahi Basti	40	130	16	
c)	PHD Campus Basti	66	243	26.4	
d)	Santipally FCI Colony	944	3,575	377.6 (378)	75.52 (76)
	Total			436	
4	MUMBAI				
a)	Janta Nagar - Mandala	1,469	7,032	587.6 (588)	117.52 (118)
b)	Ambujwadi	3,317	15,088	1,326.8 (1,326.9)	265.36 (266)
	Total			1,914.4 (1,914)	382.88 (383)
5	NAVI MUMBAI				
a)	Tata Nagar	182	764	72.8	
b)	Jaidurgamata Nagar	153	722	61.2	
c)	Balatubai Nagar	96	359	38.4	
d)	Anand Nagar	159	684	63.6	
e)	Panchashil Nagar 1, 2	173	1,063	69.2	
	Total		3,592	305.2 (305)	
	TOTAL SAMPLES (5 CITIES)		36,835	3,049.2 (3,049)	458.4 (484)

Table 2.1 | City-wise sampling

CHAPTER 3

BHUBANESWAR

In Bhubaneswar, there are 436 recognised slum settlements (identified by Bhubaneswar Municipal Corporation) of which 320 (73 per cent) are unauthorised and 116 (27 per cent) are authorised. The settlements that qualify as notified or authorised slums in the city, range from villages that were incorporated into urban limits over the years to government-built resettlement sites under recent schemes. The inhabitants of these settlements are entitled to have rightful claim over the land and dwelling units and for most parts these settlements are not in violation of land use, which is not applicable for unauthorised slums (YUVA and IIHS, 2017). Even though the residents of 'authorised' slums have legal recognition, data reflects that they do not have

adequate access to basic services. In Bhubaneswar, the survey was conducted in four notified slums, namely, Janta Lodgeside Basti, Mali Sahi Basti, Santipally FCI Colony and PHD Campus Basti.

Among the participants, 54.5 per cent were female and 45.5 per cent were male. 77.6 per cent participants have completed education upto standard 10. Around 19 per cent participants were homemakers, 17 per cent self-employed, 16 per cent daily wage labourers, 16 per cent domestic workers, 11 per cent in the service sector, and the rest engaged in small-scale business (as drivers, construction workers) to earn their livelihood.

NAME OF SAMPLED SLUMS	LAND OWNERSHIP	TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS	SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS (40% AND 20% OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS)
Janta Lodgeside Basti	General Administration and Private	40	16 (40%)
Mali Sahi Basti	Municipal Corporation	40	16 (40%)
Santipally FCI Colony	General Administration	944	378/76 (20%)
PHD Campus Basti	Public Health Department	66	26 (40%)
TOTAL		1990	134

Table 3.1 | Sample set - Bhubaneswar

3.1 ACCESS TO HOUSING AND LAND

98.3 per cent of the slum residents surveyed live in their own house in the slums and 6.7 per cent live in rented houses. However, no slum resident has ownership of land, including those who have their own houses.

Almost all residents of the surveyed notified slums had applied for a house under Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY) but they have not received any housing options despite the fact that the slums that they live in are

notified. In fact, around 98 per cent of the participants mentioned that they did not avail any credit for construction or upgradation of their houses under any housing scheme and have only managed to build the temporary structures from their personal savings.

Almost all (99 per cent) of the participants mentioned that no cooperative housing societies have been formed in their respective slums. Around 87.3 per cent of the houses in the slums

are semi-pucca¹ in nature followed by 12.7 per cent which are kutcha² and there are no pucca³ houses. About 99 per cent of the surveyed population did not pay any property or income tax, only 1.5 per cent residents of PHD Campus Basti paid holding tax to the Bhubaneswar Municipal Corporation for land.



Pic 3.1 | Housing arrangement in notified slum, Janta Lodgeside Basti, Bhubaneswar

THE ODISHA LAND RIGHTS TO SLUM DWELLERS ACT, 2017

The Odisha Government announced that it would provide land rights and property rights to slum residents in small towns and cities, respectively, on 8 August 2018. In this regard, twin ordinances were passed by the government, namely, The Odisha Land Rights to Slum Dwellers Ordinance, 2017, and the Odisha Municipal Corporation (Amendment) Ordinance, 2017. These ordinances state that while land rights will be given to the slum residents in notified area council and municipality areas, the urban poor living in municipal corporation jurisdictions will get property rights. This Act does not include land rights allocation for the urban poor living in five municipal corporations, namely Cuttack, Bhubaneswar, Rourkela, Sambalpur and Berhampur.

AREA	MUNICIPAL-ITY	PRIVATE	GENERAL ADMINISTRATION	PUBLIC HEALTH DEPARTMENT	TOTAL
Janata Lodgeside Basti	0%	5.9%	94.1%	0%	100%
Mali Sahi Basti	100%	0%	0%	0%	100%
PHD Campus Basti	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%
Santipally FCI Colony	0%	0%	100%	0%	100%
TOTAL	11.9%	0.7%	67.9%	19.4%	100%

Table 3.2 | Land ownership of notified slums, Bhubaneswar

1 | A house that has fixed walls made up of pucca material but the roof is made up of material other than that which is used for pucca houses is called a semi-pucca house. (MoSPI, 2018)

2 | The walls and/or roof of which are made of material such as unburnt bricks, bamboos, mud, grass, reeds, thatch, loosely packed stones, etc. are treated as kutcha house. (MoSPI, 2018)

3 | A pucca house is one which has walls and roof made of the burnt bricks, stones (packed with lime or cement), cement concrete, timber, etc. (MoSPI, 2018)

http://mospi.nic.in/sites/default/files/Statistical_year_book_india_chapters/HOUSING-WRITEUP_0.pdf

3.2 ACCESS TO WATER

Despite legal recognition, most of the surveyed households draw water from common community taps and only few have their own individual water connection. 81 per cent of the surveyed population said that they have to stand in long queues every morning to fetch water from the common tap connection as only 26 per cent households have their own water connection. Around 97 per cent of the

households purchase water for drinking purpose. Most of them, i.e., 80.6 per cent purchase from private sources and 76.9 per cent pay between INR 50–100 on a monthly basis for drinking water services. The communities living in the notified slums do not have access to adequate water supply and the situation becomes grave during summers.

AREA	OWN WATER CONNECTION	COMMON WATER CONNECTION	PURCHASING DRINKING WATER
Janata Lodgeside Basti	5.9%	100%	100%
Mali Sahi Basti	0%	100%	100%
PHD Campus Basti	96.2%	96.2%	90%
Santipally FCI Colony	12%	89.3%	97.9%
TOTAL	26.1%	80.6%	96.9%

Table 3.3 | Status of water connection, Bhubaneswar

3.3 ACCESS TO SANITATION FACILITIES

In the surveyed slums, around 63 per cent of the population do not have individual in-house toilets regardless of the fact that they are notified. Only 33 per cent have individual toilets. Few residents (1.5 per cent) have applied for individual toilets under the Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM) and few more (3 per cent) who had applied under the scheme are following up on the pending payments.

Around 84.3 per cent of the participants mentioned that they have access to the community toilets within the slum premises. Among them, 64 per cent mentioned that they have to pay between INR 20–40

as maintenance for the community toilets on a monthly basis. Additionally, 63.4 per cent mentioned that they use the public urinal on a day-to-day basis as well.

Despite the fact that the rate of open defecation is low, public health concern over human waste continues to affect people living in the slums where open defecation exists. The community waste generated from slum households is also not treated properly, leading to spread of diseases, especially during the monsoon months. Hence, improved toilets will not necessarily improve health outcomes unless proper water supply and waste management is ensured.

AREA	INDIVIDUAL IN-HOUSE TOILET				TOTAL
	Yes	No	Applied	Follow up	
Janata Lodgeside Basti	0%	100%	0%	0%	100%
Mali Sahi Basti	0%	100%	0%	0%	100%
PHD Campus Basti	84.6%	15.4%	0%	0%	100%
Santipalli FCI Colony	29.3%	62.7%	2.7%	5.3%	100%
TOTAL	32.8%	62.7%	1.5%	3%	100%

Table 3.4 | Status of in-house toilets in slums, Bhubaneswar

3.4 ACCESS TO ELECTRICITY

The data revealed that 94 per cent of the population have access to electricity connections. Among them, only 20 per cent have their own electricity meter and around 80 per cent get their electricity connection on a sharing basis from their neighbours who have electricity meters. This reveals that in notified settlements, 6 per cent have no access to electricity

and among those who do have access, majority of the access is informal. Additionally, the lack of electricity supply in the surveyed slums reflects an indistinguishable picture when compared to electricity connection in non-notified slums of the other sampled cities.

3.5 ACCESS TO LEGAL IDENTITY DOCUMENTS AND ENTITLEMENTS

In Bhubaneswar, a total of 134 households were surveyed. The data depicts that of those surveyed, in 132 households there are individuals who possess legal entitlements. Out of 289 adult members in the surveyed households, 278 individuals have voter ID cards, 231 of them are PAN card holders and 262

have bank accounts. A total of 449 people (including children) have an Aadhaar Card. Regarding social security, 21 senior citizens receive pension and 10 people have disability certificates. The remaining households do not have the legal documents with their present address as many of them are migrant workers.

3.6 ACCESS TO HEALTHCARE

About 66 per cent participants prefer to visit government hospitals for treatment and 34 per cent mentioned that they visit the nearest private hospital. Around 58 per cent respondents mentioned that the major reason for preferring government hospitals is because they are financially viable. One of the participants said 'services at the government hospital are not remarkable but we have no option as we cannot afford treatment in private hospitals'. Around 36.6 per cent respondents mentioned that they spend INR 600 and above per month on healthcare, followed by 32.1 per cent who pay INR 100–300 and 31.3 per cent who spend INR 300–600.

Additionally, around 74 per cent participants responded that the municipal hospital is located within 6–11 km from their place of residence and around 96 per cent mentioned that the private hospital is within 5 km of their respective slums. About 99 per cent mentioned that the primary healthcare centre (PHC) is located within 5 km distance, but in the PHC the doctors and pharmacists are irregular. Infrequent visits by doctors leads to overcrowding as patients queue up throughout the day to access these services. While residents have accessibility, it does not indicate adequate delivery of services.

3.7 ACCESS TO EDUCATION

Around 50.7 per cent participants mentioned that their children attend government schools while 20 per cent families send their children to private schools. The main reason for preferring private schools is to ensure quality education, which according to the

respondents is lacking in government schools. Few children, specifically from PHD Campus Basti, have got admissions to private school under the 25 per cent provision for the economically weaker section (EWS) category under the Right to Education Act.

3.8. STATUS OF FOOD SECURITY

The data revealed that almost all the households (96 per cent) have ration cards while 2.2 per cent do not and 1.5 per cent have applied for it. In Odisha, there

are only two types of ration cards—one is yellow for Antyodaya (which is for the poorest section in India, whereby supply of food and other important

commodities for their daily needs are made available at subsidised rates) and the other is green for non-Antyodaya. Among the total slum residents who have ration cards, majority of them (i.e., 88 per cent) have the green coloured ration card. About 96 per cent participants said that they have access to ration on a regular basis. The main items secured by the respondents from the ration shop are rice, kerosene and wheat.

Regarding *anganwadis*, participants mentioned that there is access but irregularity in food supply is a persistent problem faced by children. One reason for such irregularity is that the *anganwadi* workers are doubly burdened with additional administrative duties allocated to them on temporary basis. This problem was even raised during local elections but to no avail.

3.9 KEY FINDINGS

98.3 per cent have their own house and 6.7 per cent live in rented houses. No slum resident has ownership of land, including those who have their own houses.

97 per cent purchase water for drinking purposes. 81 per cent purchase from private sources and 77 per cent pay INR 50–100 per month for drinking water supply.

63 per cent do not have in-house toilets. Only 1.5 per cent have applied for individual toilets under SBM(U).

20 per cent have their own electricity meter and around 80 per cent get their electricity connection on a sharing basis from their neighbours who have electricity meters.

Infrequent visits of doctors and pharmacists at the PHC leads to overcrowding as patients queue up throughout the day to access these services.

Around 50.7 per cent send their children to government schools and 20 per cent families send their children to private schools.

96 per cent respondents have ration cards.

CHAPTER 4 GUWAHATI

Although the rate of urbanisation is relatively less, Guwahati as a city has seen a considerable rate of rural–urban migration. According to a local survey conducted by Guwahati Municipal Corporation (GMC) there are around 163 slums in the city at present and all are under the non-notified category. The non-notified slums in Guwahati are often prone to water-logging, accumulation of drainage/waste water, and have no permanent structure and no private bathing spaces, no piped water supply and continuous threat of eviction. For the purpose of the study, data was collected from

five non-notified slums, namely, Bhootnath, Shivanagar, Madhabpur, Bholomukh and Uzanbazar.

Of the survey respondents, 72 per cent were females and only 28 per cent were males. 45 per cent respondents have completed education upto standard 10. Most of the respondents are engaged in informal labour, with 34.9 per cent domestic workers, followed by homemakers (22.0 per cent), daily wage labour (11.9 per cent) and those in small scale business (11.5 per cent).

NAME OF SAMPLED SLUMS	LAND OWNERSHIP	TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS	SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS (40% OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS)
Bhootnath	Railways	150	60
Shivanagar	Railways	100	40
Madhabpur	Private	65	26
Bholomukh	Railways	50	20
Uzanbazar	Railways	180	72
TOTAL		545	218

Table 4.1 | Sample set - Guwahati

4.1 ACCESS TO HOUSING AND LAND

The dataset disclosed that only 11.9 per cent of the participants have their own houses in the surveyed slums and 88.1 per cent participants were living on rent. No one has land ownership and so they are under continuous threat of forced evictions. The data revealed that 60 per cent of the houses are semi-*pucca* with mostly *kutcha* roofs, *pucca* walls and floor. This is followed by 37.6 per cent *kutcha* houses and 1.8 per cent *pucca* houses. The houses are vulnerable to extreme weather conditions.

There are no cooperative housing societies formed at the slum-level and residents have no access to any housing schemes in the city as they are non-notified. Till now, none of the residents have availed any credit from the government or private sources for house upgradation or for construction of a new house. They have built the current temporary structures from their incomes. Of the total population surveyed, none of the participants paid any form of property or land taxes.



Pic 4.1 | A house in a non-notified slum, Guwahati

4.2 ACCESS TO WATER

64.2 per cent of the surveyed participants living in the slums of Guwahati have direct water connection via access to tube wells. 47.2 per cent access shared water from the common tap located in surveyed slums. Around 37.2 per cent of the respondents purchase

drinking water from private sources and 4.6 per cent fetch drinking water from the common hand pump. Of the respondents who purchased drinking water, majority (i.e., 71.6 per cent) paid INR 100–200 on a daily basis.

4.3 ACCESS TO SANITATION FACILITIES

In surveyed slums of Guwahati, 81.7 per cent participants mentioned that they have in-house individual toilets. They are essentially pit latrines constructed by residents themselves. As these are dry latrines without water and sewage connection, this system heavily pollutes the groundwater. Around 98.6 per cent of the surveyed population reported that there is no availability of community toilets in

the area. It was reported that 18.8 per cent of the population defecates in the open.

AREA	YES	NO
Bharalumukh	95%	5%
Bhootnath	100%	0%
Madhabpur	100%	0%
Shiv Nagar	2.5%	97.5%
Uzanbazar	100%	0%
TOTAL	81.7%	18.3%

Table 4.2 | Pit latrine in individual households, Guwahati



Pic 4.2 | Pit latrines constructed by slum residents in a slum, Guwahati

4.4 ACCESS TO ELECTRICITY

Around 86 per cent participants mentioned that they receive electricity bills. However, only 20 per cent surveyed households have an electric meter in their name and the remaining 80 per cent share electricity or use electricity on rent which means they do not have legal electricity connection with meter in their names. Their electricity connection is rented from

their neighbours or land owners, where the price is decided by those lending the electricity connection. The households with electricity on rent pay bill with added interest to the household from where they have taken the connection. In six per cent surveyed households there is no electricity connection.

4.5 ACCESS TO LEGAL IDENTITY DOCUMENTS AND ENTITLEMENTS

In the 218 surveyed households, there are 643 adults (above 18 years of age). 82 per cent have a voter ID card, 51 per cent are PAN card holders and 50 per cent have bank accounts. The government has started facilitating Aadhaar Cards recently. As far as social security is concerned, there are only 16 senior citizens receiving pension.

In Guwahati, there is also the state-specific issue of 'doubtful voters', popularly known as D-voters. This is a category of individuals disenfranchised by the government on the account of their alleged lack of proper citizenship credentials. Many of them are living in the city and state for many years but are still not accepted by the administration; they are treated as foreigners and illegal immigrants. The data reflects that till October 2016 around 6,21,688 people (mostly Muslims) were either branded as D-voters or reference cases were registered against them under The Foreigners Act 1946, resulting in them losing access to government-sponsored welfare

schemes, the right to vote, and other civil and political rights granted to an Indian citizen (Azad, 2018).

The D-Voters in Assam, specifically Muslims, are consistently facing brutal prosecution in the name of Bangladeshis and if they fail to provide adequate document proof of their nationality or even fail to produce themselves before the Foreigners Tribunal, they are arrested and sent to detention camps.

The cases of accessing ration cards and voter identity cards are indicative of larger issues. While the ration card entitles citizens to subsidised food, the voter identity card entitles citizens to participate in democratic politics. Yet both these documents do not remain as mere proof to access entitlements. They double up as residential proof in insecure settlements, as citizenship documents when their nationality is questioned, as age proof to access scholarships and livelihood schemes, as proof to claim a basic water connection and, most importantly, as a form of security to claim existence in a city.

4.6 ACCESS TO HEALTHCARE

Most of the respondents (i.e., 94.5 per cent) living in the slums of Guwahati spend roughly INR 300–600 on a monthly basis on healthcare. Around 81.7 per cent participants mentioned that they prefer government hospitals for their treatment while 18.3 per cent prefer visiting a private hospital. Despite the criticism of delayed and denied services in the government hospitals, 70.2 per cent preferred government hospitals as they are financially viable.

The nearest municipal hospitals and primary healthcare centres (PHCs) are located at a distance of less than five km from the respective slums surveyed. Though these PHCs are functional, they are open only for a few hours in a day. Respondents mentioned that one hardly finds a doctor in the PHCs after 12 noon, doctors visit on alternate days, and in the absence of a doctor, the nurses attend to minor cases.

4.7 ACCESS TO EDUCATION

Around 99.5 per cent of the children of surveyed slum residents go to government schools while 0.5 per cent children attend private schools. To provide nutrition and education to children between 3–6 years of age, *anganwadi* centres are accessible within one km radius

of the respective slums. But the teachers are not available daily as they are often deputed to do some other work or they do not come to the school as their salaries are not disbursed on time.

4.8 STATUS OF FOOD SECURITY

In the sampled slums, 78 per cent do not have a ration card because in December 2015 the government had declared many ration cards as 'fake' or 'bogus' and during this period the registration for new ration cards was closed. This was only resumed in September 2016 when many slum residents applied/reapplied for it,

and they are yet to receive it as it is still in process. So far only 22 per cent have ration cards under the Antyodaya category for economically weaker section. The respondents regularly receive their ration from the fair price shops. The three major items that were secured by them include rice, wheat and kerosene .

4.9 KEY FINDINGS

88.1 per cent mentioned that their slums are located on Railway land and are non-notified.

81.7 per cent have in-house individual toilets in the form of pit latrines which lack adequate drainage facility and 18.8 per cent still defecate in the open.

20 per cent have an electricity meter in their name and 80 per cent share electricity or use electricity on rent from their neighbours.

Despite delayed and denied services in the government hospitals, 70.2 per cent preferred government hospitals as they are financially viable.

99.5 per cent of the children go to government schools while 0.5 per cent children attend private schools.

78 per cent do not have a ration card, only 22 per cent have ration cards under the Antyodaya category.

CHAPTER 5 NAGPUR

Nagpur is considered the second capital of Maharashtra state. Around 36 per cent of the total population lives in 446 slums of which 64 per cent are notified, 31 per cent are non-notified and 5 percent are identified as newly developed pockets (Census, 2011).

As per Central government directives, 'slum mapping' was carried out in 2010–2011 by Nagpur Municipal Corporation (NMC) and through this survey NMC declared 287 slums as notified and 137 slums as non-notified. The survey also identified 23 new slums in different parts of the city (The Times of India, 2011).

Nagpur presents a visible contrast between the notified and non-notified slums. While notified slums have proper roads and good street lighting, assured water supply, etc, non-notified slums are without proper facilities like good roads, drinking water, power supply, toilet, garbage disposal facilities, street lights, drainage, etc. One of the key reasons of contrast is legal recognition of the notified slums in the city by the NMC. Hence, for the purpose of our analysis we have considered five non-notified slums in the city to

get an idea of actual impact of non-notification on access to basic services.

In Nagpur, five slums were surveyed—South Indira Mata Nagar, Bhimwadi, New Pilli Nadi (north-east of Kalamna), New Pilli Nadi (South) and South Dhamadeep Nagar. Based on the sampling strategy, 40 per cent total households in these slums were taken into consideration for the study and a total of 175 households were surveyed.

Around 66.3 per cent of the surveyed population comprised of males and 33.7 per cent were females. The education distribution dataset disclosed that most of the participants (i.e., 81.1 per cent) have completed education upto standard 10. About 59.4 per cent mentioned their main occupation to be that of daily wage labour. Some respondents worked in the service sector, or ran small-scale businesses, worked as street vendors, drivers, and a few women engaged in domestic work.

NAME OF SAMPLED SLUMS	LAND OWNERSHIP	TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS	SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS (40% OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS)
South Indira Mata Nagar	Nagpur Municipal Corporation	93	37.2
Bhimwadi	Railways	136	54.4
New Pilli Nadi (NE of Kalamna)	Nagpur Municipal Corporation	45	18
New Pilli Nadi (South)	Nagpur Municipal Corporation	87	34.8
South Dhamadeep Nagar	Collector's Land	78	31.2
TOTAL		439	144.4

Table 5.1 | Sample set - Nagpur

5.1 ACCESS TO HOUSING AND LAND

None of the participants have availed any government housing schemes. Majority (96 per cent) have not availed any credit for housing upgradation while only four per cent have availed credit from private sources. In the surveyed slums, only a few (i.e., 0.6 per cent) mentioned that cooperative housing societies exist in their slums. 11.4 per cent did not know what is meant by cooperative housing societies while most participants (88 per cent) said that there are no societies that have formed in their slums. Around 51.4

per cent surveyed households live in *kutcha* structures, 45.7 per cent in semi-*pucca* houses and only 2.9 per cent people have *pucca* houses. This type of housing structure is specific to the non-notified slums as one can find well constructed *pucca* houses in the notified slums in the city.

Only 30.3 per cent participants paid property taxes to the NMC from New Pilli Nadi (NE of Kalamna), South Dhamadeep Nagar and South Indira Mata Nagar.



Pic 5.1 | Housing settlement in Pilli Nadi (South) slum, Nagpur

5.2 ACCESS TO WATER

The dataset revealed that 45.7 per cent participants have household taps. 40 per cent residents fetch drinking water from the common water tap located in or around the slum settlements and 29.7 per cent purchase drinking water from private sources. A large share of slum residents (i.e., 44 per cent) pay INR 50–100 for purchasing drinking water on a monthly basis.

5.3 ACCESS TO SANITATION FACILITIES

Majority surveyed households (i.e., around 96 per cent) have individual in-house toilets and 4 per cent do not have any such facilities and defecate in the open. Three of the five surveyed slums have community toilets.

5.4 ACCESS TO ELECTRICITY

Around 88 per cent participants receive electricity bills. The 'bill' is understood as payment made for electricity connection and not an 'official bill', as electricity is often rented from neighbours or land

owners at prices decided by those lending, usually based on the units of consumption with an added interest rate. 12 percent do not have electricity at home.

5.5 ACCESS TO LEGAL IDENTITY DOCUMENTS AND ENTITLEMENTS

In Nagpur, the 176 surveyed households have over 442 adults. About 285 individuals possess an Aadhaar Card, 214 have voter ID cards, 300 are PAN card holders, 81 have a photopass¹. Around 34 adult household members have employment ID cards, 36 have worker registration IDs while no domestic workers

possess registration cards. Only 12 persons have *gumasta* or vendors' license and 203 adults have their own bank accounts. Regarding social security benefits, only 13 senior citizens receive old age pensions and six people have disability certificates.

5.6 ACCESS TO HEALTHCARE

About 70 per cent participants said that although they have access to public hospitals, due to better quality of services available in private hospitals 40.6 per cent sampled households preferred private hospitals. Majority (92 per cent) responded that private hospitals are located within one to five km from their slums. Majority respondents (40 per cent) stated that the distance to the municipal hospital is within five km, followed by 39.4 per cent who mentioned the distance to be six to 11 km, but the distance to public hospitals or chances of unreliable service keep them away from accessing public hospitals. About 20 per cent mentioned that municipal hospitals are situated far away.

Additionally, 61.7 per cent stated that primary healthcare centres (PHCs) are located within a distance of one to five km from their respective slums, 30.3 per cent and 8 per cent mentioned that PHCs are located six to 11 km away and more than 11 km away, respectively. While 44 per cent participants spend INR 100–300 monthly on their family healthcare on average, 36.6 per cent spend INR 300–600, and 19.4 per cent spend more than INR 600, respectively.

5.7 ACCESS TO EDUCATION

About 30.3 per cent participants mentioned that their children do not have access to *anganwadis* under the Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) while 68 per cent said that the children have access to *anganwadi* services.

Around 67 per cent respondents mentioned that their children go to government schools, while 11.4 per cent children attend private schools. The average distance of both government and private schools was mentioned to be between one to five km.

¹ / A photo pass is an identity card-cum-certificate issued by the Government in the prescribed format under section 3Y, and shall include such other document or documents declared by Government, by order issued in this behalf - Maharashtra Slum Areas (Improvement, Clearance And Redevelopment) Act, 1971

5.8 STATUS OF FOOD SECURITY

Majority among the surveyed population (84.6 per cent) have ration cards for their households. About 66.3 per cent respondents have the orange coloured ration card indicating above poverty line (APL), while 13.7 per cent have yellow ration card indicating below poverty line (BPL) status, 4.6 per cent have non-priority category white colour ration card². Additionally, among the respondents who have ration cards, 70.3 per cent mentioned that ration is

regularly available from the fair price shop. Some residents have two ration cards in their name (one from their village and one in the city). When this data gets reflected in the biometric machine (through their thumb impression) they do not end up getting any ration. The main items that the slum residents access with their ration card are rice and wheat. Kerosene and sugar is available to very few.

5.9 KEY FINDINGS

29.7 per cent purchase drinking water from private sources. A large share of slum residents (i.e., 44 per cent) pay INR 50–100 for drinking water on a monthly basis.

96 per cent of the households have individual in-house toilets. Nagpur is the only city among surveyed cities to have in-house individual toilets in such large numbers.

50 per cent of the surveyed individuals do not have basic identity proofs like voter ID cards, which is a major barrier in accessing welfare schemes and other services

67 per cent mentioned that their children go to government schools, while 11.4 per cent children attend private schools. In some cases, two children from one family attend private and public schools—this was seen in 0.6 per cent cases.

69.7 per cent of surveyed individuals prefer medical treatment at private hospitals (high reliability and speedy delivery of services) and only 30.3 per cent go to the government hospitals.

2 / Orange coloured ration card indicating families with annual income of INR 15,001–1 lakh, yellow card indicating below poverty line (BPL) families and white coloured ration cards indicating families having an annual income of INR 1 lakh and above, respectively. This categorisation applies for Nagpur, Navi Mumbai and Mumbai. Source: <http://mahafood.gov.in/website/english/PDS.aspx>

CHAPTER 6

NAVI MUMBAI

Navi Mumbai is a planned city. The land on which it is now built earlier comprised of many villages. With the population explosion in Mumbai, a large number of people from the periphery of the city moved to Navi Mumbai, and as development activities increased urban poor migrants flocked to this city in large numbers in search of livelihood opportunities.

According to the Census (2011), the total population of Navi Mumbai is 11,20,547 and the total number of slums in Navi Mumbai numbers 48,577 with a population of 2,07,645 (which is 18 per cent of the total population). The proliferation of slums in Navi Mumbai has drawn the attention of the City and Industrial Development Corporation (CIDCO) which has conducted several day-long drives to demolish the non-notified or 'illegal' slums over the years. The urban poor living in these slums has inadequate access to basic services and they are very vulnerable to evictions. This chapter reflects the status of non-notified slums and deteriorating conditions of the urban poor living in a planned city like Navi Mumbai.

In Navi Mumbai, 305 household respondents from five slums were surveyed, namely, Tata Nagar, Jai Durgamata Nagar, Baltubai Nagar, Anand Nagar and Panchashil Nagar 1 and 2. 38 per cent respondents were between 26–35 years, followed by 27 per cent between 36–45 years. Almost 50 per cent respondents were below 35 years of age, which makes the Navi Mumbai slum population relatively young, when compared to other sites. The senior citizen population was less than 10 per cent, which reflects poor life expectancy in the population. The population of youth (below 25 years) was reported less as most of the respondents were adult members of families. 59 per cent were females and 41 per cent male participants, and one member from the transgender community. Around 24.8 per cent respondents were domestic workers, 17.3 per cent were street vendors, 12.1 per cent were homemakers and the rest (43.2 per cent) were engaged in daily wage labour, in small businesses, self employed, in the service sector and 2.6 per cent were unemployed.

NAME OF SAMPLED SLUMS	LAND OWNERSHIP	TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS	SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS (40% OF THE TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS)
Tata Nagar	CIDCO	182	72.8
Jaidurgamata Nagar	Forest	153	61.2
Balatubai Nagar	Railways	96	38.4
Anand Nagar	Railways	159	63.6
Panchashil Nagar 1 & 2	CIDCO	173	69.2
TOTAL		763	305.4

Table 6.1 | Sample set - Navi Mumbai

6.1 ACCESS TO HOUSING AND LAND

The house ownership data shows that 65.7 per cent families have their own house and the rest are living on rent. The land ownership of the slums is in the hands of different authorities. Almost all slum dwellers are perceived as encroachers by the authorities who own the slum land. CIDCO Maharashtra owns 52 per cent of the land and 28 per cent of the land is owned by the Railways. The slums on CIDCO land are under continuous threat of evictions. Only 26 per cent respondents mentioned the existence of a housing society while 74 per cent were not aware about it. Most of the surveyed households (74 per cent) have *kutcha* structures and 26 per cent of the slum houses have *pucca* structures.



Pic 6.1 | A temporary housing settlement in Tata Nagar slum, Navi Mumbai

6.2 ACCESS TO WATER

The dataset revealed that only around 4 per cent households have their own tap water connection and these connections are installed by slum residents themselves who could afford it. Most of the families use water from common tap connections. Additionally, the few families who have their own taps charge money for supplying water to others. The cost of the purchased water amounts to INR 30–50 daily as mentioned by the residents.



Pic 6.2 | Irregular water supply in Tata Nagar slum, Navi Mumbai

6.3 ACCESS TO SANITATION FACILITIES

There are hardly any households with in-house individual toilets in Navi Mumbai. 97 per cent of the surveyed families do not have their own toilet. Almost all the families use common toilets in their slums and one or two families who have their own toilet also use the common toilet at times. The common toilets are built by the local corporators and some are constructed by CIDCO. There are also mobile toilets which are provided under Swachh Bharat Mission in these slums.

Many common toilets have been constructed by Navi Mumbai Municipal Corporation in wards to eliminate open defecation, but these are again paid toilets. 98 per cent residents use these toilets. About 82 per cent surveyed families reported that they paid upto INR 2 for each use. 18 per cent families used common toilets on monthly charges, varying from INR 20–100 per month. Most use public urinals while they are away from their house. Around 97 per cent household members use public urinals which are also free of cost.

6.4 ACCESS TO ELECTRICITY

Most households do not get the electricity bill in their name as the connection is borrowed from the neighbour or the owner of the household. The borrowed connections were more in number than the actual number of meters in the slums. Almost 68 per cent households use electricity connections and most,

i.e., 51 per cent (with electricity connection) have borrowed from the neighbouring houses or owners who have actual meters. The cost of the borrowed connection is INR 100 for one point and it increases as per increase in numbers of points connected to the meter.

6.5 ACCESS TO LEGAL IDENTITY DOCUMENTS AND ENTITLEMENTS

In Navi Mumbai, 305 households were surveyed. Among them, 268 households have legal entitlements. There are 815 adult members with 595 of them possessing voter ID cards, 754 with Aadhaar Cards,

523 with PAN cards, and 464 have bank accounts. Only two people possess a photopass. Regarding social security, five senior citizens receive old age pension and nine people have disability certificates.

6.6 ACCESS TO HEALTHCARE

The average medical expense of the participant slum households in Navi Mumbai is INR 700 per month which is relatively high. About 80 per cent of the respondents mentioned that they prefer government hospitals over private ones and they only visit private hospitals when services at the government hospital are not available. A major reason for preference of government hospital is the fact that it is financially viable.

About 81 per cent respondents mentioned that private hospitals are situated within five km radius from the slums. Government health care facilities include three main municipal hospitals located within 5 km radius from the surveyed slums, which are accessible and have relatively less crowd. However, the respondents mentioned the functioning of the primary healthcare centre (PHC) as not very satisfactory.

6.7 ACCESS TO EDUCATION

About 80 per cent households send their children to government schools which are of two types—a primary school run by the Municipal Corporation and others run by Trusts. High schools are generally run by Trusts and teachers are appointed by the government education department. There are nine per cent private schools either run by prominent educational groups or convent-based. The private schools are administered by the Central Board of Secondary Examination (CBSE) and Indian Certificate of Secondary Education (ICSE) syllabus and not the State board syllabus. Some of the slum children have taken admissions under 25 per cent reservation in private schools mandated under the Right to Education Act. The schools are situated in close vicinity and most of

the schools (i.e., 84 per cent) are within one km radius. There are also some schools away from the slums but due to availability of public transport, accessibility to schools is not an issue for the children.

The Navi Mumbai Municipal Corporation has taken several initiatives to promote pre-schooling for the educational and cognitive development of children, but it lacks adequate implementation. Due to the non-notified status of the surveyed slums, there aren't many *anganwadis* in them and only 59 per cent families said they have *anganwadis* in their vicinity. Among them, 34 per cent of the households don't have access to *anganwadi* services.

6.8 STATUS OF FOOD SECURITY

Around 80 per cent of the surveyed households have a ration card. 47 per cent respondents have orange cards indicating above poverty line (APL) families, followed by 33 per cent who have yellow cards indicating below poverty line (BPL) and few households (i.e., 7 per cent) are marked with special cards known as Antyodaya and Annapurna cards. Around 20 per cent families do not have ration cards at all. Among the families who have access to ration, 82 per cent mentioned that they get their regular

ration supply and 18 per cent families do not receive ration on a regular basis as the shopkeeper claims that some items are unavailable.

Many who have migrated from the southern as well as eastern part of India mentioned that rice is a staple food for them. The families reported getting regular supply of rice in ration but the quality of the rice is substandard.

6.9 KEY FINDINGS

On surveying the respondents in Navi Mumbai, the following findings came to light:

65.7 per cent families have their own house and the rest are living on rent. The land ownership of the respective slums belonged to different authorities.

4 per cent households have their own tap water connection and these connections are installed by slum residents themselves who could afford it. The cost of the purchased water varies from INR 30–50 per day.

97 per cent of the surveyed families in the slum do not have their own toilet and 98 per cent of them are using paid toilets built by the local corporators.

68 per cent use electricity connections but almost half of them use borrowed connections.

Due to the non-notified status of the surveyed slums, there aren't many *anganwadis* in them and only 59 per cent families said they have *anganwadis* in their vicinity.

80 per cent households send their children to government schools which are of two types—a primary school run by the Municipal Corporation and others run by Trusts.

20 per cent do not have ration cards at all.

CHAPTER 7 MUMBAI

In Mumbai, the legal status of a slum often determines the influence in terms of access to basic services.

Two heavily populated slums, namely Ambujwadi and Janta Nagar–Mandala, were surveyed based on the multistage sampling strategy.

Of the surveyed population, 61.1 per cent were females and 38.9 per cent males. Most respondents (i.e., around 40 per cent) were homemakers, followed by others who worked as daily wage labour (7 per cent), operated small scale businesses (4.7 per cent), worked as drivers (4.3 per cent), and so on.

NAME OF SAMPLED SLUMS	LAND OWNERSHIP	TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS	SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS (20% OF THE TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS)
Janta Nagar–Mandala	Collector's land	1,469	117.52
Ambujwadi	Collector's land	3,317	265.36
TOTAL		4,786	382.88

Table 7.1 | Sample set - Mumbai

7.1 ACCESS TO HOUSING AND LAND

Around 85 per cent respondents mentioned that they have their own house in their respective slums and 14 per cent stated living in rented houses. No slum resident, including those living in their own house, have land ownership. Both settlements are located on land belonging to the Collector.

The data revealed that 51.2 per cent respondents did not avail any housing schemes. This is largely owing to the fact that slums that are non-notified are not eligible to access government housing schemes for slums. However, it is important to note that 32.6 per cent claimed to have applied for housing through the

Slum Rehabilitation Authority (SRA) and 15.6 per cent and 0.7 per cent have applied for housing under the Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (PMAY) and Rajiv Awas Yojana (RAY), respectively. Around 63.8 per cent respondents mentioned that cooperative housing societies have been formed in their area. Around 69.1 per cent of the surveyed population lived in *kutcha* houses, 17.9 per cent in *pucca* houses and 13 per cent in semi-*pucca* houses. Only 10.3 per cent of the surveyed population availed credit from private sources like banks, neighbours or family relatives for housing upgradation as compared to 89 per cent who did not avail any credit.

7.2 ACCESS TO WATER

Almost all the households have to pay to avail drinking water. 99.3 per cent respondents mentioned that they purchase drinking water on a daily basis.

Around 28.4 per cent pay INR 30 or lesser on a monthly basis for drinking water access, followed by

14.2 per cent who pay between INR 30–50, 23.4 per cent pay INR 50–100, 6.9 per cent pay INR 100–200, 8.4 per cent pay INR 200–400 and 18.8 per cent pay more than INR 400 on a monthly basis.

7.3 ACCESS TO SANITATION FACILITIES

Around 85 per cent respondents do not have in-house toilets; only 15 per cent have toilets at home. Around 75 per cent of the surveyed slum residents mentioned that community toilets are there in and around the area. Around 22 per cent of the surveyed population defecate in the open.

About 44 per cent respondent households reported that they paid for toilets on per-person usage basis. The cost of using the toilet for each time varies from INR 1–8. The average cost for community toilets access is INR 5 and each family pays about INR

AREA	INDIVIDUAL IN-HOUSE TOILET		TOTAL
	YES	NO	
Ambujwadi	21.8%	78.2%	100%
Mandala	0%	100%	100%
Total	14.6%	85.4%	100%

Table 7.2 | Status of in-house toilets in the surveyed slums, Mumbai

20–25 daily. In some places, the charges are on a monthly basis and they pay up to INR 400 per month for toilet access.

7.4 ACCESS TO ELECTRICITY

82.4 per cent of the surveyed population have direct electricity connections, the rest have borrowed the

electricity connection from neighbouring households. Around 77.7 per cent of them receive electricity bills.

7.5 ACCESS TO LEGAL IDENTITY DOCUMENTS AND ENTITLEMENTS

In Mumbai, 383 households were surveyed across two non-notified slums. Of these, individuals from only 228 households possess legal entitlements. 930 residents from the surveyed households have Aadhar Cards. Among 656 adult individuals, 548 have

Voter ID cards, 575 have PAN cards and 399 have bank accounts. Two households possess photopass. Regarding social security, eight senior citizens receive pension and three people have disability certificates.

7.6 ACCESS TO HEALTHCARE

About 67.4 per cent of the surveyed population prefer visiting the government hospitals in comparison with 32.5 per cent who prefer private hospitals. The reason for preferring government hospitals is affordability. Around 76 per cent mentioned that the municipal hospital is over five km away and 98 per cent responded that the municipal hospitals are functional but not effective in service delivery. Most respondents (i.e., 97.7 per cent) noted that the distance to private hospitals from their respective slums is less than five km.

When the respondents were asked about primary healthcare centres (PHCs) most (98.7 per cent) mentioned that the PHCs are located within five km from the slum area and 97 percent said that they are functional. Around 46.8 per cent surveyed slum residents spend INR 100–300 monthly on healthcare, followed by 28.6 per cent who spend more than INR 600 and 24.6 per cent who spend INR 300–600.

7.7 ACCESS TO EDUCATION

The data revealed that majority (i.e., 66.4 per cent) did not report having an *anganwadi* near their home. This is largely due to the fact that the number of *anganwadis* are not in proportion to the population in these slums. 45.2 per cent respondents send their children to government schools and 29.6 per cent

send them to private schools. The question was not applicable for 25.2 per cent of the surveyed population, with no children in those households.

Although schools are available within three to five km from the community, there is lack of proper transport facility and overcrowded schools are a concern.

7.8 STATUS OF FOOD SECURITY

Around 74.4 per cent respondents have ration cards. Among those who possess ration cards, 81.7 per cent get regular access to ration. The surveyed settlements have a large number of migrants who have a ration card with the address of their native state, hence they are not able to access ration in Mumbai with these cards.

Around 98 per cent of the population has the orange coloured ration card, 1.8 per cent have the yellow card and 0.4 per cent have white coloured ration cards, respectively¹. The respondents who receive ration mentioned that rice and wheat were regularly available. Kerosene was available to only a few.

7.9 KEY FINDINGS

85 per cent mentioned that they have their own house in their respective slums and 14 per cent stated living in rented houses. No slum resident, including those living in their own house, have land ownership.

99.3 per cent purchase drinking water on a daily basis, only 0.7 per cent have a direct water connection.

85 per cent respondents do not have in-house toilets.

82.4 per cent have direct electricity connections, the rest have borrowed the electricity connection from neighbouring households.

67.4 per cent of the surveyed population prefer visiting the government hospitals in comparison with 32.5 per cent whose prefer private hospitals. The governing factor for many is affordability.

45.2 per cent send their children to government schools and 29.6 per cent send them to private schools.

Around 74.4 per cent have ration cards while 25.6 per cent still do not have a ration card.

¹ | Orange coloured ration card indicating families with annual income of INR 15,001–1 lakh, yellow card indicating below poverty line (BPL) families and white coloured ration cards indicating families having an annual income of INR 1 lakh and above, respectively. This categorisation applies for Nagpur, Navi Mumbai and Mumbai. Source: <http://mahafood.gov.in/website/english/PDS.aspx>

CHAPTER 8

R&R COLONY AT BHURI TEKRI, INDORE

THE CASE OF BHURI TEKRI

Bhuri Tekri is a rehabilitation and resettlement (R&R) site located in the periphery of Indore, around 10 km from the city centre. It was built in 2011 under Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) and its sub-component Basic Services for Urban Poor (BSUP), to provide adequate housing and basic services to people living in informal settlements. It is a cluster of 13 buildings with each building having a ground floor and four storeys. Six settlements were provided alternate housing under this scheme and the residents were relocated to Bhuri Tekri in 2015. The relocation included 400 families from C. P. Shekhar Nagar, 250 families from Bhim Nagar, 80 families from Juni Indore, 65 families

from Champa Bagh, 45 families from Ganesh Ganj and 100 families from Budh Nagar. The reason for relocation was that the land on which these slums were situated was required for the implementation of the Smart City Mission, Master Plan 2021, and the river rejuvenation order issued by the National Green Tribunal in 2015 where settlements within 30 metres from the river were to be evacuated. However, even after three years of relocation, the availability of basic services or amenities in Bhuri Tekri remains a distant reality. Majority, i.e., 70 per cent population who were resettled here belong to the Mang community (a Dalit community from Maharashtra).



Pic 8.1 | Broken staircase of R&R buildings in Bhuri Tekri, Indore

8.1 ACCESS TO WATER

One of the salient features of the BSUP Scheme guidelines (2009) was to provide clean water, but the residents mentioned that taps in their homes are not functional and approximately 65 per cent of the households need to fetch water from tankers. There is no direct water supply in the colony. Earlier, water would be drawn from the public borewell installed by the Indore Municipal Corporation (IMC) in the premises, which too has stopped working. On a regular basis, residents have to take leave from their daily work and stand in long queues to fetch water. Many a

times fights break out while collecting water as every individual is desperate to store substantial amount of water. In most families, water collection is done by women who have to carry water to their respective flats located on top floors. This everyday process becomes extremely inconvenient for them. Kamla Bai, a senior resident of Bhuri Tekri, mentioned that everyday she has to struggle to get water and if she doesn't fill enough containers then her family has to stay without water.

8.2 ACCESS TO SANITATION FACILITIES

Another salient feature of BSUP guidelines (2009) was every household will have an individual in-house toilet. This was ensured and all the BSUP units at Bhuri Tekri have individual household toilets, bathing space, tap and water pipelines but there is no direct water supply. Therefore, toilets are mostly non-functional. If these toilets are used with less water then the entire sewage line gets choked. Fearing the

overflow of sewage, people have stopped using their personal toilets. Due to the non-availability of public toilets, residents are forced to defecate in the open. Given the fact that Bhuri Tekri is located in a deserted area, it becomes unsafe specifically for women and adolescent girls to openly defecate. A resident Sonam Bai says, 'We have to wait till the sunset to defecate. We fear the dark as anything can happen to us.'

8.3 ACCESS TO LEGAL IDENTITY DOCUMENTS AND ENTITLEMENTS

Due to change of address as a result of relocation, the residents are unable to benefit from several welfare schemes. Most of the residents have not changed their address due to complicated procedures. Kamla Bai says, *'The Collector Office and Municipal Office are far from one another, and there is always a long queue in these offices. We are daily wage labourers and cannot afford to spend an entire day without any assurance that our work will get done. If we do not go to*

work we will lose a day's payment and if we do not get our documents then we cannot access any government benefits.' At present, most of them do not receive ration.

A few who have been able to get their entitlements renewed are also not able to access the services due to distance. Tai Bai another resident says, *'We were given identity cards as waste recyclers but as soon the targets of SBM (U) were fulfilled, we lost our jobs.'*

8.4 IMPACT ON LIVELIHOOD

The biggest impact of relocation has been the loss of livelihood for most respondents. Most (i.e., 90 per cent) residents belonging to the economically weaker section (EWS) are waste recyclers, who earlier lived close to their livelihood options but now they have to cover a long distance to reach centres for collecting wastes. They are not able to travel frequently to the city due to distance and lack of adequate

transportation facilities. Even if they arrange a vehicle to go to the city to collect waste, by the time they reach the city the waste is collected by other waste recyclers. *'Most of us work as waste recyclers. But after moving to the resettlement colony we can't go to work early in the morning due to unavailability of public transport'* says Jaya, a waste recycler.

8.5 ACCESS TO HEALTHCARE

Bhuri Tekri has no government hospitals located nearby. Emergencies such as pregnancies, accidents and other health calamities create extreme difficulties for the residents in accessing healthcare services. Also, due to poor transport facilities, taking patients to the public hospital in the city centre becomes challenging. Some of the respondents are compelled to pay more to visit nearby private clinics that are more expensive. Due to loss of livelihood, the

economic condition of the families has deteriorated. They are hardly able to afford a full day's meal, hence malnutrition is quite prevalent among children. One of the residents, Kamla Bai, says, *'Where we lived earlier, there was a government hospital nearby. If we fell ill, we could visit it. Now we have been thrown out of the city and there is no health accessibility. Even if we die no one will get to know.'*

8.6 ACCESS TO EDUCATION

Due to the absence of government schools and safe spaces, some children (mostly girls) remain at home

and assist their mothers in household chores, some help their parents in their daily work, and so on.

8.7 STATUS OF FOOD SECURITY

People from C.P. Shekhar Nagar, Budh Nagar, Bhim Nagar, Champa Bagh had below poverty line (BPL) ration cards of their place of origin, but after relocation they couldn't access ration as the shop is located in Bicholi Gaon which is very far from their rehabilitation site. For those who can access it, the ration received is often adulterated. It consists of rice, wheat, tea, salt, soap, etc. Additionally, a number of people are not able to access LPG cylinders and a few

who cannot afford to refill it. As a result of this, people are using kerosene as a substitute.

CHAPTER 9 CONCLUSION

The governance of Indian cities is characterised by increasing complexity, in terms of actors, processes, and resources.

The study undertaken by YUVA depicts that in the different cities there are common issues of housing and basic services access for the urban poor, and this needs to be looked at from city-specific perspectives to understand the issues better and address policy as well as implementation concerns. The findings from this study show that deprivations exist across cities and across living conditions. While moving across the housing continuum often means an improved quality of life and access to basic services, the findings from the study clearly show that deprivations exist irrespective of security of tenure. This points to the need to deepen urban equity. In order to achieve this recommendations have been proposed:

1. **Ensure guarantee of secure and adequate habitat:** Access to land and legal security of tenure are strategic prerequisites for the provision of adequate shelter for all and for the development of sustainable human settlements. The government should bring in institutional reforms and legislative measures to augment equitable habitat. This should be irrespective of the legal status of the settlement.
2. **Strengthen urban local bodies (ULBs):** State governments should play a significant role to facilitate the ULBs to provide an enabling environment for their functioning as effective units of self-governance at the local level. The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act envisages that the functions of urban poverty alleviation and improvement of slums and their upgradation, including the provisioning of urban basic amenities to the poor should be focused on by the municipalities. City-specific urban poverty reduction plans need to be prepared by the ULBs and fund release should be demand driven.
3. **Bolster participatory planning process through 74th Constitutional Amendment Act:** Planning for citizens should be for the people and by the people. Participatory planning should be a prerequisite for any endeavour for urban renewal. The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act should be implemented in its true spirit.
4. **Municipal governments should provide comprehensive information on services and welfare schemes:** Easily accessible and comprehensive information on welfare schemes, basic services and time limits for approvals should be provided by local governments.
5. **Enable universalisation of access to water and sanitation in urban areas:** Every citizen should be provided with the minimum levels of safe drinking and household-use water along with a clean toilet, sewerage, storm water drainage and solid waste management. The provisioning of basic water and sanitation should be de-linked from issues of land tenure and legal status. An integrated network of regular water supply and provision for treatment of sewage should be built in the informal settlements. Proper arrangements should be made for collection and treatment of waste. Basic sanitation facilities including construction of toilets should be done irrespective of the legal status of the settlement.
6. **Sync between central schemes and state and municipal level implementation:** Although the major flagship schemes such as Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (PMAY) and Swachh Bharat Mission (SBM) elaborate on provisions for the urban poor, the stigmatisation of the marginalised by the authorities is a barrier in enabling such access. For example, although PMAY scheme

guidelines mention in-situ rehabilitation for slums situated on central government land, this has been completely ignored by the State citing their ineligibility as they are situated on Railways land. Similarly, SBM allows construction of toilets in non-notified slums, but this has been ignored by the state authorities. Independent monitoring committees should be set up at the local and state level and these bodies should include participation from beneficiaries. The problem in the cities is not of paucity of schemes/policies but that of much stronger convergence between central schemes and municipal implementation.

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ANNEXURE 1

YUVA SURVEY ON IDENTITY, HOUSING AND BASIC SERVICES (2017)

Form No.: Date:
 Surveyor Name:
 Area: City:

1. PERSONAL DETAILS

- 1.1 Name of the respondent
- 1.2 Age
- 1.3 Gender
☐ Male
☐ Female
☐ Others
- 1.4 Education Qualification
☐ 10th Pass and below
☐ 10th–12th Pass
☐ Graduate and above
- 1.5 Occupation
- 1.6 House ownership (ask at the end):
☐ Own
☐ Rented
☐ Other
- 1.7 Number of people in the household
☐ Men
☐ Women
☐ Children (Girls/Boys)
☐ Others

NA = Not applied

AP = Applied

FU = Follow up

DK = Don't know

2. SERVICES: ACCESS TO WATER

- 2.1 Direct water connection in residence:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ AP
☐ FU

- 2.2 Common water tap in lane:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ AP
☐ FU

- 2.3 Common hand pump in lane:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ AP
☐ FU

- 2.4 Purchase water from private source:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ AP
☐ FU

- 2.4.1 If yes, cost of water (in Rs.)

Other (Please specify for e.g well in the community)

3. SERVICES: ACCESS TO SANITATION

- 3.1 Individual in-house toilet:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ AP
☐ FU

- 3.2 Community toilet:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ AP
☐ FU

3.2.1 If community toilet, is it paid:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK

Mention the amount paid (in Rs/day/week/month)

.....

3.3 Public urinal (used on a daily basis):

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA

3.4 Open defecation (on a daily basis):

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA

4. SERVICES: ELECTRICITY

4.1 Do you get a light bill?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

4.1.1 If Yes, is the light bill in the name of the head of the household?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

If No, What is the source of electricity?

.....

5. SERVICES: HOUSING AND LAND

5.1 Land ownership:

- ☐ City Development Authority
☐ Municipality
☐ Collector land
☐ Defense
☐ Forest
☐ Railway
☐ Private
☐ Others (specify)
☐ NA

5.2 Housing scheme availed:

- ☐ RAY
☐ SRA
☐ R&R
☐ PMAY(U)
☐ BSUP
☐ Others (specify)

5.3 Housing societies formed:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

5.4 Type of house (surveyor to fill/Do not ask):

- ☐ Kutchha
☐ Pucca
☐ Semi-Pucca
☐ Others

5.5 Taxes paid (collector, property or others):

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AK
☐ FU

5.5.1 If yes, the amount paid in Rs:

5.6 Credit availed for housing upgradation:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

If yes,

5.6.1 From the Government:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

5.6.2 From a private source:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

6. SERVICES: ACCESS TO LEGAL ENTITLEMENTS

6.1 Ration Card (household):

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

6.2 Voter identity card (all individuals above 18)

6.2.1 Household (Mention number.....):

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

6.2.2 Individual:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

6.3 Aadhar Card

6.3.1 Household (Mention number.....):

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

6.3.2 Individual:

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.4 Worker's registration card (If applicable):

6.4.1 Household (Mention number.....):

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.4.2 Individual:

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.5 Income Certificate

6.5.1 Household (Mention number.....):

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.5.2 Individual:

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.6 Employment Card (If applicable)

6.6.1 Household (Mention number.....):

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.6.2 Individual:

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.7 Bank accounts

6.7.1 Household (Mention number.....):

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.7.2 Individual:

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.8 Photo pass (household):

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.9 PAN Card

6.9.1 Household (Mention number.....):

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.9.2 Individual:

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.10 Shop ownership (*Gumasta*) license (if applicable)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.11 Does anyone in the household hawk?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA

6.11.1 Hawker's license:

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ NA
- ☐ DK
- ☐ AP
- ☐ FU

6.12 Are there any senior citizens in the household?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA

6.12.1 Do the senior citizens in the family receive Old Age Pension:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

6.13 Is anyone in the household disabled?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA

6.13.1 Disability Certificate:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

6.14 Does anyone in the family engage in domestic work?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA

6.14.1 Domestic Workers' registration card:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

6.15 Other (Please specify):

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

7. SERVICES: HEALTH

7.1 Family's monthly expenditure in health:

- ☐ Rs 100–Rs 300
☐ Rs 300–Rs 600
☐ Rs 600 & above

7.2 Which type of hospital do you prefer to visit?

- ☐ Government
☐ Private

7.3 Reasons for such preference:

- ☐ Trust Factor
☐ Financial Reasons
☐ Better Quality
☐ Any other/specify

7.4 Distance from the private hospital:

- ☐ 1–5km
☐ 6–11km
☐ 11km & above

7.5 Distance from the Primary Health Care Centre:

- ☐ 1–5km
☐ 6–11km
☐ 11km & above

7.6 Is the Primary Health Care Centre functional?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

7.7 Distance from the Municipal Hospital:

- ☐ 1–5km
☐ 6–11km
☐ 11km & above

7.8 Accessibility to the Municipal Hospital:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA

8. SERVICES: EDUCATION

8.1 Is there *Anganwadi* under ICDS within the settlement?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA
☐ DK
☐ AP
☐ FU

8.2 Do your child/children have access to the *Anganwadi* centres?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA

8.3 What type of school do they go to?

- ☐ Government
☐ Private
☐ NA

8.4 Distance from school:

- ☐ 1–3km
☐ 4–7km
☐ 7km & above

9. SERVICES: FOOD SECURITY

9.1 Colour of the ration card

9.2 Is ration regularly available?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ NA

9.3 What items do you get at the ration shop (Please specify).....

.....

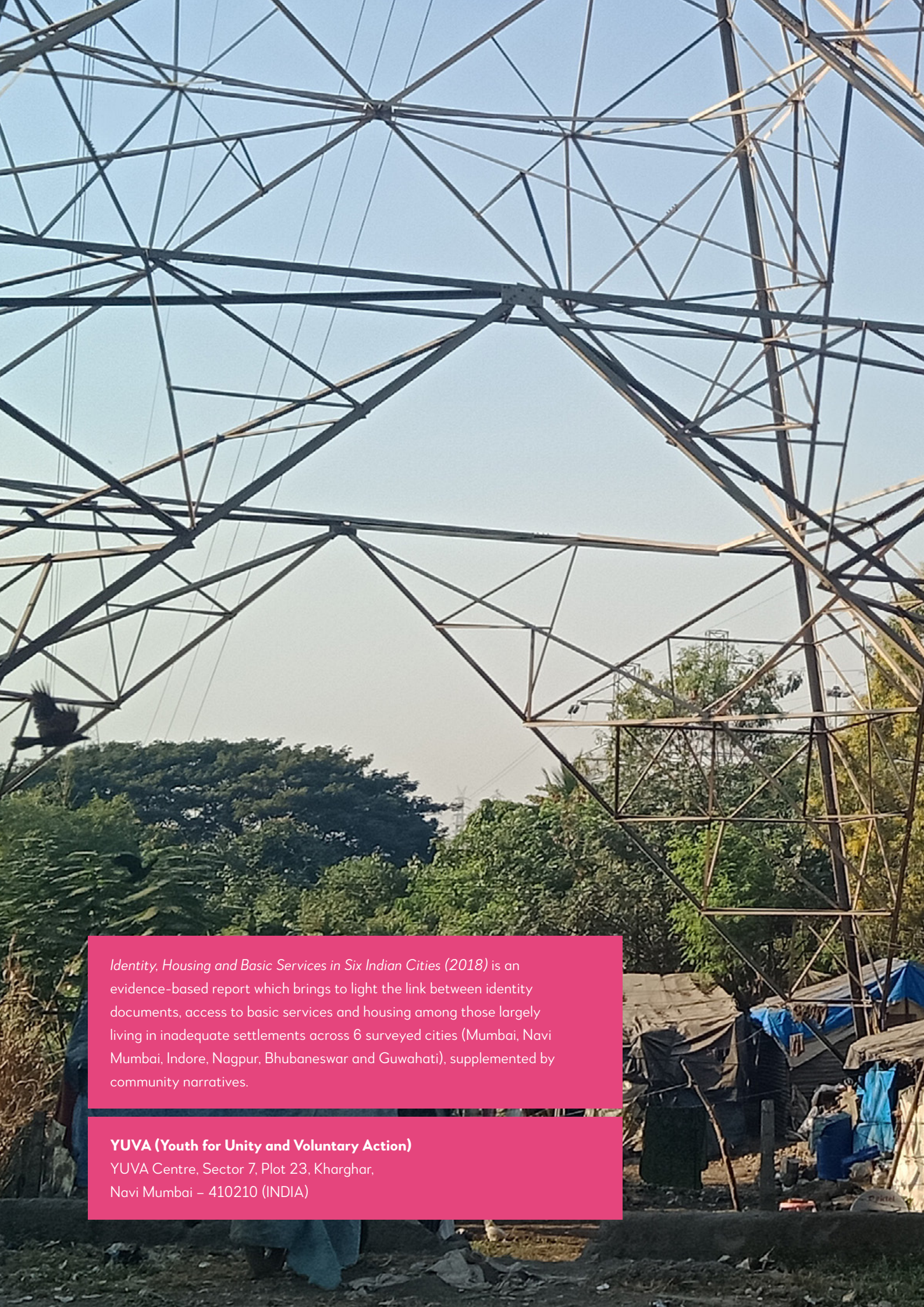
How much is spent each day on food for the entire household in Rs.

.....

ABOUT YUVA

Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action (YUVA) is a non-profit development organisation committed to enabling vulnerable groups to access their rights. YUVA encourages the formation of people's collectives that engage in the discourse on development, thereby ensuring self-determined and sustained collective action in communities. This work is complemented with advocacy and policy recommendations. Founded in Mumbai in 1984, currently YUVA operates in the states of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Assam and New Delhi.

At the community-level, through an integrated 360-degree approach, YUVA delivers solutions on issues of housing, livelihood, environment and governance. Through research, YUVA creates knowledge that enhances capacity building. Through partnerships in campaigns, YUVA provides solidarity and builds strong alliances to drive change.



Identity, Housing and Basic Services in Six Indian Cities (2018) is an evidence-based report which brings to light the link between identity documents, access to basic services and housing among those largely living in inadequate settlements across 6 surveyed cities (Mumbai, Navi Mumbai, Indore, Nagpur, Bhubaneswar and Guwahati), supplemented by community narratives.

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