Most Indian cities are characterised by high densities, intensely mixed land use patterns, short trip distances, and high share of walking and non-motorised transport. The transport and land-use patterns found in these cities are so influenced by poverty and high level of complexity that it becomes difficult to analyse their characteristics using the same indices as used for cities in highly motorised countries. There is ample evidence to illustrate the mismatch between urban transportation planning methods and the growing transportation problems. Consequently, these cities continue to face environmental decay, congestion, poor health conditions, etc. Unless we understand the basic nature of problems faced by these cities, the adverse impact of growing mobility on the environment will continue to multiply in the future.

**Changing city profile**

The spatial spread of Indian cities has been changing as in other cities all over the world. The city limit is now indicated by urban sprawl. The cities include the old core area, which is usually congested, has narrow streets, old houses, and the land use mixed and relatively unregulated. Then there are unplanned parts of the city, which have developed spontaneously and are often beyond the municipal limits but also within it often along the arterial road or the main highway going out of the city. These spontaneous developments are of two types: one inhabited by lower and middle classes who, due to mismanagement of the land market, cannot afford to buy land for housing. The other category consists of squatter settlements. These can be spread all over the city. These are largely inhabited by the poorer sections of the society specially the construction labourers and the informal workers of the city. Larger the city more the slums and squatter settlements. In the mega-cities and million plus cities of India, 40-50 percent of the population lives in these informal housing colonies. The third category of settlements consists of planned residential colonies built by the public, private or co-operative sectors. These are high-income residential houses and multi-storeyed flats with well-laid out roads, and other urban services. Public transport and private cars give easy access from these locations to the city centre as well as the shopping areas. The fourth category is commercial. It is planned and has multi-storied buildings. These have been located to create multi-centred cities. The fifth and the final category are the urban fringe where the urban and rural divide becomes blurred. Thus the structure that emerges out of complex interplay of physical, social, economic, cultural and behavioural factors does not follow the classical "rich centre and poor periphery" type of model. There are no clear-cut concentric zones of different activities. Central core areas depict not only commercial but also high housing concentration.

The manufacturing activities are spread not only in the peripheral zone but also in intermediate and inner zones. Unlike the Western countries, Indian cities have more than one Central Business District; therefore commercial activities are spatially dispersed. Manufacturing activities are concentrated not only in the earlier old commercial areas but also newly developed industrial areas at the outskirts of the city.
In the spatial structure of Delhi there is significant overlapping of areas of high social status with traditional urbanism. The spatial arrangement of social zones in Delhi shows distinct patches of lower class at the outskirts and in the innermost commercial areas. The innermost areas are characterised by high population density. These areas of Old Delhi have been declared as slums due to old, dilapidated and obsolete structures. While at the outskirts the lower class resides in resettlement colonies, build by the government. The elite class is mostly concentrated in central planned zones and the peripheral zones while middle class areas are dispersed all over the city.

Spatial integration of different activities and various social groups have occurred because of economic and social compulsions. The section of the population, which has very low income, ends up in sub-standard housing on public land owned by various government agencies. The rising cost of transport within the city and long working hours force the workers to live right next to their factories. Violation of law becomes a pre-condition for their survival in the city. A large number of people living in these units are employed in the informal sector providing various services to the outer areas of the city where the new developments had been planned. The growth rate of the squatter households, as compared to that for the non-squatters is nearly 4 times higher (54.2% growth in squatter households compared to 12.3% in non-squatter household)\(^1\). Recent estimates show that about 77% of the entire population (more than 10 million people) is living in marginal/sub-standard settlements. It is also well known that the socio-economic and the environmental conditions in these settlements are dismal, but only 50% of the housing stock were allotted to them till 1986.\(^2\) An socio-economic survey of the people living in these settlements revealed that over \(\frac{2}{3}\)sds of the households had small families, lived in substandard housing, and did not have access to municipal water supply or sewerage facilities. The majority of the workers were in service jobs and daily wagers, earned less than Rs. 2000 per month (~US$45), and travelled by foot or bicycle. About 75% of the workers were in ‘temporary’ jobs and about 56% were ‘unskilled’\(^3\). Infrastructure planning and policies in the city have clearly ignored the existence of this population. This is most evident in the transport infrastructure and transport policies of the city.

**Travel Modes**

The entire vehicle fleet motorised and non-motorised, is growing rapidly. From 1975 to 1998, the car population increased from about 68,000 to almost 800,000, and the motorised two wheelers from about 100,000 to almost 2 million. The number of bicycles and cycle rickshas is also very large and increasing. It is estimated that as many as 300,000 cycle rickshas currently travel on Delhi roads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Scooters and motorcycles</th>
<th>Cars/jeeps</th>
<th>Auto rickshas</th>
<th>Taxis</th>
<th>Buses</th>
<th>Freight</th>
<th>All motor vehicles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>1077</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>1,547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1568</td>
<td>852</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>2,584</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Historical data are from Delhi Statistical Handbook and Transport Department, Delhi. Except for 1971 and 1980, they have been revised downward to reflect scrappage of vehicles over time. There are no registration data for 1971 and 1980 to estimate attrition.

**Public Transportation**

Buses form the backbone of the transport system in Delhi. As a generalisation, buses are the most economically and environmentally efficient means of providing transport services to most people. In Delhi, buses constitute less than one percent of the vehicle fleet, but serve about half of all travel demand.
Since 1992, Delhi has turned increasingly to the private sector to help expand and improve bus service. This decision was a response to the widely acknowledged shortcomings of public bus service, including escalating costs, poor maintenance, high labour costs, an ageing bus fleet, and erratic service.

Bus service was expanded in 1996 by adding more buses, with buses per route increasing from 0.8 to 1.7. The regular fixed-route bus system now comprises about 4,000 privately operated buses and 3,760 publicly operated buses. 5,000 private charter buses that provide point-to-point service during peak hours to subscribers who pay a monthly fee for a guaranteed seat complement it.4

Public buses provide a low level of service and comfort, with passengers often travelling on footboards. Large-scale privatisation has increased capacity but buses continue to be overcrowded and poorly maintained. Even though buses carry half of all passenger travel, they receive no preferential treatment in terms of dedicated lanes or traffic management.

The low quality of service is due in large part to the extreme poverty of so many riders. Many Delhi residents cannot afford to pay even the low subsidised fares. Consider that a single one-way bus fare for people living on the outskirts of the city is $0.20-$0.25 (Rs.8 to Rs.10), depending on the number of transfers. For the poorest 28 percent of households with monthly incomes of less than Rs.2,000 (about US $40), a single worker would spend 25 percent or more of their entire monthly income on daily round trip bus fare. For those with incomes much less than Rs 2,000, the already-low bus fare is prohibitively expensive.5

Rickshas and Non-Motorised Vehicles

Indian cities have many rickshas, three-wheelers that are either motorised (“auto rickshas”), or not (“cycle rickshas”). All are used for commercial reasons rather than personal use. Most carry passengers, but some occasionally carry freight. Cycle rickshas are registered separately from motorised vehicles.

Current policies regarding cycle rickshas and other non-motorised vehicles are restrictive based on a notion held by many that efficient (“modern”) transport systems do not include these vehicles. Traffic management experts and traffic police have proposed area and time restrictions on the movement of cycle rickshas in Delhi. The government fixes the number of cycle rickshas that can be registered in the city (by Municipal Corporation of Delhi) and at present this is 99,000. The registration procedure requires the owner to have a valid registration card, and to register these vehicles only during stipulated times twice a year. Not surprisingly, a large number of cycle rickshas are unregistered. The true number of cycle rickshas in the city is estimated to be about 300,000. Cycle rickshas are also used for delivery of goods such as furniture, refrigerators, and washing machines. Several case studies have documented the poor, often exploitive, working conditions of cycle ricksha operators. Contractors who demand a fixed rental payment from the pullers, often with little regard to the state of the equipment or the environment in which the ricksha puller has to operate usually owns the vehicles.

Even though both types of rickshas (and other non-motorised vehicles) are widely viewed as a principal cause of congestion and chaos, they have been ignored in traffic planning and road design

Inadequate Road Infrastructure?

Delhi has an extensive road network with a total length of 26,582 km (year 1996-97) of which approximately 1148 km has a right-of-way 30m and greater than 30m. Nearly 500km of these roads already exist, remaining 852 km is proposed in new developments. Ring road and Outer Ring road are the most important arterial roads. In general, most arterial roads are six lanes divided roads. Average speeds have been reducing over the years. Peak hour traffic on arterial roads crawls through bottlenecks at major intersections. However, at non-peak hour mid block speeds tend to be much higher ranging from 50-90 km/h for buses and private motorised vehicles respectively. This leads to higher fatality rates on one hand and on the other longer waiting periods at junctions. It seems that problem lies with
the poor management of the corridor traffic flow and speed resulting in increased levels of congestion are at few spots and few corridors at peak hours. The traffic system does not meet the requirements of pedestrians, bicyclists and bus systems.

Delhi does not lack in availability of roads infrastructure in terms of space and length. However, the complexity arises due to the wide variety of vehicle types including human, animal drawn vehicles and bicycles share the same road space. With the available right of way on arterial corridors in Delhi a much better level of service and higher throughput can be provided only if the road space available can be used by all vehicles much more efficiently. At present, due to lack of dedicated facilities, bicyclists have to interact with fast moving motorised traffic. Service roads if present, are not maintained well. Footpaths are either not present or poorly maintained. The road network does not have any facilities for slow moving traffic (bicycles and rickshas), nor are there any dedicated facilities for buses, except sometimes a covered shed for bus stops.

Clearly, the extensive road network has not been developed to serve the mixed traffic present on the roads. The society pays a huge cost in terms of worsening congestion, air pollution and traffic accidents. While the growing congestion and air pollution affect all income groups, the middle and lower income groups (who are primarily dependent on public transport, bicycles and walking -the environment friendly modes) have to suffer the unusually high cost of traffic accidents. Commuting patterns of low income and high-income people residing in Delhi are significantly different (Table 2). Since nearly 50-60% of the city population resides in unauthorised slum settlements having an average income of Rs.2000/month, bicycles, buses and walking continue to be important modes of transport.

Table 2: Commuting patterns of high and low income households in Delhi (1999)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>High Income Households*</th>
<th>low Income Households**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cycle</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>31.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car</td>
<td>28.35</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC/MC</td>
<td>29.29</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxi</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rail</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walk</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>22.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** IIT survey of high and middle income households (average income Rs.7000/month)
***IIT survey of low income households (average income Rs.2000/month)

Figure 1 shows the proportion of trips made by different modes in Delhi\(^6\) and the distribution of fatalities by different road users.\(^7\) These data show that the ratio of fatalities to the proportion of trips is highest for bicycles and the lowest for buses. There are no estimates for the fatalities associated with access to the car or the bus. We can assume that some of the pedestrian fatalities would include those who are bus commuters and only a few who are car users. Therefore, if the access to the bus were included in the statistics the proportion of bus commuters getting killed would be more than the 10% shown in Figure 1. It should be noted that a large proportion of the bus commuters are killed and injured in the process of entering or leaving the bus or when they fall off a moving bus as there are no doors on public buses in Delhi. These injuries and fatalities are frequently reported in the newspapers. The higher risk associated with bus travel must be acting as a deterrent for private vehicle owners to use public
transport. These data show that people living in urban poverty, who are heavily dependent on NMVs and public transport, are the main victims of road traffic crashes.

The urban poor who are also the “transport poor” are responsible for creating environment friendly travel patterns – dependence on non-motorised modes, short trip lengths and high share of public transport. They themselves do not contribute to the environmental pollution and road accidents; however, they are the victims of road traffic accidents.

**Transport infrastructure improvement priorities**

Sustainable transportation options rely heavily on promotion of public transport and non-motorised modes. However, the actual policies promoted do not recognise the conflicts inherent in some of the measures suggested. In the name of development, a type of brutalisation of the habitat takes place that sends the already marginalised segment of the population further away to even more remote areas. Investments in transport improvement plans continue to focus on projects, which benefit car users, at the cost of environment friendly modes- NMVs, and pedestrians.

The Government of India in 1997 prepared a *White Paper* on pollution in Delhi. Subsequently an Environmental Pollution Control Authority (EPCA) was set up for the city. The policies recommended by EPCA have been driven by environment concerns aiming to achieve better speeds of motorised vehicles and less polluting fuels. These policies include the following:

- Construction of expressways and grade separated intersections.
- Introduction of one way streets and introduction of synchronised signals and area traffic control systems.
- Construction of a metro rail transport system.
- Phasing out of older buses and increases in number of buses.
- Entire bus fleet to run on compressed natural gas

Experiences from several cities suggest that construction of more high capacity roads can have the unintended effect of reductions in public transport and bicycle use without increasing vehicle speeds or reducing congestion on city roads. Reductions in bus and bicycle use would result in higher pollution levels and possible increase in traffic congestion. No detailed studies have been done to understand the effect of these changes on road user behaviour in cities of low-income countries. It is possible that in these countries the construction of high capacity roads at the expense of facilities for public transport and non-motorised traffic may make things worse for every one. These effects could include higher
incidence of congestion for motorised traffic, higher accident risk for non-motorised traffic and reductions in public transport and non-motorised traffic.

Delhi government has approved the construction of 30 new flyovers (grade separated intersections) along several arterial roads at a cost of Rs. 30 million to 300 million each depending on the design of the flyover. Pedestrians, bicycles and other non-motorised vehicles would not use these facilities. Buses may also avoid using them because commuters who have to change buses would be inconvenienced. Therefore this major capital investment is expected to benefit the car users only. Ironically the benefit to car users is also temporary because often the junction following the flyover becomes congested as large volume of traffic is dumped on to it. Similarly, while phasing out of older buses and introduction of compressed natural gas buses may reduce pollution levels in the city initially, however, new clean technology buses would be more expensive which may force many bus commuters to shift to using two wheelers which is more polluting and less safe. At a marginal cost of using a two wheeler of about 75 paisa a km (USD 0.015), the monthly expenditure amounts to about Rs 450 (USD 10) per person assuming 20 km per day for 30 days. Obviously, any public transportation cost higher than this would be resisted by commuters. Since the commuters are already paying this maximum amount, any increase in fares would shift people away from buses. Seven to ten two-wheelers pollute as much as one bus and 4 occupy as much road space as a bus when in motion. Since each bus carries 50-60 persons, if only 10 per cent of the bus user population start using two-wheelers it will have the effect of introducing another 10,000 buses on the roads of Delhi in terms of pollution and congestion. If there is more congestion, then all other vehicles will also pollute more. In addition, increase in number of two wheelers could increase the number of road accidents. This means that if all the new buses emitted only clean air, even then the pollution load in Delhi would remain the same or even increase. Therefore, no policy which results in the increase in bus fares is likely to have a beneficial effect on air quality in Delhi unless arrangements are made to subsidise public transport through innovative local taxation policies.

**Socio-economic burden to urban poor**

Low-income households spend larger share of their income on transport thus affecting their other needs such as food, shelter and health. In a recent survey in selected slums of Delhi, seventy percent of the residents responded that commuting to work is the most dangerous aspect of their work. They are more vulnerable to events like traffic accidents because in the absence of any other social network they often have to give up their temporary jobs to get to the hospital to get their relatives treated. In the absence of savings, the economic and emotional costs of traffic accident to this group of people can be disastrous and destroy the family economically for ever. There have been instances where families have been forced to sell their meagre assets, give up their temporary jobs and take loans, which takes a lifetime to repay.

**The ‘critical’ element in city transport system**

Meeting the specific needs of the most vulnerable groups in the city becomes crucial for the efficient performance of all traffic. For low income people commuting to work- walking, bicycling or affordable public transport are not a matter of choice but a necessity for survival. Therefore, whether the roads have any specific facilities for these modes or not, they continue to be used by them.

Delhi traffic laws do not segregate bicycle traffic and enforcement of speed limits is minimal. Motor Vehicles (MVs) and non-motorised vehicle (NMVs) have different densities at peak traffic hours at different locations in the city. The existing traffic characteristics, modal mix, location details, geometric design, landuse characteristics, and other operating characteristics present a unique situation where economic and travel demand compulsions have overwhelmed the official plans.
On the two and three lane roads, bicycles primarily use the outermost lane on the left, i.e. curb side lane and MVs do not use the left most lanes even at low bicycle densities. Bicyclists use the middle lanes only when they have to turn right. Even at one-lane sites the bicyclists occupy the left extreme giving space to the motorised vehicular traffic.

A study of fourteen locations in Delhi shows that maximum mixing of NMVs and MVs occurs at the bus stops. Their interaction with other MVs is minimal at other locations. On three lane roads, the MV flow rates are close to or less than 4000 passenger car units per hour. This is much less than the expected capacity of 3 lane roads. The flow for these urban localities can be taken as 2000 passenger car units per hour per lane. Though the peak volumes are not exceeding saturation capacities, we find the average speed remains in the range of 14 to 39 km/h. This shows that use of the left most lane (In India traffic keeps to left) is only partially used. However, if this space were exclusively available for bicyclists throughput would increase because the MV traffic lane is 3.5 meters wide and it can accommodate flow rates of at least 6000 bicycles per hour.

On two lanes roads the MV flow rates are close to or less than saturation values. It is only on the one-lane roads that we find flow rates of 726 bicycles/hr and 616 PCU/hr. Both these values are approximately one third of their respective saturation capacity values for one lane. Though de facto segregation takes place on two and three lane roads, an unacceptable danger exists to bicyclists because of impact with MVs. At two- and three-lane locations, it is a waste of resources not to provide a separate bicycle lane because bicycles irrespective of bicycle density occupy one whole MV lane.

Our data show that bicycle fatalities on two and three lane roads are relatively high when traffic volumes are low but conflicts between MVs and NMVs have little correlation whatsoever with fatalities during peak flows. In these locations of "integrated" traffic on two and three lane roads, fatalities during peak hours are low but not eliminated. On the other hand, during non-peak hours vehicles travelling at speeds around 50 km/h or greater kill a large number of bicyclists.

Since bicycles and other non-motorized vehicles use the left side of the road, buses are unable to use the designated bus lanes and are forced to stop in the middle lane at bus stops. This disrupts the smooth flow of traffic in all lanes and makes bicycling more hazardous. Motorized traffic does not use the curbside lane even when bicycle densities are low. Providing a separate bicycle track would make more space available for motorized modes and bicycling less hazardous.

Infrastructure for Buses
Public transport buses are the major mode of transport in Delhi. Approximately 10,000 buses carry 6 million commuters along 600 route everyday. However, the road design, traffic signals, and traffic management policies are not specifically designed for bus transport system. The design and location of the bus shelter itself does not meet the commuters requirements of providing convenient interchange between bus routes and spaces for hawkers. Therefore, often bus stops and bus shelters result in a major conflict zone between commuters and moving buses while hawkers “encroach upon” the carriage-way, and bicycles and other slow moving vehicles occupy the designated bus stops.

Roadside vendors and services for road users
Bicycles, pedestrians and bus traffic attracts street vendors. Often the side roads and pedestrian paths are occupied by people selling food, drinks and other articles, which are demanded by these road users. Vendors often locate themselves at places, which are natural markets for them. A careful analysis of location of vendors, number of vendors at each location and type of services provided them shows the need of that environment, since they work under completely “free market” principles. If the services provided them were not required at those locations, then they would have no incentive to continue staying there. However, road authorities and city authorities view their existence illegal. Often the argument is given how the presence of street vendors and hawkers reduces road capacity. If we apply the same principle that is applied for the design of road environment for motorized traffic especially private cars, then vendors have
a valid and legal place in the road environment. Highway design manuals recommends frequency and design of service area for motorised vehicles. Street vendors and hawkers serve the same function for pedestrians, bicyclists and bus users. As long as our urban roads are used by these modes, street vendors will remain inevitable and necessary.

All modes of transport move in sub-optimal conditions in the absence of facilities for pedestrians and non-motorized vehicles.

**Avoided costs due to investments in pedestrian, bicycle and public transport friendly infrastructure**

It is possible to redesign roads to meet the needs of diverse modes existing in Indian cities. This requires not only altering road geometry and traffic management policies but also legitimising the services provided by hawkers and informal sector. The road network - straight roads and intersections-geometry has to be designed from the perspective of the pedestrians, bicyclists and public transport vehicles. If the infrastructure designs do not meet the convenience of these users, then all users are forced to operate under sub optimal conditions.

A segregated bicycle lane needs 2.5 m space in Delhi as this would be used by rickshas also, and since most of the major arterial in Delhi as well other Indian cities where planned development has taken place after 1960s, have a service road, the existing road space is wide enough to accommodate a bicycle track. This would not require additional right of way for road. A detailed study completed in Delhi, India shows how existing roads can be redesigned within the given right of way to provide for an exclusive lane for NMVs (bicycles and three wheeled rickshas), a separate pedestrian path, service road and a dedicated bus lane.\(^{14}\)

The guiding principle of the proposed design is to meet the needs of pedestrians and bicyclists in terms of convenience, safety, and comfort. This enables the existing space to be reorganised for giving priority to public transport-exclusive bus lanes, better designed bus shelters, spaces for vendors, and ricksha parking. These designs benefit all road users.

**Benefit Estimation**

**Increased Capacity**

If a separate segregated lane is constructed for bicycles, the curbside lane, which is currently used by bicyclists becomes available to motorised traffic. This relatively small investment in bicycle lanes can increase the road space for motorised traffic by 50 percent on 3 lane roads. Bicycle lanes also result in better space utilisation. For instance a 3.5m wide lane has a carrying capacity of 1,800 cars per hour whereas it can carry 5,400 bicycles per hour\(^{15}\). Average occupancy of a car is 1.15 persons \(^{16}\)and bicycle carries one person. This implies that in order to move the same number of people we would need 2.6 times the road area that would be required for bicyclists. Given the fact that there is not much space available to expand existing roads, the future mobility needs and projected trips can only be met by increasing the capacity of the existing road network. This can only be achieved by encouraging modes, which are more efficient in terms of space utilisation.
Motorised vehicles benefit because of improved capacity of the road and improvement in speeds. Capacity estimations of a typical arterial road in Delhi\textsuperscript{17} show improvement in corridor capacity by 19-23% by providing an exclusive cycle track. If the full capacity of the corridor is utilised, i.e., provision of a high capacity bus lane in the left most lane can lead to capacity improvement by 56-73% (present carrying capacity of 23,000 passengers/h to 45,000 passengers/h).

**Improved speeds**

Improvement in speeds of motorised vehicles will be experienced until the corridor is full to capacity due to realisation of induced demand. Major beneficiaries of speed improvement are buses and two wheelers because curbside lane becomes available to them without interference from slow vehicles. Estimations of time savings experienced by bus commuters, car occupants and two wheeler commuters on a typical arterial corridor in Delhi\textsuperscript{18} show 48% reduction in time costs due to 50% improvement in bus speeds (from present 15km/h to 30 km/h) and 30% improvement in car and two wheelers.

**Reduced congestion**

Congestion has long been recognised as an environmental problem. Other than causing delay, it causes noise and fumes and increases health risks of road users and residents. Delhi as well as other Indian cities have invested in grade separated junctions and flyovers as one of the major congestion relief measure at an average cost of Rs. 100 million to 300 million for each intersection. However, detailed simulation of a major intersection in Delhi show that re-planning the junction to include separate NMV lanes and bus priority lane can bring in 80% improvement over the present level of delays. Cost of this measure is 25 times less than the proposed grade-separated junction\textsuperscript{19}.

**Increased safety**

By creating segregated bicycle lanes and re-designing intersections, conflicts between motorised traffic and bicyclists can be reduced substantially leading to a sharp decrease in the number of accidents and fatalities for bicyclists and motorised two-wheelers. Safety benefits estimated for a typical arterial in Delhi show 46% reduction in accident costs. This is because segregated facility reduces injury accidents by 40% and fatalities by 50%.

It is clear from the above discussion that non-motorised modes, which include bicycles, and other modes like rickshas, are an integral part of the transport system in all Indian cities. Public transport vehicles and non-motorised modes are the major modes of transport for majority of the city residents. The existing socio-economic patterns and landuse distribution ensures NMVs presence in the whole city, and on the complete road network. The densities and modal shares of NMVs in total traffic may differ from one part of the city to the other. However, as long as NMVs are present on the road, regardless of their numbers, all vehicles move under sub-optimal conditions. Efficient bus system cannot be designed without taking care of the slow vehicles (NMVs) on the road. Since sustainable transport systems in Indian cities demand moving a large number of people by bus transport and NMVs, planning for NMVs is indispensable.
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URBAN TRANSPORT PRIORITIES
MEETING THE CHALLENGE OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC DIVERSITY IN CITIES- CASE STUDY DELHI, INDIA

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Biography

My educational background includes Ph.D. (University of Illinois, Chicago, Transport Planning and Policy, with specialisation in travel demand models and traffic flow studies), Master of Urban and Policy (University of Illinois, Chicago, Transport Planning) and B. Arch (University of Roorkee). I have about 13 years of professional experience in the areas of Transport Planning, Traffic Engineering in India and USA and Bangladesh. I have been at the Indian Institute of Technology in Delhi for the last eleven years. I am responsible for research and development, imparting training and delivering professional lectures in the areas of transport planning and traffic engineering. At present I serve on the Board of The Institute for Transportation and Development Policy, New York; Board of the Sustainable Transport Action Network for Asia and the Pacific; International Board of Directors Velomondial; Highways Specifications and Standards Committee, Indian Roads Congress; Working Group on Prevention and Control of Road Traffic Accidents and Injuries, Planning Commission, Government of India.