

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS AND LIVING
ENVIRONMENT OF SLUMS : CASE STUDY
OF A SQUATTER SETTLEMENT
IN METROPOLITAN DELHI**

*Dissertation submitted to the Jawaharlal Nehru University
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MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

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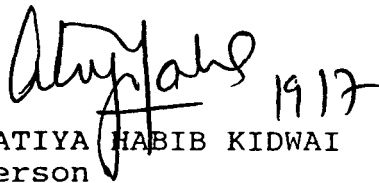


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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS AND LIVING ENVIRONMENT OF SLUMS: CASE STUDY OF A SQUATTER SETTLEMENT IN METROPOLITAN DELHI submitted by Ananta Charan Mallick, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of degree of Master of Philosophy of the University, is to the best of my knowledge, a bonafide work and may be placed before the examiners for evaluation.


1917

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TO SQUATTER DWELLERS

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ANANTA CHARAN MALLICK

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

I.1 Problem

The rate of urbanization in third world countries in general, and India in particular, is rapid. Population in urban areas increased almost ten times between 1901 and 1991, and the number of urban settlements doubled in this period to 3,768. Since the beginning of this century the urban population has steadily increased to about 26 per cent or 217 million in 1991. "Among the urban areas, the small towns are somewhat stagnating while the 23 metropolitan cities (as per 1991 census) stand out very prominently as they accommodate about one-third of the total urban population. Above all the four largest metropolitan cities i.e., Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras accounted for nearly one-fourth of all urban population".¹ These poly-metropolitan apex of urbanization is due to large scale immigration from poverty-stricken rural areas, and also due to their own natural increase.

The rapid urbanization and industrialization in the cities provide more employment opportunities and, thus, attract a large number of poor people from surrounding areas. The poor working class people who cannot find adequate housing for their living squat wherever they find some space - public or private open space within the proximity of their working

¹ K. Sing and F. Steinberg in Introduction to Urban India in Crisis (eds.), K. Sing and F. Steinberg, New Age International Publishers, New Delhi, 1996, p.xxix.

areas. These areas, lacking in the basic amenities and facilities, not only challenge the very safety of urban life but also the slum itself.

The national capital, Delhi, is no exception. Every year there is an addition of 70,000 migrants to the capital's population. Growth of population has brought about degradation in the quality of living and the slums and squatters have multiplied manifold. The essential infrastructure of the cities has reached the verge of collapse. According to an estimation, seventy percent of Delhi's population lives in substandard conditions.

I.2 Concepts and Categories of Slums in Delhi

According to the Slum Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act 1956, slums are the areas where buildings are (a) in any respect unfit for human habitation; and (b) are by reason of dilapidation, over-crowding, faulty arrangements and design of such buildings, narrowness or faulty arrangements of streets, lack of ventilation, light or sanitation facilities or any combination of these factors, are detrimental to safety, health and morals.

The Slum Area Act of 1956 was originally enacted for Delhi and it applied to other union territories in the country as well.

In Delhi, there are four types of slums, viz. (i) notified slums, (ii) unauthorized colonies, (iii) resettlement

colonies, and (iv) squatters (jhuggies).

(i) Notified slums are distributed/defined pockets. The old city of Shahjahanabad (walled city), its extension and certain urban villages have been notified as slums. These slums accommodated around 10 lakh population in 1985.

(ii) Unauthorized colonies are areas developed by private colonizers with profitable layout plan without any regard to the need of the community facilities as well as basic amenities required for the individual plot. "The number of unauthorized colonies was recorded 945 upto March 1991 and population living in these areas was estimated to be around 17 lakh as in December 1990".²

(iii) Resettlement colonies are called so because under the slum clearance programme (1960-70), municipality/Delhi Development Authority has allotted small developed plots and modestly built up tenements to jhuggi-dwellers in planned and developed colonies. "Under this scheme, 2.14 lakh households were accommodated in these colonies. The community facilities provided to these colonies are found to be non-functional and the living conditions are even poorer than the notified slum areas".³

(iv) Squatter (jhuggi-jhompri) clusters are spread all over

² H.S. Gill, (1992) Housing the poor - an analysis with special reference to slum colonies in Delhi. Unpublished thesis, SSS/CSRD, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, pp.1-20.

³ Ibid.

the city in Delhi. It is conglomeration of houses built up without regular foundation on public land meant for future development, on drain sides, on the side of railway tracks, on the bank of river Yamuna.) These squatters are made of straw, mud, loose bricks, tin, wood, corrugated sheets etc. Without a regular foundation, jhuggies are not arranged in a particular order and haphazard development has taken place. "In 1991 it is estimated that jhuggi clusters has accomodated around 12 lakh population in Delhi".⁴

Since the squatters are the place worst among the worse, our present study is based on a squatter settlement in Delhi.

I.3 The Study Area

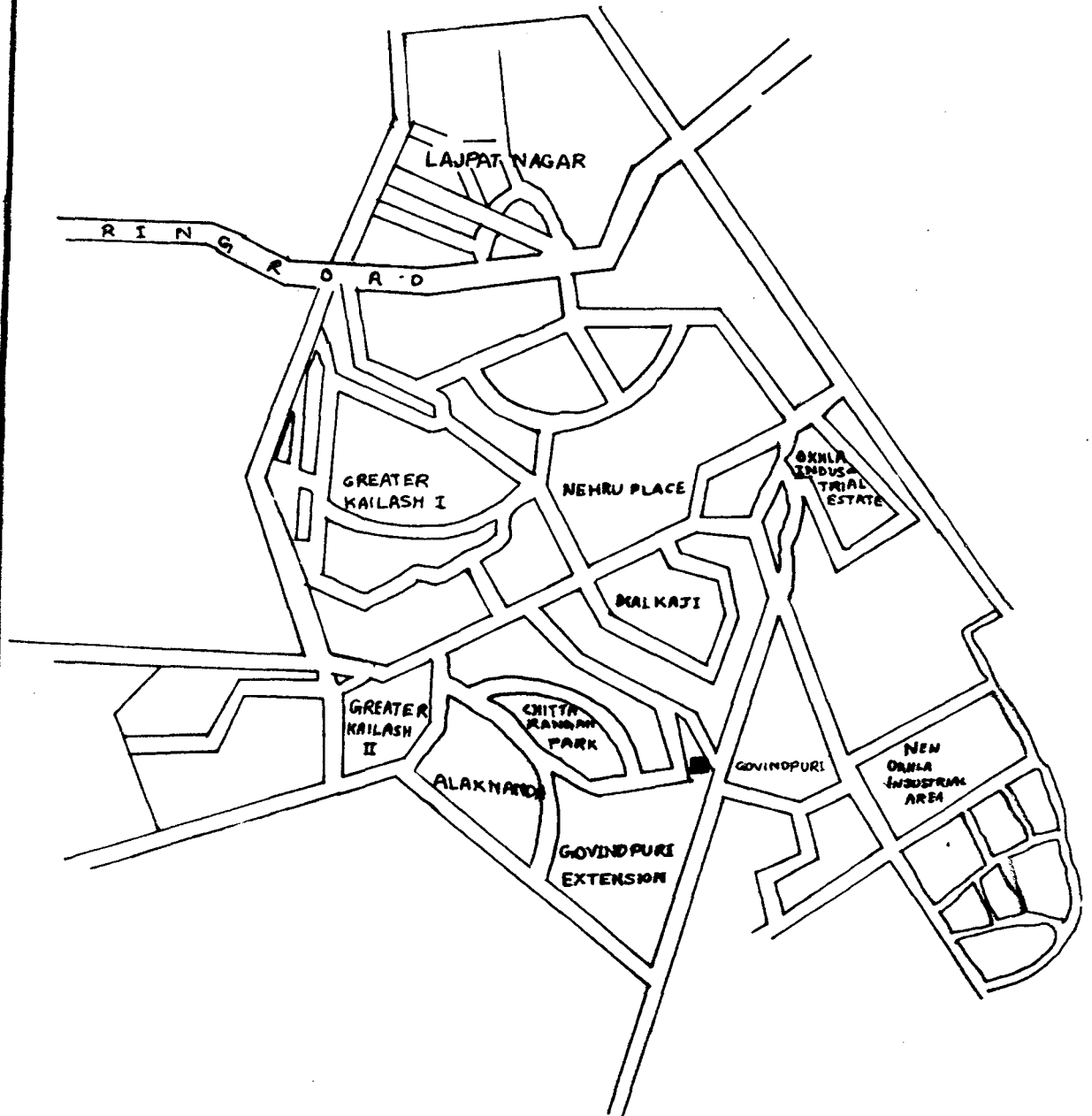
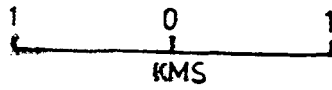
The squatter settlement selected for study is from South Delhi planning zone as large number of slums are concentrated in this zone. The squatter settlement named Bhumiheen Camp is located near Kalkaji D.D.A. flats, situated five kilometers from Nehru Place in South-east direction, surrounded by New Okhla Industrial Area, Okhla Industrial Estate and Gobindpuri Extension which has a strong base of industries and factories.

I.4 Objectives of the Study

1. To evaluate the quality of life in Indian slums taking into account their socio-economic characterization and living

⁴ R.G. Gupta, (1991) "Planning, Development and Construction of Urban Spaces in Delhi: An Overview. Yojana, April 15, p.27.

LOCATION MAP



■ - BHUMDHEEN CAMP

Fig. I-1

conditions.

2. To study the growth rate and spatial distribution of slums and squatters in Delhi.
3. To show the demographic characteristics of the people living in the squatter.
4. To examine the process of migration and to analyse which of the factors, i.e. Push or Pull, are more responsible for the migration of the squatter dwellers.
5. To give detail account of the nature of the migration and examine whether there is any shift or change in the occupation of the migrants through the process of migration.
6. To give a detailed account of the economic activities, occupational structure and employment status of the squatter dwellers.
7. To prepare a comprehensive report on the living environment of the squatter settlement.

I.5 Data Base and Methodology

For the purpose of study, both primary and secondary data have been used. As the census of India does not give the data on slum dwellers separately, the information about all India slum conditions was collected from N.S.S.O. reports on its 31st and 44th rounds of survey performed in the years 1976-77 and 1986-89 respectively. The information about the number and distribution of slums in Delhi was collected from the documents of the Slum Wing of Delhi Development Authority. The

data on the squatter settlements have been collected canvassing questionnaire at household levels. The survey was conducted during December 1991 and January 1992. The household schedule generated the information about details of socio-demographic, economic characteristics, migration and infrastructure facilities and civic amenities available to the squatter settlement.

To handle the data, the simple statistical tools like percentage and classification are used in most of the cases. To observe the male-female disparity, Sopher's Index of Gender disparity was used. The formula of the Index is as follows:

$$\text{Log } \frac{XM}{XF} + \text{Log } \frac{100 - XF}{100 - XM}$$

where

XM = value of the corresponding indicator for the males
 XF = value of the corresponding indicator for the females

In some cases, the tool correlation coefficient as given by Karl Pearson has been used to see the relationship between the two variables. The formula of the method is as follows:

$$r = \frac{\frac{\Sigma XY - \frac{\Sigma X \Sigma Y}{N}}{\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma X^2 - \frac{(\Sigma X)^2}{N}}{N}}}}{\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma Y^2 - \frac{(\Sigma Y)^2}{N}}{N}}}$$

For 't' test the formula is $t = r \frac{\sqrt{n-2}}{1 - r^2}$

To calculate dependency ratio and work participation, the following formulae are used:

$$\text{Dependency ratio} = \frac{\text{Population under 15 years + Population 60 years and over}}{\text{Population aged 15-59 years}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Work participation rate} = \frac{\text{Total number of workers}}{\text{Total population}} \times 100$$

I.6 Organisation of the Study

The study is spread over seven chapters including the introduction and conclusion chapters. In the first chapter, the introduction and literature survey of the subject has been given. In the second chapter, quality of life in slums of India is discussed, by analysing the socio-economic conditions and facilities available in the slums of the class I cities.

In the third chapter, socio-demographic characteristics of the squatter population have been discussed, taking into account the age, sex, marital status, educational level, caste, religion and ethnic background. In the fourth chapter, the place of origin of the squatter population, their cause of migration, year of migration, occupation at the place of origin and present occupation, contact in migration have been discussed. The fifth chapter analyses the economic characteristics of the squatter population like workers, non-workers, work participation rate, industrial classification of workers, employment status, occupation structure and distance to work place.

In the sixth chapter an attempt has been made to evaluate the living environment of the squatter settlement, by considering the facilities and amenities available to them. Finally, we draw the conclusion of the study.

I.7 Literature Survey

The presence of slums and squatter settlements in a society is a clear indication of the failure of a society and government to provide adequate habitat for human development. They are also constant reminder of the loopholes in urban planning. The term 'slum' is used to indicate housing which falls below a certain level which is necessary to contribute

to human development (Aldrich and Sandhu)⁵. The term 'squatter settlement' is used to indicate housing that is either the result of illegal occupation or has developed in an unauthorized fashion (World Bank, 1992).⁶

United Nations Urban Land policies⁷ defines slum as a building, group of buildings or areas characterized by overcrowding, deterioration, insanitary conditions or absence of facilities or amenities which because of these conditions or any of them, endanger the health, safety or morals of its inhabitants or the community.

Deccan Herald⁸ in one of its articles mentioned slum as having small tenements, narrow lanes and a lack of sanitation with no thought for the quality of life. Birdi⁹ in his book said that slums are, physically, areas of the city with inadequate housing, deficient facilities, over crowding and congestion, and socially, slum is a way of life, having a special character with its own set of norms and values as

⁵ B.C. Aldrich and R.S. Sandhu (eds.) "The Global Context of Housing Policy" in Housing the Urban Poor: Policy and Practice in Developing Countries, Vistar Publications, New Delhi, 1995, pp.17-33.

⁶ World Bank, The Housing Indicators Program, Washington, D.C., The World Bank, 1992.

⁷ K.R. Rao, and M.S.A. Rao, Cities and Slums: A Study of Squatters' Settlement in the city of Vijayawada, Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi, 1964.

⁸ Deccan Herald, 21st July 1987, Bangalore.

⁹ H.D. Birdi, Delhi - Slums and Law: A Comparative Study of Indian and Foreign Law, ISSD, New Delhi, 1982.

reflected in poor sanitation, health values, health practices, deviant behaviour and social isolation.

There are several definitions of slums, but the definition we have followed in our study is the same as followed by Delhi Development Authority and as defined by Slum Area (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1956. According to this Act, slums are those areas where the buildings are in any respect unfit for human habitation and are by reason of dilapidation, over crowding, faulty arrangements and design of such buildings, narrowness or faulty arrangements of streets, lack of ventilation, light or sanitation facilities or any combination of these factors, are detrimental to safety, health and moral.

About the causes and conditions under which slum emerge, Rao in his study¹⁰ said that slums are created mainly because of poverty, social backwardness and unemployment of people living in countryside, who subsequently move to urban areas left without any other option. The rapid industrialization in the towns and cities provides more opportunities, and thus attracts a large number of people from the surrounding areas.

Rao and Rao¹¹ in their study of slums said that there are three conditions under which the slums emerge. Firstly, due to squatting of poor migrants; secondly, deterioration of group

¹⁰ P.M. Rao, Environment and Upliftment of Slums in India, Vohra Publications, Allahabad (n.d).

¹¹ K.R. Rao, and M.S.A. Rao, op. cit., pp.3-4.

of buildings in the old part of city; and thirdly, due to city expansion the villages of peripheral areas become slums without any infrastructure facilities.

About the places where the slums and squatters have emerged, Mehta and Kulkarni (1983)¹² examined the factors responsible for choice among Slum dwellers to live therein. The response of slum dwellers to their environment is best manifested in their separate physical entity. One can always mark the slum pockets quite definitely in any urban area. Hardoy and Satterthwaite (1989)¹³ analysing the slum conditions in third world countries found that the slums are developed on most unhealthy and polluted land sides. They also develop in sites subject to high noise levels, close to major highways or airports. They pointed out that poor groups do not live in these places in ignorance of dangers, rather they choose such sites because these sites meet their more immediate and pressing needs. Polluted sites are cheap because they are dangerous and commercially unsuitable. Rao and Rao (1984)¹⁴ observed that slums emerge at the vacant piece of land near the work place.

¹² S. Mehta, and P.Kulkarni, Location choice among slum dwellers, a human response to urban environment in Environment Management (eds.) L.R. Singh et. al., The Allahabad Geographical Society, 1983, pp.188-196.

¹³ J.E. Hardoy, and D. Satterthwaite, Squatter Citizen: Life in Urban Third World, Earthscan Publications Ltd., London 1989, p.159.

¹⁴ K.R. Rao, and M.S.A. op. cit., p.3.

Most of the studies carried out by scholars on slums are based on individual cities except some of them wherein the all India slum conditions are discussed. In the earlier studies of slums at individual cities, the Bharat Sevak Samaj (1958) has organized a socio-economic survey of the slums of Delhi.¹⁵

The organization concluded that the slum areas required prevention of future congestion, planned decentralization of population, economic betterment and clearance programmes. D'Souza (1968) has analysed the geographical distribution of the poor people who live under slum conditions, as they can not afford to pay rent.¹⁶ In Chandigarh, such people were shifted to labour colonies in the fringe sector, so that their presence did not affect the beauty and cleanliness of the city. Each dweller was allotted on nominal rent a small plot, measuring 9 ft. x 6 ft., but the plots were not evenly distributed among the dwellers. The study explains the nature of the limitations that came across during the State Sponsored Planning towards the rehabilitation of homeless in the Chandigarh city. The State Communicated Programme thus, might have provided a shelter to many, but according to the study results, it proves that it could not prevent the "structurally located inequality" within the slum dwellers, only a few of

¹⁵ Bharat Sevak Samaj, Slums of Old Delhi: Report of the Socio-Economic Survey of the Slum Dwellers of Old Delhi, Atma Ram and Sons, New Delhi.

¹⁶ A. De Souza, "The Challenge of Urban Poverty: An Introduction" in De Souza, A. (ed.), Social Structure of a Planned City, Orient Longman, New Delhi.

them have taken a lead by constructing attached pucca houses to the original one.

Ghosh and others (1972) have made a detailed survey of Calcutta with special reference to the landuse pattern, the utility services, housing condition and traffic arrangement of the major metropolitan city.¹⁷ They have found that the major concentration of squatter settlement occur near the railway crossings, local bus depots and in the low-lying areas in the heart of the city. Thus the study found that the organic growth of the city is linked with the degeneration of old slum areas and their benefit to the new areas which once again termed to the overall growth of the city.

Tanuja (1973) while analysing the morphology of residential areas in Indian cities, has discussed the nature and characteristics of slums.¹⁸ Citing the examples of Kanpur and Delhi, she claims that slum development in India indicates that it is the result of overcrowding and haphazard growth of the cities. Immigrants lured by job opportunities in industrial units also take up other occupations, such as petty shopkeeping, domestic servants, milkmen, rickshaw and cart pullers and even beggars. The study, however, did not cover the aspects of Market employment-manpower utility syndrome and thereby ends up with a presentation on the facts and related

¹⁷ M. Ghosh, A.K. Dutta, and B. Roy, Calcutta: A Study in Urban Growth Dynamics, Calcutta, 1972.

¹⁸ K.L. Tanuja, "Morphology of Residential Areas in Indian Cities", Singh, R.L. (ed.), op. cit., pp.188-193.

theory. Bose (1973) has made a comprehensive study of the trend of urbanization in India and in the twentieth century.¹⁹ He has also analysed the nature and spatial characteristics of Indian slums. Sinha (1974) has studied the cost aspect of slums of Patna and has suggested measures to eradicate this problem from the city.²⁰ He, though successful in explaining it elaborately, could not give a contemplatory analysis over the preparedness and the commitment of the executives who are responsible for the implementation of the development programmes. Presumably, the Administrative aspect could have been examined thoroughly.

Khatu (1975) has examined the nature and characteristics of slums of Baroda and has identified two distinct categories i.e., inherited and satellite slums.²¹ The former includes the villages which were incorporated into the city during its expansion, while the latter includes the blighted areas that grew around the former on illegally occupied areas. Apart from the advantages of the study, the aspect of urban expansion again could not be presented with a political economy angle, contrary to the above studies.

D'Souza (1978) has remarked that unplanned and haphazard

¹⁹ A. Bose, Studies in India's Urbanization, 1901-1971, Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Co. Ltd., Bombay, 1973.

²⁰ B.N. Sinha, Past Trends and Present Position of Slum in the Cities of Bihar: With Special Reference to Patna, Patna Improvement Trust, Patna, 1974.

²¹ B.N. Khatu, "Baroda Slums: A Case Study in Misuse of Land", Deccan Geography, no.13, 1975, pp.225-234.

growth of the metropolitan cities in India was a factor for the rapid development of the blighted areas.²² He has estimated that one-fifth of the total urban population (22 million) lived in slums or squatter settlements. In Ahmedabad, nearly 45 percent of the total urban population lived in slums, and their number amounted to 2.5 million in Calcutta. He has also studied the nature of urban planning, renewal, housing for the poor and socio-economical characteristics of the slums in the background of urban poverty. The studies though providing a rich understanding of the urban problems of India, ignore the extraneous factors like nature of policy, mechanisations of market economy and manoeuvring of the industrial class over the very growth of urbanization.

Lahiri (1978) has discussed the urban problems of Calcutta, particularly those arising out of the population growth, mass migration, employment situation and transport.²³ He has correlated them with the squatter problem which has showed a tendency to grow in the heart of the city. Singh (1979) has made an extensive socio-ecological study of

²² A. De Souza, The Challenges of Urban Poverty. An Introduction in The Indian City: Poverty, Ecology and Urban Development, (ed.) De Souza, A., Manohar Publications, 1978.

²³ T.B. Lahiri, "Calcutta - A Million City with a Million Problems", in Million Cities of India (ed.), Mishra, R.P., Vikas Publishing House, New Delhi, 1978, pp.48-56.

Shillong and its environment.²⁴ He has studied the landuse pattern and has suggested a model pattern for future developments. Sahani (1980) has also discussed the spatial character of the chawls or squatter settlements in Bombay and has stressed the need for public utility service,²⁵ and their availability to the urban poor.

Rao and Rao (1984) discussed the pattern of the growth of slums in the city of Vijayawada and the nature of its social organization.²⁶ They also discussed the process of migration and the adjustments of the migrants to the urban conditions and the occupational mobility of the migrants in the city economy. Majumdar (1983), in his study of the slums in Delhi,²⁷ focused to see urbanizing rural migrants in their interactive context of social, economic, cultural and environmental factors. Within the context of the study he defined the quality of life in slums in terms of its social and physical dimensions. He also made an attempt to identify the process through which rural migrants overcome their disadvantage, which he thought is a vital element in their

²⁴ J.P. Singh, Urban Land Use Planning in Hill Areas: A Case Study of Shillong, Inter-India Publications Delhi, 1979.

²⁵ R.T. Sahani, "Slums: The Backlash of Rural Poverty, Bombay's Slum World", Social Welfare, vol.XXVII, no.1-2, 1980, pp.9-11.

²⁶ K.R. Rao, and M.S.A. Rao, op.cit.

²⁷ T.K. Majumdar, Urbanizing Poor: A Sociological Study of the Low Income Migrant Community in the Metropolitan City of Delhi, Lancers Publishers, New Delhi, 1983.

development process. And in this process they became an integral part of the total system of functioning.

Pathak (1983) critically evaluated the physical environment of Calcutta's slum and provided suitable measures to improve them.²⁸ Roy (1992) gave a detailed account of the slum situation in Calcutta.²⁹ Taking into account the sanitation, water and toilet facilities, he mentioned that although some of the facilities are upto the level of satisfaction, the problems of garbage disposal, sewerage and water logging and flooding are major threats to the environment of the bustee dwellers. Rao (1983)³⁰ in a study of the slums in Poona, about socio-economic conditions of stone cutters mentioned that 74 percent of the people are below the poverty line. Shafi (1995)³¹ in his article about slum conditions in Delhi mentioned that the national capital becoming the slum capital of India with 929 jhuggies clusters containing a population of 1.7 million which is incidentally more than its 1947 population. Discussing the problems in slums, he mentioned that teeming slums lacking safe drinking water, elementary hygiene and basic sanitation, with

²⁸ C.R. Pathak, Environmental Problems of Calcutta City, ISEMA Abstract, NATMO, Calcutta, 1983.

²⁹ P. Roy, and others, "Measuring bustee environment in Calcutta", Social Change, vol.22, no.1, March 1992, pp.120-39.

³⁰ S.N. Rao, Social Organization in an Indian Slum: Study of a Caste in Slum, Mittal Publications, New Delhi, 1983.

³¹ S.S. Shafi, India's Urban Crisis, Patriot, 16 January 1995.

putrefying garbage heaps lead to the spread of diseases.

Slums and squatters are the component of our urban system and contribute a significant quantity of labour force to urban labour market and generate adequate income to sustain the urban economy but the slum dwellers are denied the very basic amenities for their sustenance. They live in very squalid conditions. Kundu (1991),³² in an attempt to examine the magnitude of disparity in the access to the basic facilities of the poor people, said that, absence of protected water and sewerage and sanitation facilities in slums creates serious environmental problems to the people. In another study,³³ he argued that the urban poor get only a small share of the basic facilities and have access to only the lower order amenities while the non-poor is getting the larger share of the higher order of services, in per capita terms. According to him, the situation in slums is worse, the water supply in the public stand points is much less than in other areas with low water pressure and short duration of supply. About the latrine facilities, Kundu (1991, 1994); Majumdar (1983) and Hardoy and Satterthwaite (1989) mentioned that lack of latrine facilities force people to defecate in open space. Hardoy³⁴

³² A. Kundu, Micro Environment in Urban Planning: Access of Poor to Water Supply and Sanitation, Economic and Political Weekly, vol.26, no.37, 1991, p;2167-71.

³³ _____, In the Name of Urban Poor: Access to Basic Amenities, Sage Publication, New Delhi, 1993.

³⁴ J.E. Hardoy, and D. Satterthwaite, 1989, op.cit.

said that one-third of the urban people in India have no latrine of any kind while another one-third rely on bucket latrines. One-third may use latrines connected to sewers but only 10 percent have sewerage connections in their homes. Kundu³⁵ mentioned that the conditions of jhuggi-jhompri clusters in Delhi are much worse. Nearly 37 percent of the households do not have access to any type of latrine or sanitation facilities, 26 percent use community toilets while only 2.4 percent have individual toilets. Majumdar³⁶ found that inadequate facilities for latrine and their overuse by too many persons in the absence of their regular cleaning, had made most of them not only unserviceable but also extremely unhygienic.

Degraded living environment in the slums leads to poor health conditions of its dwellers. The crowded, cramped conditions transmitted the diseases like tuberculosis, influenza and meningitis easily. Further the spreading of diseases often aided by low resistance among the individuals due to malnutrition. In Kanpur, one of India's major industrial centres, the development authority estimated that 60 percent of the children in slums had tuberculosis (C.S.E.)³⁷. In a study, Basta (1979)³⁸ said that in the slums

³⁵ A. Kundu, 1991, op. cit.

³⁶ Majumdar, T.K. 1983, op. cit.

³⁷ Centre for Science and Environment, The State of India's Environment: A Citizen's Report, Delhi, 1983.

of Delhi, the infant mortality rate was 221 per 1000 live births. Among the lowest castes, the infant mortality rate was more than double.

In spite of all the problems, the slum people are struggling hard to live and they are trying to create better environment for their descendants so that they may become more dignified members of the society than their ancestors. Sandhu (1985)³⁹ in his study mentioned that not all slums are areas of darkness and despair. Their poverty may be economical but not socio-cultural.

³⁸ S.S. Basta, Nutrition and Health in Low Income Urban Areas of the Third World, Ecology, Food and Nutrition, vol.6, 1977, pp.113-124.

³⁹ R.S. Sandhu, Slums: Areas of Darkness and Despair? Eastern Anthropologist, vol.38, no.2, April-June 1985, pp.151-60.

CHAPTER II

QUALITY OF LIFE IN INDIAN SLUMS

In this chapter the socio-economic and living conditions of the slum dwellers have been discussed based on the secondary sources of information. Lack of information about slum conditions in various states limited the effort. There is only one source of information i.e. NSSO, available, and it is limited only to the periods 1976-77 and 1988-89. The chapter is divided into two sections. In the first section an all India picture of slums has been given by analysing number of slums, area under slums and estimated number of slum population in class I cities, its socio-economic characteristics and living environment. In the second section, slum conditions of Delhi, its growth rate and population over periods have been given.

SECTION I

SLUM CONDITIONS IN INDIA

II.1 Number of Slums, Area under Slums and Estimated Number of Households and Persons in Slum Areas of Class I cities of India 1976-77

The 31st round of NSSO 1976-77, reported an estimated 18 lakh households and 85.1 lakh people living in 10.2 thousand slums. The detailed information of these is given in Table II.1. The information on slum people shows that highest the percentage of slum population was in Maharashtra (22.65%).



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The class I cities of Tamil Nadu and Bihar have 15.84 per cent and 14.74 per cent of slum population, respectively. These three states comprise of more than fifty percent of the slum population of India. Five to ten percentage of the slum population was in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Delhi, and Uttar Pradesh. These three states constituted around one-fourth of the slum population residing in class I cities of India. One to four percentage of slum population was reported in eight states, viz. Gujrat, Madhya Pradesh, Karnataka, Punjab, Rajasthan, Bihar, Kerala and Orissa. Less than one per cent of the slum population was reported in six states/union territories, viz. Chandigarh, Pondicherry, Jammu and Kashmir, Meghalaya, Haryana and Assam. These six states/union territories constituted only one per cent of the slum population. The distribution of slum the population shows that three-fourths of the people are concentrated in six states and the rest of one fourth people in 14 states.

The information on the distribution of slum households also shows that most of the households are concentrated in some selected states. Maharashtra has maximum percentage (21.7%) of the households, followed by West Bengal (18.08%) and Tamil Nadu (15.25%). These three states comprised of more than fifty per cent of the total households. Five to ten per cent households were in Andhra pradesh, Delhi, Uttar Pradesh. One to five per cent households were in 8 states/union territories viz. Madhya Pradesh, Gujrat, Karnataka, Punjab,

Table II.1 Number of Slums, Area Under Slums and Estimated Number of Households and Persons in Slum Area of Class-I Cities: 1976-77

States/Union territories	Area in acres	Percentage	Households	Percentage	Persons	Percentage
All India	75919.57		18099		85112	
Andhra Pradesh	4063.25	5.35	1936	10.70	8948	10.51
Assam	102.31	0.13	15	0.08	54	0.06
Bihar	11859.66	15.62	255	1.41	1271	1.49
Gujarat	1175.28	1.55	614	3.39	3288	3.86
Haryana	146.5	0.19	27	0.15	90	0.11
Jammu and Kashmir	37.0	0.05	25	0.14	145	0.17
Karnataka	4149.32	5.47	578	3.19	3186	3.74
Kerala	966.39	1.27	200	1.11	1221	1.43
Madhya Pradesh	1521.2	2.0	631	3.49	3231	3.80
Maharashtra	23893.9	31.47	3924	21.68	19274	22.65
Meghalaya	76.0	0.10	22	0.12	133	0.16
Orissa	2838.33	3.74	243	1.34	922	1.08
Punjab	833.07	1.10	499	2.76	2382	2.80
Rajasthan	2815.04	3.71	329	1.82	1680	1.97
Tamil Nadu	6691.92	8.81	2760	15.25	13484	15.84
Uttar Pradesh	3638.61	4.79	1067	5.90	5293	6.22
West Bengal	7939.98	10.46	3273	18.08	12551	14.75
Chandigarh	68.0	0.09	56	0.31	223	0.26
Delhi	2970.77	3.91	1610	8.90	7579	8.90
Pondicherry	97.0	0.13	35	0.19	177	0.21

Source - NSS 31st round survey on slum conditions in class I cities 1976-77.

Rajasthan, Bihar, Orissa and Kerala. These eight states contributed less than one fourth of the total households. Less than one per cent households were in Chandigarh, Pondicherry, Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir, Meghalaya and Assam. These eight states/union territories contributed only one per cent of the households.

The information regarding area under slums shows that, of the total surveyed area of 75919.57 acres of land under the slums, maximum land under slums was in Maharashtra (31.47%). While Bihar had only 1.5 per cent of the slum population and 1.4% of the households, it had 15.62% of area under slums. It may be due to slum people of class I cities of Bihar keeping domestic animals particularly cow, buffalo and pigs so they occupied more land. In West Bengal and Tamil Nadu, 10.4 per cent and 8.8% of the land was occupied by the slum dwellers respectively. These four states accounted for around 80 per cent of the total slum area in class I cities of India. One to six per cent area under slums was reported in 10 states/union territories viz. Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, Orissa, Rajasthan, Madhya pradesh, Gujrat, Kerala and Punjab. In the remaining six states, less than one per cent area under slums was reported; they were Haryana, Assam, Pondicherry, Meghalaya, Chandigarh and Jammu and Kashmir.

II.2 Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Slums in Class I Cities of India 1976-77

Based on the NSSO data of 1976-77, some selected socio-economic characteristics of the slums of class I cities has been discussed. The aspects discussed are household size; number of children of 0-14 years; females 15 years and above and males 15 years and above per household; sex ratio; percentage of children 5-14 years not attending school, male and female literates; percentage of males and females with job; average monthly per capita expenditure; percentage of households residing in kutchha dwellings and incidence of unemployment.

About the household size in slums, largest average size of households was reported in Bihar (6), closely followed by Kerala (5.9). Household size of 5 to 5.8 people was found in slums of Jammu and Kashmir, Gujarat, Pondicherry, Karnataka and Rajasthan. Household size of 4 to 4.9 people was reported in slums of Haryana, Maharashtra, Orissa, Meghalaya, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Delhi and West Bengal. The smallest household size (3.4 people) was reported in the slums of Chandigarh.

About the number of children 0-14 years per household, maximum number of children was reported in Jammu and Kashmir (2.78), followed by Kerala (2.46), Bihar (2.44), Karnataka (2.4), Gujarat (2.36), Orissa (2.03) and Pondicherry (2.02). Households reporting less than 2 children were in Andhra

Table 11.2 Some Selected Socio-Economic Characteristics of Slum Households by States/Union territories

States/union territories	Household size	Per household number of			Female per 100 persons	Percentage of children 5-14 years not attending school	Percentage of literate	
		Children 0-14 yrs	Female 15 yrs & above	Male 15 yrs & above			Male	Females
Andhra Pradesh	4.52	1.02	1.36	1.34	51	54	50	28
Assam	4.03	1.33	1.12	1.58	45	59	69	38
Bihar	6.00	2.44	1.70	1.81	47	73	40	13
Gujarat	5.50	2.36	1.48	1.63	46	55	43	23
Haryana	4.98	2.27	1.31	1.40	45	58	47	12
Jammu & Kashmir	5.55	2.78	1.33	1.44	49	44	40	29
Karnataka	5.50	2.40	1.54	1.60	48	58	42	24
Kerala	5.90	2.46	1.80	1.64	51	24	72	62
Madhya Pradesh	5.13	2.27	1.40	1.46	48	57	51	22
Maharashtra	4.84	1.96	1.32	1.56	47	40	60	35
Meghalaya	4.68	1.72	1.38	1.58	47	31	68	49
Orissa	4.76	2.03	1.33	1.40	46	51	44	16
Punjab	4.53	1.80	1.22	1.50	46	40	53	38
Rajasthan	5.10	2.30	1.36	1.46	47	60	50	17
Tamil Nadu	4.57	1.78	1.37	1.40	49	43	57	32
Uttar Pradesh	4.60	1.80	1.23	1.54	45	48	50	28
West Bengal	4.00	1.36	1.01	1.58	42	42	63	41
Chandigarh	3.64	1.41	0.89	1.34	41	45	42	25
Delhi	4.41	1.72	1.13	1.56	44	43	50	45
Pondicherry	5.17	2.02	1.54	1.61	79	51	46	30

Source: Socio-economic Conditions of Households in Slums of Class I Cities, N.S.S. 31st Round, 1976-77

Table II.2 contd...

States/union territories	Percentage of people with job or at work		Average monthly per capita expenditure (Rs)	Percentage of households residing in kutcha dwelling units	Incidence of unemployment
	Male	Female			
Andhra Pradesh	55	19	59	62	4.65
Assam	64	77	74	83	2.13
Bihar	52	13	49	31	2.98
Gujarat	50	16	54	37	3.33
Haryana	49	20	50	32	1.31
Jammu and Kashmir	47	8	41	48	-
Karnataka	50	20	48	51	4.11
Kerala	43	22	42	74	12.25
Madhya Pradesh	48	18	53	40	3.12
Maharashtra	52	14	58	28	5.68
Meghalaya	53	13	72	3	-
Orissa	55	15	64	74	-
Punjab	56	10	64	20	-
Rajasthan	47	19	57	31	-
Tamil Nadu	54	22	46	70	9.92
Uttar Pradesh	53	8	54	20	2.93
West Bengal	58	8	69	26	8.65
Chandigarh	72	13	71	45	-
Delhi	57	17	64	19	2.69
Pondicherry	50	14	40	97	-

Pradesh, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Chandigarh and Delhi. The least number of children per household was reported in slums of Assam (1.33).

The number of females of the age of 15 years and above per household shows that slums of Kerala have maximum number of females (1.8) closely followed by Bihar (1.7). Both Karnataka and Pondicherry reported 1.54 females per household. The lowest number of females was reported in the slums of Chandigarh (0.89). In the rest of the states/union territories, only 1 to 1.4 females was found. Number of males 15 years of age and above per household shows that slums of Bihar had maximum number of males (1.81), followed by Kerala (1.64), Gujarat (1.63), and Karnataka (1.6). Slums of Chandigarh which reported lesser number of females also reported lesser number of males (1.34).

The sex ratio of slum population in class I cities found was beyond expectation. It was even very low in the states where the state level sex ratio is very high. Among the states/union territories, a higher sex ratio was reported in Pondicherry and that is only 79 females per 100 males. It is followed by Andhra Pradesh where the sex ratio is only 51. In the rest of the states/union territories, the sex ratio was less than 50 females per 100 males. The lowest sex ratio was reported in Chandigarh (41). A very low sex ratio in slums of class I cities is due to male selective migration to the

slums.

About male and female literates, the highest level of the male literates was reported in the slums of Kerala (72%) followed by Assam (69%), Meghalaya (68%), West Bengal (63%) and Maharashtra (60%). Fifty to sixty per cent male literacy was reported in Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh. Lower percentage of literate males was reported in Jammu and Kashmir and Bihar (both 40%). In rest of the states/union territories, the percentage of male literate was 41-49 percent.

About female literates, states/union territories showed a very diversified picture. In Kerala the percentage of female literates was 62 percent and in Haryana only 12 percent. In Meghalaya, the percentage of female literates reported 62 percent. After Meghalaya, a distant percentage of female literates was reported in Delhi (45%) followed by West Bengal (41%). Thirty to forty percent female literates were reported in Punjab, Assam, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Pondicherry. Less than 30 percent female literates were found in Jammu and Kashmir, Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Chandigarh, Karnataka, Gujarat and Madhya Pradesh. Female literates even lower than 20 per cent were found in Rajasthan (17%), Orissa (16%), Bihar (13%) and Haryana (12%).

Gender disparity of literates shows that a higher male-female disparity was reported in Haryana (0.81) followed by Rajasthan (0.68), Bihar (0.65) and Orissa (0.61). Lower gender

disparity was reported in Delhi (0.08).

About the children 5-14 years of age not attending school, the highest percentage of children was reported in Bihar (73%), followed by Rajasthan (60%), Assam (59%), Karnataka (58%), Haryana (58%), Madhya Pradesh (57%), Gujarat (55%), Andhra Pradesh (54%), Pondicherry (51%) and Orissa (51%). It shows that in most of the states the education for the slum children is in a very poor state. In Kerala, the lowest (24%) of children were reportedly not attending school.

The information about people with job or at work shows that a higher percentage of the males at work or with job was reported in Chandigarh (72%), followed by Assam (64%), West Bengal (58%), Delhi (57%), Punjab (56%), Orissa (55%), Andhra Pradesh (55%). States/union territories having 55-50 per cent working males were Bihar, Gujarat, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and Pondicherry. Less than 50 per cent working males were reported in Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir and Rajasthan. In Kerala, a lower level (43%) of males was found with jobs or at work. The females with jobs or at work shows that vast diversity existed among various states. In Assam, the highest 77 percent females were found at work, whereas in West Bengal, Jammu and Kashmir and in Uttar Pradesh only 8 percent females were found at work. Assam is an exceptional case so far as female working people are concerned. It may be due to higher job opportunities for the females in tea gardens. After Assam a distant second position

of females at work was reported in Kerala and Tamil Nadu where only 22 percent females were found with jobs.

Gender disparity of the working people shows that maximum disparity was reported in Chandigarh, followed by West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab and Jammu and Kashmir. Lower disparity was found in Kerala. Assam shows a negative value due to more female workers than male workers.

The information on average monthly per capita expenditure in slums of class I cities shows that the highest monthly per capita expenditure was reported in Assam (Rs. 74), followed by Meghalaya (Rs. 71) and Chandigarh. Monthly per capita expenditure of Rs. 60-70 was reported in West Bengal, Delhi, Punjab and Orissa; Rs. 50-60 was reported in Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, and Rs. 40-50 in Bihar, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Kerala. The lowest monthly per capita expenditure of Rs. 40 was reported in Pondicherry.

The information about instances of unemployment shows that the rate of unemployment is very low in slums. This means most of the people are employed. Jammu and Kashmir does not show any unemployment while Kerala shows 12.25 per cent unemployment. As the migration to the slums takes place for employment, most of the migrants get absorbed in labour intensive economic activities in urban centres.

The information regarding households residing in kutcha dwellings shows that a higher percentage of households

residing in kutcha dwellings was reported in Pondicherry (97%), followed by Assam (83%), Orissa (74%), Kerala (74%), and Tamil Nadu (70%). In contrast, Meghalaya has the lowest percentage of kutcha houses (3%). Except Meghalaya, Delhi and Uttar Pradesh have 19 percent and 20 percent of kutcha houses respectively. Twenty to thirty per cent kutcha dwellings are reported in the slums of West Bengal, Maharashtra; 30-40 per cent in Gujarat, Rajasthan and Haryana and 50-60 percent in Karnataka. The information indicates that in most of the states/union territories, most of the slum households are made of kutcha material.

II.3 Estimated Number of Households in Slum Areas of Class I Cities by House Ownership 1976-77

(On the basis of ownership, slum households are divided into three types, viz. owned house, neither rented nor owned house and rented house.) The information (Table II.3) shows that at the all India level, of the total 18 lakh slum households, only 48.12 per cent are owned, 43.92 per cent are rented and the rest (7.96%) are neither rented nor owned houses. The detailed information on owned houses at state level shows that the highest percentage of owned houses was reported in Jammu and Kashmir (96%) and the lowest in Pondicherry (24.14%). Twenty to forty per cent owned houses are also reported in Orissa and West Bengal, and forty to sixty per cent in Assam, Meghalaya, Delhi, Uttar Pradesh,

Table II.3 Estimated Number of Households in Slum Areas of Class I Cities by House Ownership

State/Union territory	Owned	Neither rented nor owned	Rented	Total
All India	48.12	7.96	43.92	18099
Andhra Pradesh	55.89	8.52	35.59	1936
Assam	40.0	6.67	53.33	15
Bihar	65.49	7.06	27.45	255
Gujarat	60.75	2.77	36.48	614
Haryana	88.89	0.0	11.11	27
Jammu and Kashmir	96.0	0.0	4.0	25
Karnataka	55.88	9.17	34.95	578
Kerala	62.0	17.0	21.0	200
Madhya Pradesh	64.82	5.23	29.95	631
Maharashtra	67.51	6.14	26.35	3924
Meghalaya	40.0	40.0	20.0	10
Orissa	36.21	36.21	27.59	232
Punjab	48.06	48.06	5.89	566
Rajasthan	49.14	49.14	1.72	582
Tamil Nadu	47.04	47.04	5.91	2825
Uttar Pradesh	46.84	46.84	6.32	1170
West Bengal	38.36	38.36	23.28	1207
Chandigarh	48.96	48.96	2.08	96
Delhi	40.07	40.07	19.87	1218
Pondicherry	24.14	24.14	51.72	29

Source - NSS 31st round, 1976-77.

Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Chandigarh, Rajasthan, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh. Sixty to seventy per cent owned houses were reported in only four states viz. Gujrat, Kerela, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra. Slum households of Haryana reported 88.89 per cent owned houses.

About rented houses, the highest percentage of rented houses was reported in Assam (53.3%) and the lowest percentage in Rajasthan. States reporting up to 10 per cent rented houses were Rajasthan, Chandigarh, Punjab, Jammu and Kashmir and Uttar Pradesh; and 10 to 20 per cent in Haryana, Delhi and Meghalaya; 20 to 30 per cent rented houses were reported in Kerela, West Bengal, Maharashtra, Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh and 30 to 40 per cent in Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Gujrat. In Pondicherry, 51.72 per cent slum households were rented.

About the category of houses neither rented nor owned, Rajasthan had the highest percentage of such houses (49.14%) and Gujrat the lowest (2.7%) in this category. Slum households of Haryana and Jammu and Kashmir did not have this type of house ownership. A higher percentage of households (40-50%) in this category of houses was reported in Meghalaya, Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Chandigarh and Rajasthan.

II.4 Latrine facilities

At all India level of the total households, only 8.87%

per cent households have separate latrines. Of that only 3.59 per cent houses have sanitary types of latrine and the rest (5.28%) are 'other type' latrines. It indicates the severe lapse of the quality of life in the urban slums, even in the class I cities in India. The detailed information regarding types of latrines (Table II.4) shows that about sanitary latrine facility, Delhi has the highest percentage of households having this facility and that it is only 7.45 per cent. Punjab reported the lowest percentage of households having this facility (0.17%), while in the states of Assam, Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir and Pondicherry, the situation is even worse due to lack of separate latrines.

In the category of 'other type' of latrines, Meghalaya has the highest percentage (27.7%) and Delhi has the lowest percentage of latrine of this kind. Union territory of Pondicherry and Chandigarh found no latrine of this kind.

(Except these two sources, no information is available about people having common latrines or not having latrines at all. The instances of defecating in the open are common in India due to lack of latrines even in the class I cities.) The only information available is "no separate latrine for households". In this category, all the households of Union territory of Pondicherry have this type of latrine. A very high percentage of households (90-99%) in Orissa, West Bengal, Chandigarh, Maharashtra, Gujrat and Delhi reported no separate latrine, and a high percentage of households (80-90%) in

Table II.4 Estimated Number of Households (00) in Slums of Class I Cities by Sanitary Condition

States/Union territories	<u>Separate Sanitary</u>	<u>latrine Others</u>	No separate latrine	Total
All India	3.59	5.28	91.16	18099
Andhra Pradesh	3.87	6.30	89.82	1936
Assam	0.0	26.67	73.33	15
Bihar	3.92	8.24	88.24	255
Gujarat	2.77	5.86	91.53	614
Haryana	0.0	14.81	85.19	27
Jammu and Kashmir	0.0	12.0	88.0	25
Karnataka	4.33	6.06	89.45	578
Kerala	2.50	11.0	86.0	200
Madhya Pradesh	1.58	8.56	116.96	631
Maharashtra	1.58	4.54	93.88	3924
Meghalaya	4.55	22.73	72.73	22
Orissa	6.47	1.29	96.98	232
Punjab	0.71	14.84	72.61	566
Rajasthan	2.41	8.42	45.70	582
Tamil Nadu	7.40	1.63	88.67	2825
Uttar Pradesh	2.48	17.01	71.71	1170
West Bengal	4.23	5.80	261.14	1207
Chandigarh	7.14	0.0	100.0	56
Delhi	9.85	1.56	120.53	1218
Pondicherry	0.0	0.0	100.0	35

Source: N.S.S. 31st Round, 1976-77.

Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Kerala, Haryana and Rajasthan reported no separate latrines. Slum households of Assam, Meghalaya, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh reported 70-75 per cent households having no separate latrines.

The latest information available about the slum condition in India is for the year 1988-89, from NSSO, 44th round. Unlike the 31st round, the information given in this round is limited to housing only. No information is available on the socio-economic conditions of the slums. So due to non-availability of data, we cannot make a comparison and find variations of slum situations over time. Hence, we only discuss the housing conditions of the slums in states and Union territories of India and also for metropolitan cities.

II.5 Distribution of Households by Types of Structure of the Building

Housing conditions in Indian slums are very poor. Only 43.4 per cent houses are pucca and another 30.6 per cent houses are semi-pucca. So still more than one fourth houses are kutcha (Table II.5). At state level, the housing condition is even more worse in some states. In Pondicherry and Manipur, more than 80 per cent structures are kutcha. In Assam, Tamil Nadu, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh and Meghalaya, 40 to 70 per cent structures are kutcha. Among metropolitan cities, condition of Madras is worse, where 66.63 per cent structures

Table II.5 Percentage Distribution of Households by Types of Structure of Building in Urban Slums: 1988-89

States/Union territories	Pucca	Semi-pucca	Kutcha	All
All India	43.39	30.59	26.02	14.68
Andhra Pradesh	34.89	17.11	48.0	18.23
Assam	7.24	26.04	66.64	12.02
Bihar	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.72
Gujarat	43.65	40.42	15.93	10.86
Haryana	52.24	28.57	19.18	4.9
Himachal Pradesh	50.12	35.96	13.69	4.31
Jammu and Kashmir	24.90	56.81	18.29	2.57
Karnataka	27.51	45.93	26.56	16.94
Kerala	46.26	33.64	20.09	4.28
Madhya Pradesh	29.52	49.92	20.51	18.09
Maharashtra	52.08	33.87	14.04	25.42
Manipur	0.0	19.17	80.83	3.13
Meghalaya	24.85	32.60	42.35	5.03
Nagaland	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.44
Orissa	17.20	32.88	49.92	19.07
Punjab	58.12	33.12	8.76	6.28
Rajasthan	59.68	23.70	16.75	8.06
Sikkim	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.63
Tamil Nadu	21.99	19.18	58.83	9.23
Tripura	20.00	53.86	26.14	8.3
Uttar Pradesh	44.91	28.75	26.34	9.53
West Bengal	61.36	25.0	13.64	17.6
Andaman & Nicobar	64.42	16.44	19.14	3.71
Arunachal Pradesh	5.64	22.63	71.72	16.38
Pondicherry	3.02	8.91	88.07	29.17
Bombay	61.39	30.25	8.40	30.61
Madras	24.21	9.16	66.62	15.28
Calcutta	85.17	12.64	2.18	28.87
Delhi	61.57	29.42	9.0	19.44

Source: N.S.S. 44th Round, 1988-89.
A Note on Housing Conditions.

are kutcha. In Delhi and Bombay, there is a less percentage of kutcha houses (9% and 8.4% respectively). In Calcutta, the lowest of 2.18 per cent structures are kutcha.

About the pucca structures, only the slums at Dadra and Nagar Haveli and in Lakshwadeep, all are pucca. More than 60 per cent pucca structures are available in only West Bengal and Andaman and Nicobar Islands and 40 to 60 per cent in Gujrat, Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Haryana, Punjab and Rajasthan, 20 to 40 per cent in Tripura, Tamil Nadu, Meghalaya, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya pradesh and Andhra Pradesh. The states/union territories having only 1 to 10 per cent pucca structures are Pondicherry, Arunachal Pradesh, Goa and Assam.

In the four metropolitan cities, Calcutta had the highest percentage of pucca structures (88.17%), while Madras had the lowest of 24.21 per cent pucca structures. In both Delhi and Bombay, 61.5 per cent households are made of pucca materials.

In the slums of Sikkim, Mizoram and Nagaland, all the houses have semi-pucca structure, and in Goa, Jammu and Kashmir and in Tripura, 50 to 70 per cent slums have semi-pucca houses. Among the metropolitan cities, Bombay had a maximum 30.25 per cent semi-pucca structure, followed by Delhi (29.4%). In Calcutta and Madras, 12.64 per cent and 9.16 per cent of houses were constructed of semi-pucca material respectively.

II.6 Drainage System

(Removing and safe disposing of excreta and waste-waters coming from washing, bathing and other domestic uses is a critical health need. In the slums of India, a greater number of households have no hygienic and adequate means to dispose of waste-waters. The information on drainage in slums of India shows (Table II.6) that 44.85 per cent households have no sewerage and from the rest, 43.62 per cent houses have open and kutcha or pucca type of drainage. Only 11.54 per cent households have underground drainage facilities.

The state-wise information on drainage system shows that in the slums of Nagaland and Pondicherry, there is complete absence of sewerage. In most of the states, half of the households have no drainage facilities. About one-fifth (20.5%) of slum households have drainage facilities in Gujrat, Punjab, West Bengal, Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Manipur, Himachal Pradesh and Meghalaya. Among the metropolitan cities, the condition of Madras is very poor, with as much as 80 per cent houses lacking drainage system. In Delhi, 23 per cent, Calcutta 17.25 per cent and Bombay 11.7 per cent houses have no sewerage facility.

About the slum households having open kutcha and pucca type of drainage, most of the states have less than 50 per cent of households which have this type of drainage. States having 50 to 70 per cent sewerage are Maharashtra, Rajasthan Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh and Haryana. In Manipur, 70

Table II.6 Percentage Distribution of Household by Drainage Pattern

States/Union territories	No drainage	Open pucca and kutcha	Under ground	All
All India	44.85	43.62	11.54	14.65
Andhra Pradesh	52.85	29.31	17.84	18.22
Assam	78.79	21.21	0.0	12.02
Bihar	48.82	46.03	5.15	15.73
Gujarat	44.84	20.81	34.35	10.86
Haryana	31.90	68.10	0.0	4.89
Himachal Pradesh	24.36	61.48	14.15	4.31
Jammu and Kashmir	60.74	39.26	0.0	2.42
Karnataka	53.38	39.25	7.37	16.28
Kerala	84.11	11.45	4.44	4.28
Madhya Pradesh	49.03	42.07	8.90	18.09
Maharashtra	33.79	55.55	10.66	25.42
Manipur	29.71	70.29	0.0	3.13
Meghalaya	20.52	79.48	0.0	5.02
Nagaland	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.44
Orissa	85.91	12.27	1.81	18.74
Punjab	43.63	49.20	7.17	6.28
Rajasthan	36.60	60.42	2.98	8.06
Sikkim	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.63
Tamil Nadu	74.46	19.16	6.39	9.24
Tripura	76.14	23.86	0.0	8.3
Uttar Pradesh	31.44	61.20	7.36	9.51
West Bengal	39.05	44.07	16.88	17.54
Pondicherry	100.0	0.0	0.0	28.02
Bombay	11.07	76.38	12.54	30.61
Madras	79.71	9.36	10.93	15.28
Calcutta	17.25	45.23	37.53	28.7
Delhi	22.99	58.95	18.06	19.44

Source: N.S.S. 44th Round, 1988-89.
A Note on Housing Conditions.

per cent and in Meghalaya, 79.5 per cent slum households have this type of drainage. Among the metropolitan cities, slums of Bombay have 76.3 per cent followed by Delhi with 59 per cent and Calcutta with 45.23 per cent households having open and pucca type of drainage. In Madras, only 9.36 per cent households have this type of drainage.

About underground drainage facilities, most of the households in a large number of states have no underground drainage. States/union territories of Nagaland, Pondicherry, Assam, Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir, Manipur and Meghalaya show no underground drainage, while only upto 10 per cent of the required is available in Orissa, Rajasthan, Kerala, Bihar, Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka and Madhya Pradesh. In Maharashtra, Himachal Pradesh, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh 10 to 20 per cent slum households have this facility. In Gujrat, a higher percentage (34.3%) of slum households have this type of facility. Among the metropolitan cities, Calcutta has 37.5 per cent, Delhi 18.6 per cent, Bombay 12.54 per cent and Madras only 11 per cent of the slum households with underground sewerage.

II.7 Risk of Water Logging and Flooding

Slums are generally developed on unhealthy and deserted lands where the chance of eviction is less and where land is unsuitable for commercial development (J.E. Hardoy and D.

Satterthwaite).¹ Slums also develop on river banks, drain sites, flood plains, and in lower parts of the cities, where the risk of water logging and flooding creates a major problem, and takes serious toll on health. At all India level, more than one fourth of the slum households face problems of water-logging and water entering in premises in monsoon and 2.16 per cent households face the danger of flooding from sea and river (Table II.7). State wise information shows that the highest level of 61.06 per cent households in Madras face water logging and water entering into the premises in monsoon, followed by Delhi (44.3%) and Manipur (44%). Between 30 to 40 per cent households face this problem in the slums of Haryana, Calcutta, Punjab, Bombay, Andaman and Nicobar Islands, West Bengal, Goa and Uttar Pradesh and 20 to 30 per cent in Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Arunachal Pradesh, Kerela, karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Gujrat, and 5 to 10 per cent in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Tripura, Orissa, Rajasthan, Assam and meghalaya. Only the slums of Nagaland, Sikkim, Dadar and Nagar Haveli and Lakshwadeep do not face this problem.

The risk of flooding from sea or river is maximum in Haryana (26.3%) followed by Kerela (19.6%) and Madras (15.26%). 10 to 15 per cent slum households facing this problem from sea or river are in Assam, Punjab, Gujrat, Tamil

¹ J.E. Hardoy and David Satterthwaite, Squatter Citizen: Life in Urban Third World, Earthscan Publication Ltd., London, 1989, p.159.

Table II.7 Percentage Distribution of Households by Flood Risk of Buildings and Location in Slum Bustee

States/Union territories	No flood risk	Water logging in monsoon	Flood risk from sea/river etc.	All
All India	69.55	28.29	2.16	14.68
Andhra Pradesh	71.71	24.88	3.41	18.17
Assam	76.96	8.24	14.81	12.02
Bihar	78.96	15.64	5.40	15.73
Gujarat	66.30	20.72	12.98	10.86
Haryana	33.06	40.61	26.33	4.9
Himachal Pradesh	100.0	0.0	0.0	4.31
Jammu and Kashmir	80.93	19.07	0.0	2.57
Karnataka	75.03	24.97	0.0	16.94
Kerala	54.67	26.17	19.16	4.28
Madhya Pradesh	84.82	13.62	1.56	17.99
Maharashtra	70.97	27.07	1.97	25.42
Manipur	55.91	44.09	0.0	3.13
Meghalaya	92.23	7.77	0.0	5.02
Nagaland	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.44
Orissa	87.68	11.22	1.10	19.08
Punjab	46.90	38.58	14.51	5.65
Rajasthan	90.71	8.67	0.62	8.07
Sikkim	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.63
Tamil Nadu	58.32	29.81	11.88	9.26
Tripura	88.31	11.69	0.0	8.30
Uttar Pradesh	65.16	30.95	3.88	9.53
West Bengal	63.52	35.17	1.31	17.60
Andaman & Nicobar	64.15	35.85	0.0	3.71
Arunachal Pradesh	73.79	26.21	0.0	16.48
Dadar & Nager.	100.0	0.0	0.0	11.16
Goa	65.96	34.04	0.0	7.11
Lakshdweep	100.0	0.0	0.0	1.08
Mizoram	100.0	0.0	0.0	2.75
Pondicherry	65.93	34.07	0.0	29.15
Bombay	60.47	37.80	1.73	30.61
Madras	23.69	61.06	15.25	15.28
Calcutta	60.89	39.11	0.0	28.87
Delhi	49.07	44.29	6.64	19.44

Source: N.S.S. 44th Round, 1988-89.
A Note on Housing Conditions.

Nadu and Delhi and 1 to 5 per cent in Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal and Orissa. In the slums of Rajasthan, the lowest percentage of households (0.6%) face the problem of flooding from river.

SECTION II

SLUMS IN DELHI

In this section, slum conditions of Delhi metropolis are highlighted by taking into account the number of slums, its growth rate, and the slum population.

II.8 Number of Slums

In 1951, there were only 12,749 jhuggis in Delhi. In subsequent years, it increased very fast (twenty times) and reached 2.5 lakh jhuggies in 1991 (see table II.8). These 2.5 lakh jhuggies are unevenly distributed over Delhi in 1301 jhuggi clusters. Of that south zone has the largest number of jhuggi cluster (29.05%), followed by north zone (23.21%) and west zone (20.75%), central zone has the lowest percentage of clusters (10.7%) (see table II.9 and Fig-II-1)

All the 1301 slum clusters are divided into 929 slum settlements (table II.9). The zonewise distribution of settlements shows that again south zone has the highest share of settlements (30.3%), followed by north zone (24.4%) and west zone (22%). In the east zone, 13.24 percent and in

SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION OF SQUATTERS AND RESETTLEMENT COLONIES IN DELHI

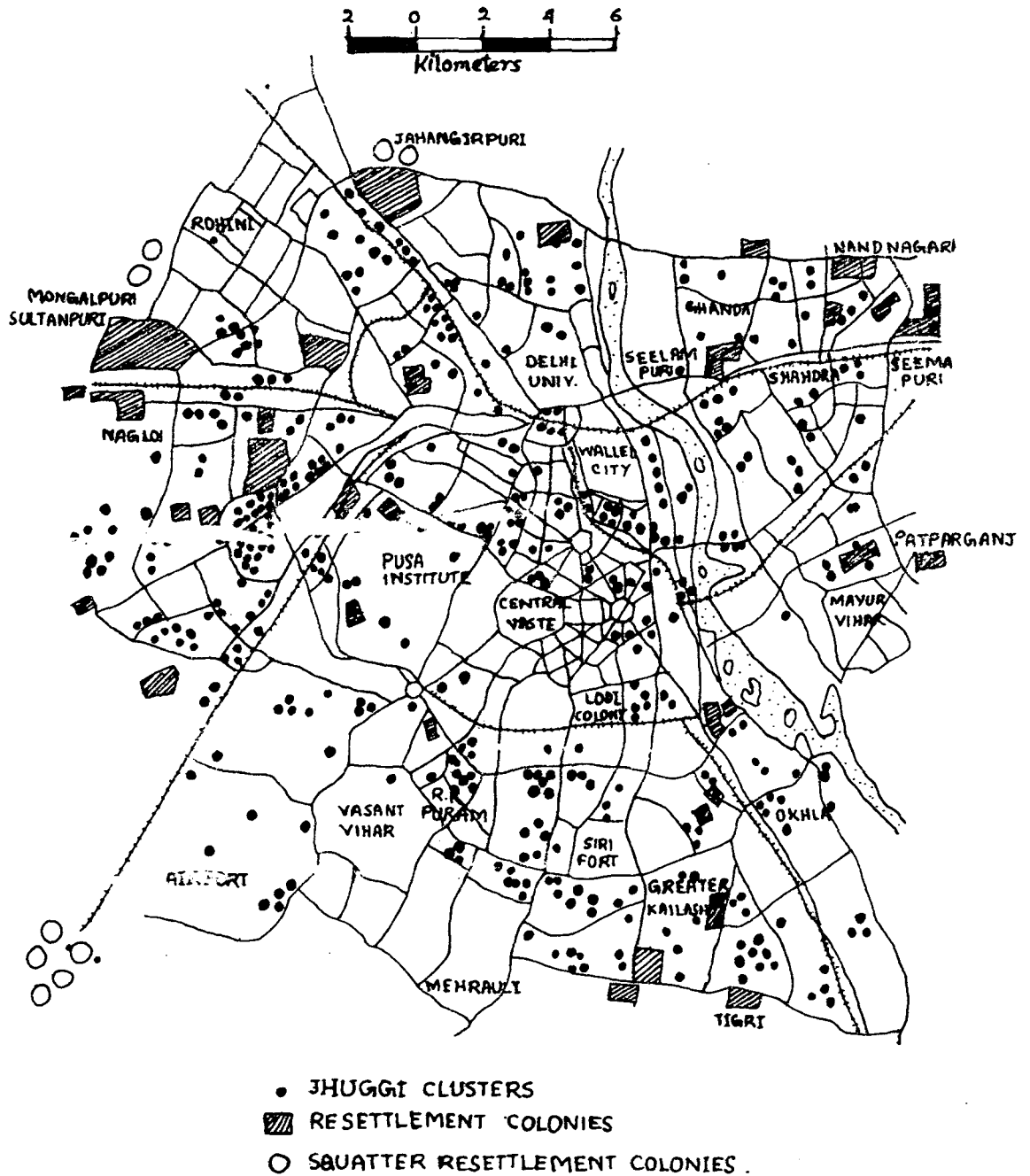


Fig. II.1.

Table II.8 Growth of Slums in Delhi

Year	No. of slum households	Percentage growth
1951	12749	-
1956	22415	76
1961	42815	91
1966	42668	-0
1971	62594	47
1973	98438	57
1977	20000*	-392
1981	98709	394
1983	129000	31
1985	150000	16
1987	171000	14
1988	210000	23
1991	259344	23

*Note: The decrease is due to large scale slum clearance.

Source: N. Sridharan, Indian Slums: Problems, Policies and Issues, in B.C. Aldrich and R.S. Sandhu (eds), Housing the Urban Poor: Policy and Practice in Developing Countries, Visthar Publications, New Delhi, p.389.

Table II.9 Zone-wise Distribution of Slum Clusters and Slum Settlements in Delhi

Zone	No. of slum clusters	%age of slum clusters	No. of slum settlement	%age of slum settlement
East Zone	212	16.29	123	13.24
Central Zone	139	10.68	93	10.01
North Zone	302	23.21	227	24.40
West Zone	270	20.75	204	22.00
South Zone	378	29.05	282	30.35
	1301	100	929	100

Source: D.D.A. Slum Wing, 1992. ✓

Table II.10 Distribution of Slum Settlements into Various Sizes

Settlement size	No. of settlement	Percentage
1. Less than 50 jhuggies	359	30.64
2. 50-100 jhuggies	150	16.14
3. 100-300 jhuggies	226	24.30
4. 301-500 jhuggies	78	8.39
5. 501-1000 jhuggies	58	6.24
6. 1001-1500 jhuggies	29	3.12
7. More than 1500 jhuggies	29	3.12
	929	100

Source: D.D.A. Slum Wing, 1992.

central zone the lowest 10 percent settlements are found. (Availability of large scale open space, employment opportunity from industries and posh colonies and construction sites, concentrated most of the slum settlements in South Delhi area.)

In the classification of slum settlements in terms of number of households (Table II.10) large number of the settlements have less number of households and few settlements have maximum number of households. Only 29 settlements have more than 1500 households in it and while 359 settlements have less than 50 households.

II.9 Slum Population

There is no information about the exact figure of the slum population except some estimations. The first estimation of slum population was done by N.S.S.O 31st round² in the year 1976-77. According to it, there was 67.56 lakh slum population in Delhi which accounted for about 23 percent of the total population of Delhi. In the year 1981, Delhi Development Authority³ estimated 53 percent of Delhi's population are slum dwellers, which includes 4.09 lakh squatter population and 9.02 lakh people in unauthorised

² Conditions of Slums in Cities, N.S.S.O. 31st Round, July 1970 - July 1977, Vol.III, No.4, pp.187-190.

³ H.S. Gill, Housing the Poor: An Analysis with special reference to Slum Colonies in Delhi, unpublished Ph.D. thesis, J.N.U., New Delhi, 1983.

colonies. The latest estimation was given by R.G. Gupta⁴ in 1991. According to him, 64 lakh people were living in sub-standard areas of Delhi which accounted for 76.42 percent of the total population of Delhi. These 64 lakh population divided into 12 lakh people in jhuggi clusters, 8 lakhs in slum designated areas, 12 lakh in resettlement colonies, 5 lakh in urban villages, 12 lakhs in authorised regularised colonies and rest 5 lakh in unauthorised colonies.

The main cause of this alarming growth of slum population in Delhi is large scale immigration. According to H.D. Shourie,⁵ every year there is an addition of 70,000 migrants to Delhi. In the past three decades, half of the increase in population has been due to migration and remaining half being due to urban growth.

Summing Up

(The quality of life in Indian slums is very miserable in every respect. People live in sub human conditions due to lack of basic facilities and amenities. Although most of the people are found to be employed, their wages are not enough to meet the daily expenses. They cannot even afford a conventional pucca house and a serviced site. Above all, there is no

⁴ R.G. Gupta, Planning, Development and Construction of Urban Spaces in Delhi: An overview, Yojna, April 15, New Delhi, 1991, pp.26-27.

⁵ H.D. Shourie, Frightening Facts on Housing, The Statesman, New Delhi, 10 January 1988.

provision of removal and safe disposal of excreta and waste-waters from the slums. In most of the slums in India (44.8%) there is no hygienic and adequate means of disposal of waste waters. Whenever it exists, it is mostly in the form of open drainage.

There is also a threat of water logging and flooding and water entering into premises in the monsoon month and flooding from river and sea, as slums normally come up on river banks, flood plains, drain sites, etc. Socially and economically, dwellers are poor. Illiteracy is the main feature in the slums. Demographically, the slums are imbalanced due to very low sex ratio.)

CHAPTER III

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SQUATTER

In this chapter (demographic characteristics of the squatter settlement have been discussed, taking into account size, age, sex, marital status and educational qualification of the people. As we know slum areas are characterised by high density, low sex ratio, high dependency ratio and less educated people, detailed analysis and discussion of the aspects are needed.)

III.1 Religion, Caste and Ethnic Background

Among the various social characteristics of a population, religion and caste are important. In the social structure of India, religion and caste occupy an important position, so in our study the information on religion and caste has been collected. The information on these has been given below.

The information on religion shows that (Table III.1) of the total population, 88.45 per cent are Hindus and 10.21 per cent are muslims. Except these two religions, all other religions have very negligible numbers as their share to total population are less than one per cent each.

The information on caste of the squatter dwellers shows that (table III.2) 55.70 per cent population are scheduled castes, 22.12 per cent are other backward classes and 20.58 per cent are ^{upper} ~~higher~~ caste people. The scheduled tribes have only 1.58 per cent of the total population.

Table III.1 Religious Groups of the Squatter

Religions	Population	Percentage
1. Hindu	4988	88.45
2. Muslim	576	10.21
3. Christian	14	0.24
4. Sikh	43	0.76
5. Buddhist and other religions	18	0.32
Total	5639	100

Table III.2 Caste Structure of the Squatter

Caste	Population	Percentage
1. Scheduled Caste	2787	55.70
2. Scheduled Tribe	79	1.58
3. Higher Caste	1030	20.58
4. OBCs	1107	22.12
Total	5003	100

Language spoken by the people is taken as one of the indicators of ethnicity of the people. In this study, the information has been collected on the language or dialect spoken by the family members, or the household language.) More than 15 languages and dialects are spoken by the squatter dwellers. Some of the languages are spoken by large number of people while most of the languages are spoken by less number of people. It may be seen from the table III.3 that 48.02 per cent people speak Hindi whereas 37.01 per cent people speak Bengali. These two languages constitute 85 per cent of the people. Bhojpuri is spoken by 5.26 per cent people, while 3.35 per cent people speak Urdu, 2.34 per cent people speak Maithili and 1.34 per cent speak Parsie. The languages or dialects like Punjabi, Rajasthani, Haryanavi, Gujrati, Oriya and Sindhi are spoken by less than fifty people each or by less than one per cent each.

III.2 Sex and Age Composition

The total population of the squatter is 5639. Out of that 54.23 per cent are males and rest (45.67 per cent) are females. The sex ratio of the squatter is 850 females per 1000 males. A lower sex ratio for a squatter is not uncommon. It is due to male selective migration to the squatters.

The male-female composition of the population, both by religion and caste is given in the table III.4. Table shows that except Christians and Buddhists all other religions have

Table III.3 Linguistic Structure of Squatters

	Language/ dialects	Number of people	Percentage
1.	Hindi	2708	48.02
2.	Bengali	2087	37.01
3.	Bhojpuri	297	5.26
4.	Urdu	189	3.35
5.	Maithali	132	2.34
6.	Parsie	76	1.34
7.	Punjabi	45	0.80
8.	Rajasthani	33	0.58
9.	Haryanavi	24	0.42
10.	Gujarati	13	0.23
11.	Oriya	13	0.23
12.	Sindhi	6	0.10
13.	Other languages	12	0.21

Table III.4 Sex Ratio of the Squatter by Religion and Caste

Caste	Population	Male	Female	Sex ratio
Total population	5639	3047	2592	850
Hindu	4988	2710	2278	840
Muslim	576	279	279	939
Christian	14	7	7	1000
Sikh	43	25	10	720
Buddhist and other religions	18	8	10	1250
Scheduled Caste	2787	1481	1306	882
Scheduled Tribe	79	45	34	755
Higher Caste	1030	550	480	872
OBCs	1107	640	467	729

lower sex ratio. Religion wise, lowest sex ratio is found among Sikhs (720), followed by Hindus (840) and Muslims (939). Although the sex ratio of Christians is 1000 females per 1000 males, and for Buddhists and other religions 1250 females per 1000 males, we cannot draw final conclusion due to less number of observations.

The sex ratio of caste groups shows that scheduled caste population has a sex ratio of 882. It is the highest among caste groups. It is followed by sex ratio of higher castes (872). Other backward classes have the lowest sex ratio (729).

The sex ratio of the slums depends on many factors. The most important one is the male selective migration to the slums. The other factors which influence the sex ratio are the socio-cultural background of the people, the social environment of the slum and economic condition of the households.

Age composition

The age data of the surveyed population are presented in six groups. To know the number of infants, young and old people and the dependency ratio, the formation of the age groups are not taken by regular five yearly interval. The number of people in each age group and their percentages are given in the table III.5.

The age data of the squatter shows that more than 40 per cent of the people are below 15 years of age and 3.60 per cent

Table III.5 Percentage Distribution of Population by Broad Age Groups

Age groups	Population	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
1. 0-1	301	5.34	5.34
2. 1-4	594	10.53	15.87
3. 5-9	975	17.29	33.16
4. 10-14	653	11.58	44.74
5. 15-24	895	15.90	60.64
6. 24-34	1084	19.22	79.86
7. 35-59	933	16.54	96.4
8. 60+	204	3.60	100
	-----	-----	-----
Total	5639	100	

are of the age of sixty and above. The dependency ratio of the squatter is 93.64. It shows the dependency on the young working people is very high.

Among the young 5.34 per cent are infants, 10.53 per cent are between 1-4 years of age, 17.29 per cent are between 5-9 years and rest 11.58 per cent are between 10-14 years. Among the middle aged people, most of the people are in the age group of 25-34. It is followed by the people aged 35-39 years and 15-24 years of age.

The age and sex composition of the people is given in the table III.6 and in Fig. III.1 which is also called the age sex pyramid which indicates that, after the age of 10 years, there is sudden decrease of the young people up to age of 15 years and among them the decrease in girls is more than the boys. This decrease in young boys and girls may be due to death, out migration of boys from slums, out migration of girls to their native place due to marriage or marriageable age. After the age of 15 there is increase in population upto age of 25 years. In this group the inclusion of girls is more than the boys. The inclusion of boys may be due to migration for employment and girls due to marriage. As we know that in slums male selective migration is more. The married men folk bring their wives after they settle themselves. This phenomena emerges even more clearly in the age group of 25-34. In this group the females are further more than the males. In the age group of 35-59, the population decreased and among them the

AGE PYRAMIDS OF THE SQUATTER

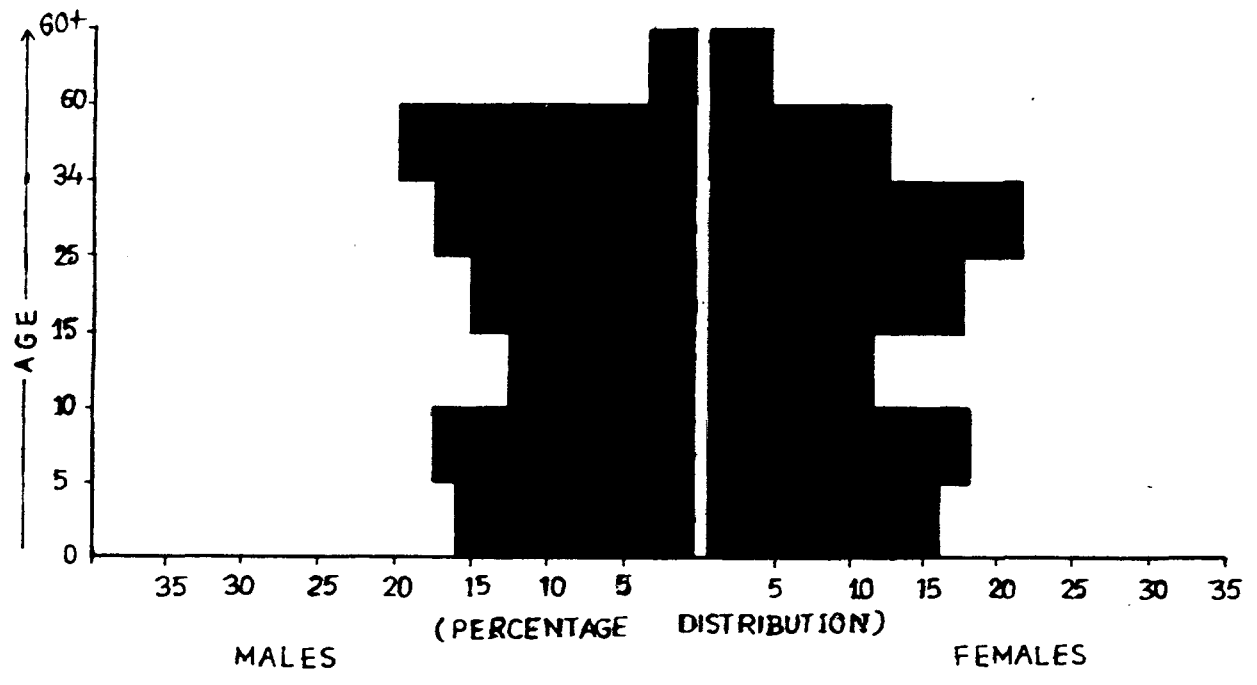
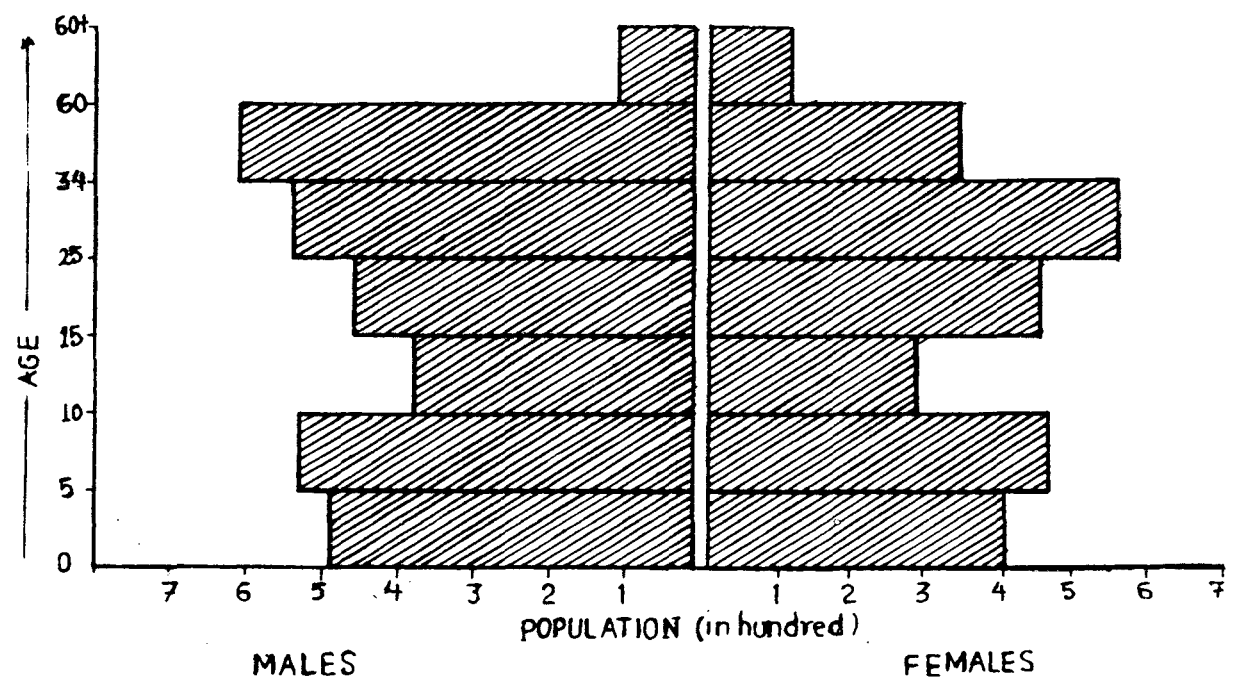


Fig. III. 1.

Table III.6 Percentage Distribution of Population of Each Sex by Broad Age Groups

Age groups	Total population	Males %age*		Females %age*		Percentage# of	
						Males	Females
1. 0-1	301	166	5.45	135	5.21	55.15	44.85
2. 1-4	594	320	10.51	274	10.57	53.87	46.13
3. 5-9	975	517	16.98	458	17.67	53.02	46.98
4. 10-14	653	370	12.15	283	10.92	56.67	43.33
5. 15-24	895	449	14.74	446	17.20	50.17	49.83
6. 25-34	1084	531	17.44	553	21.33	49.00	51.00
7. 35-59	933	598	19.64	335	12.92	64.10	35.90
8. 60+	204	96	3.15	108	4.16	47.06	52.94
	5639	3045	100	2592	100	54.00	46.00

Note: * showing percentage on vertical total,
showing percentage on horizontal total.

number of females decreased whereas the number of the males increased. The increase in number of the males may be due to their capability to work or get work in the job market. In case of females it is different, they are not absorbed in the job market due to high age. Secondly, due to high age they may prefer to stay at home or go back to their native place leaving their men folk.

After the age of sixty the population is reduced drastically. This large scale decrease of old people may be due to death or due to migration from slums to native place. In this age group, the females are more than the males. It may be due to the proportion of population in this age group is governed largely by mortality rates. According to R.C.Chandna, "since the male mortality rate is higher than that of the females at all ages, the females tend to out number the males in this age group."¹

III.3 Marital Status

The institution of marriage has been found to be almost universal (Premi and others 1983).² The distribution of the squatter people by marital status is given in the table III.7. The marital status is categorised into five categories, viz.

¹ R.C. Chandna (1992) A Geography of Population - Concept, Determinants and Patterns, Kalyani Publishers, Ludhiana, p.205.

² Mohendra K. Premi, A. Ramanamma and Usha Bambawala (1983) An Introduction to Social Demography, Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi. p.47.

Table III.7 Distribution of Population by Marital Status

Marital status	Popula- tion	Percent- age	Males	Females	Percentage of	
					Males	Females
Unmarried	2984	52.92	1727	1257	57.87	42.13
Married	2483	44.03	1285	1198	51.75	48.25
Widowed	160	2.84	27	133	16.87	83.13
Divorced	6	0.14	4	2	66.67	33.33
Separated	6	0.07	3	3	50.00	50.00
Total	5639	100	3047	2592		

1) unmarried 2) married 3) widowed 4) divorced and 5) separated.

It is clearly observed from the table that the proportion of the unmarried people is more than that of the married. Further, among the unmarried people the males are more than the females. This may be due to two reasons, firstly, male selective migration to the slums and secondly, higher age at marriage of males than the females, so a higher proportion of males have to be single (Premi and others, 1983).³ Among the married, the males are more than the females. It is also due to the male selective migration.)

(Among the widowed, the number of females is more than that of the males.) Only 16.87 per cent widowed are males while 83.13 per cent are females. As we mentioned earlier in age data, the females outnumbered males at old age, the death of males in old age increased the number of widows. Among the divorced and separated, the males are slightly more than the females.

On the religion and caste basis marital status of the people is also worked out and given in the table III.8. The marital status by religion and caste shows a different picture. Earlier it was reported unmarried are more than the married, but in Buddhist and other religions, and among scheduled tribes, the married are more than the unmarried. It may be due to early age at marriage of these people.

³ Ibid.

Table III.8 Religion and Caste Based Distribution of Population by Marital Status

Religion/ caste	Unmarried	Married	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Total
Population	2984	2483	160	6	6	5639
	52.92	44.03	2.84	0.10	0.10	100
Hindu	2632	2195	150	6	5	4988
	52.76	44.00	3.00	0.12	0.10	100
Muslim	314	253	8	0	1	576
	54.51	43.92	1.34	0	0.17	100
Christian	8	6	0	0	0	14
	57.14	42.86	0	0	0	100
Sikh	23	19	1	0	0	43
	53.49	44.18	2.32	0	0	100
Buddhist and other religions	7	10	1	0	0	18
	38.89	55.55	5.55	0	0	100
Scheduled caste	1477	1213	94	3	2	2787
	53.00	43.52	3.37	0.10	0.07	100
Scheduled tribe	37	39	3	0	0	79
	46.83	49.37	3.80	0	0	100
Higher caste	549	452	24	2	3	1030
	53.30	43.88	2.33	0.19	0.29	100
OBCs	577	500	29	1	0	1107
	52.12	45.16	2.61	0.09	0	100

Widowed are reported more among Hindus, Buddhist and other religious groups and among scheduled tribe and scheduled caste people. While no widowed are found among Christians. When more separated people are found among Muslims and higher caste people, at the same time, no separated people are there among the Christians, Sikhs, Buddhists and other religious people and among scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

III.4 Literacy and Educational Level

The educational level of the squatter people has been given in the table III.9. The table shows that more than two-fifth of the population is illiterate, rest three-fifth is literate. Among literates, around half have educated upto primary school, 17.80 per cent people are educated upto middle school, 11.19 per cent are educated upto matric level, 1.36 per cent are educated upto 12th class and only 0.42 per cent upto graduation.

(There is a clear cut gender difference in educational level of the people. The females are less educated than the males. Among illiterates, females are more than the males. While only one-third of the males are illiterates, more than * half of the females are illiterates. Data shows that among those people educated upto primary level, the females are more than the males. Education level upto matriculation shows that 16.76 per cent of males are matriculates whereas only 4.67 per cent of females are matriculates.

Table III.9 Distribution of Population by Educational Levels

Educational levels	Total	% age	Males	% age	Females	% age
Illiterate	2380	42.20	995	32.65	1385	53.43
Primary	1523	27.00	789	25.89	734	28.32
Middle	1004	17.80	665	21.82	339	13.08
High Sec.	631	11.19	510	16.74	121	4.67
Inter	77	1.36	66	2.16	11	0.42
Degree	24	0.42	22	0.72	2	0.08
	5639	100	3047	100	2592	100

Educational levels of the people by religion and caste are given in the table III.10. The table shows that Hindu, Muslim and Christian have more illiterates than Buddhists, Sikhs and other religious groups. On the basis of percentage of illiterates in caste groups, higher caste people are less than in other groups. Educational level upto primary level shows that among religious groups, except Hindus, all others have less percentage of people in primary level of education. Among caste groups, except other backward classes (OBCs), all other castes have more percentage of people in primary level. Educational level upto matriculation among religious groups shows that there is no matriculates in Christians whereas Muslims (9.03) and Hindus (11.33) have less percentage of matriculates. At the same time Sikhs (20.93) and Buddhist and other religious groups (27.80) have more percentage of matriculates. Among caste groups, except higher caste people, all other castes have less than 11.19 percentage of matriculates.

III.5 Causes of Leaving Education

At the time of survey, people who left school or education were asked about the causes of their leaving education. The table (III.11) shows that the genuine cause by which most of the people left education is due to poverty or search of job. This cause alone accounted for 75.42 per cent of the people. Except this cause, a distant second cause was

Table III.10 Religion and Caste Based Distribution of Population by Educational Level

	Illiterate	Primary	Middle	Higher secondary	10+2	Degree	Total
1. Total population	2380 42.00	1523 27.00	1004 17.80	631 11.19	77 1.36	24 0.42	5639
2. Hindu	2093 41.98	1373 27.54	866 17.37	565 11.33	68 1.36	23 0.46	4986
3. Muslim	260 45.14	138 23.96	117 20.31	52 9.03	8 1.39	1 0.17	576
4. Christian	7 50.00	2 14.29	5 35.71	0	0	0	14
5. Sikh	15 34.88	8 18.60	11 25.58	9 20.93	0	0	43
6. Buddhists and other religions	5 27.80	2 11.10	5 27.80	5 27.80	1 5.50	0	18
7. Scheduled caste	1228 44.06	715 25.65	485 17.40	308 11.05	35 1.25	14 0.50	2787
8. Scheduled tribe	36 45.47	14 17.72	17 21.52	6 7.60	6 7.60	0	79
9. Higher caste	365 35.43	299 20.03	212 20.59	132 12.81	17 1.65	5 0.48	1030
10. OBCs	475 42.90	345 31.16	155 14.00	118 10.67	11 1.00	3 0.27	1107

Table III.11 **Distribution of Population by Cause of Leaving Education and Male-Female Difference of Causes of Leaving Education**

Causes	Population	% age	Males	Females	<u>Percentage of</u> Males Females	
Search of job, poverty	1066	75.08	804	262	75.42	24.58
Marriage	79	5.50	13	66	16.45	83.55
Migration	106	7.36	51	55	48.11	51.99
Lack of parents' interests	64	4.44	26	38	40.62	59.38
Death of parents/ brother or ill health of father	56	3.89	32	24	57.14	42.86
Other causes	68	4.72	49	19	67.64	32.36
	1439	100				

migration due to which 7.36 per cent people left education. Lack of permanent settlement and language problem due to migration are the basic reasons by which these people discontinued their education.

(Marriage is another cause of leaving education.) About 5.50 per cent people left education due to this reason. The male-female division of this cause shows that most of the girls (83.55%) left education due to their marriage. Lower age at marriage of girls in rural areas is responsible for their drop-out from schools. About 4.44 per cent people left education due to lack of parents' interest and 3.89 per cent due to death of parents or ill health of father and 4.72 per cent people left education due to other causes. Other causes include long distance of school, lack of facilities in school, failure and beating up or fighting with fellows.

The causes of leaving education emerge differently for males and females. Some causes are male specific and some of them are female specific. Male specific causes are poverty, search of job (75.42%), death of parents, brother or ill health of father (57.14%) and other causes (67.64%). Female specific causes are marriage (83.55%) and lack of parents' interest (59.38%).

Summing up

Demographically, the squatter is very imbalanced. The sex ratio of the squatter is very low. Inter religion and inter

caste sex ratio is further low among some groups. Sikhs among religions and OBCs among caste groups have lower sex ratio. Age structure of the people is imbalanced. There are more than forty per cent of the people below 15 years of age and 3.60 per cent more than 60 years of age. Thus the dependency on young people is very high. Further, the age structure of the people is greatly influenced by migration. While the inclusion of males by migration is due to employment, for the females, it is both due to marriage and employment.

The marital status of the squatter dwellers is also influenced by sex selective migration. The number of unmarried is more than the married. Again, among the married males are more than the females. Educationally, the people are either illiterates or less educated. The gender disparity of education is also very high. The females are more among illiterates and less among literates.

About the causes of leaving education, search of job and poverty are the most genuine reasons due to which three-fourth of the population left education. Marriage and migration are other minor causes. Among the causes, some are male specific and some are female specific. Causes like poverty, search of job, death of parents or ill health of father are male specific, while marriage and lack of parents' interest are female specific.

CHAPTER IV

MIGRATION TO THE SQUATTER

Migration together with fertility and mortality, is a fundamental element determining the population structure in an area. (In case of squatter settlements, particularly squatters of a metropolitan city, most of the inhabitants are migrants.) For this purpose, this chapter is going to discuss the migrational aspects of the squatters. The information collected for this chapter is from the households by interviewing the head of the households. Out of total 1449 households in the squatter, 1407 head of the households have migrated to Delhi, and the rest 42 head of the households have been born here. So, the information given in this chapter pertains to 1407 households. (The information about the migrants cover the aspects like, place of origin, causes of migration, year of leaving home and arrival in Delhi, age at the time of migration, step-migration, contact in migration and occupational mobility in migration.)

IV.1 Place of Origin

The information regarding the place of origin of the migrants shows that (Table IV.1) the migrants of the squatter come from different states of India as well as from the neighbouring countries. The maximum number of households come from Uttar Pradesh (41.86%) followed by Bangladesh (22.38%), Bihar (12.43%) and West Bengal (12.15%). These four source

Table IV.1 Percentage Distribution of Migrants by Place of Origin

Native place of migrants	No. of migrant households	Percentage
1. Bihar	175	12.43
2. Haryana	29	2.06
3. Himachal Pradesh	3	0.21
4. Madhya Pradesh	53	3.77
5. Orissa	5	0.36
6. Punjab	6	0.42
7. Rajasthan	40	2.84
8. Tamil Nadu	2	0.14
9. Uttar Pradesh	589	41.86
10. West Bengal	171	12.15
11. Bangladesh	315	22.38
12. Pakistan	5	0.35
13. Other places	14	0.99
	<hr/> 1407	<hr/> 100

regions contributed more than 85 per cent of the migrants. The rest of the migrants are from Madhya Pradesh (3.77%), Haryana (2.06%), Rajasthan (2.84%), Punjab (0.42%), Orissa (0.36%), Himachal Pradesh (0.21%), Pakistan (0.35%), Tamil Nadu (0.14%) and from other places (0.99%).

Of the total migrants, more than one-fourth are from Bangladesh and Pakistan. It is not unexpected to find migrants from these countries in the slums of Delhi. The division of Indian subcontinent into three states has created a large scale migration amongst these countries. Later, the Bangladesh war, riot and communal tension in Bangladesh created large scale out-migration to India.

The information about place of origin of the migrants by religion shows that (Table IV.2) of the total 1260 Hindu migrants, 37.38 per cent are from Uttar Pradesh, 24.76 per cent from Bangladesh, 12.93 per cent from Bihar and 13.09 per cent from West Bengal. These four source regions shared about 38.16 per cent of the total Hindu migrants. Muslim migrants in the squatter are mainly from four states, viz. Bihar (8.53%), Uttar Pradesh (83.72%), Rajasthan (3.10%) and West Bengal (3.88%), and the rest from other places. Christian migrants in the squatter are from four states, of which 40.0 per cent are from Uttar Pradesh and 20 per cent each from Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal and Bangladesh. Sikh migrants are only from two states - Uttar Pradesh (87.5%) and Haryana (12.5%). Migrants belonging to Buddhism and other religions are 40 per

Table IV.2 Religion-wise Distribution of Households by Place of Origin

State/country	Religion (in percentage)					Total
	Hindu	Muslim	Chris- tian	Sikh	Buddh- ist	
Bihar	93.14 12.93	6.28 8.53			0.57 20.00	175
Uttar Pradesh	80.00 37.38	18.33 83.72	0.34 40.00	1.18 87.5	0.17 20.00	589
Madhya Pradesh	98.11 4.12	0 0	1.88 20.0			53
Rajasthan	90.00 2.85	10.00 3.10				40
Tamil Nadu	100.00 0.15					2
Punjab	100.00 0.47					6
West Bengal	96.5 13.09	2.92 3.88	0.58 20.00			171
Bangladesh	99.04 24.76	0 0	0.33 20.00		0.63 40.00	315
Haryana	96.55 2.22			3.44 12.5		29
Orissa	100.00 0.40					5
Himachal Pradesh	100.00 0.23					3
Pakistan	100.0 0.40					5
Other places	85.71 0.95	7.14 0.77			7.14 20.00	14
Total	1260	129	5	8	5	1407

Note: Figures in the first column indicate percentage on the horizontal total while those on second column on vertical total.

cent from Bangladesh and 20 per cent each from Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and other places.

The distribution of households on the basis of castes by place of origin is given in the table IV.3. The table shows that among the scheduled castes migrants, 31.88 per cent are from Uttar Pradesh. 31.18 per cent from Bangladesh, 15.52 per cent from West Bengal and 9.72 per cent from Bihar.

Among the Scheduled tribe migrants, 26.66 per cent each are from Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan and 13.33 per cent each from West Bengal and Bihar and 6.66 per cent each from Madhya Pradesh, Bangladesh and Haryana. Among the migrants of higher castes, 36.42 per cent are from Uttar Pradesh, 22.0 per cent are from Bangladesh and 21.07 per cent are from Bihar. These three states share around 80 per cent of the migrants belonging to higher castes. Among the migrants of other backward classes, majority of them belong to Uttar Pradesh. Again, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Bangladesh contribute more than 70 per cent of the migrants.

IV.2 Causes of Migration

The information regarding causes of migration has been collected under seven heads, viz. education, employment, marriage, family moved, partition, war or communal violence, came with husband, flood and other causes. The category 'others' includes small causes like social disturbances, fight with family, accompanying brother etc.

Table IV.3 Caste-wise Distribution of Migrants by Place of Origin

Place of origin	Scheduled caste	%	Scheduled tribe	%	Higher caste	%	Other backward classes	%	Total
Bihar	70	9.79	2	13.33	59	21.07	32	12.8	163
Uttar Pradesh	228	31.88	4	26.66	102	36.42	137	54.8	471
Madhya Pradesh	29	4.05	1	6.66	7	2.5	15	6.0	52
Rajasthan	21	2.93	4	26.66	3	1.07	8	3.2	36
Tamil Nadu	0	0	0	0	1	0.35	1	0.4	2
Punjab	4	0.55	0	0	2	0.71	0	0	6
West Bengal	111	15.52	2	13.33	32	11.42	20	8.0	165
Bangladesh	223	31.18	1	6.66	63	22.5	25	10.0	312
Haryana	18	2.51	1	6.66	3	1.07	6	2.4	28
Orissa	4	0.55	0	0	1	0.35	0	0	5
Himachal Pradesh	2	0.27	0	0	1	0.35	0	0	3
Pakistan	1	0.14	0	0	2	0.71	2	0.8	5
Other places	4	0.55	0	0	4	1.42	4	1.6	12
Total	715	100	15	100	280	100	250	100	1260

The information about causes of migration shows that (Table IV.4) employment is one of the main causes of migration due to which more than three-fourth of the migration has taken place. Besides employment, partition, war, riot or communal violence is the second most important cause for migration due to which 12.36 per cent people migrated, 8.24 per cent of the people have migrated due to family movement to Delhi, 1.13 per cent migrated due to marriage and 0.71 per cent due to flood. A very small proportion (0.14%) of people migrated due to education.

The causes of migration are further divided into pull factor and push factor, and it is found that in the squatter around 85 per cent of the people have migrated due to pull factor while the rest 15 per cent due to push factor.

To know whether there exists any association between causes of migration and place of origin, the data of these two factors are cross classified and given in the table IV.5. It shows that, migration due to partition, war and communal violence is region specific. Of the total 174 households, 97.12 per cent came from Bangladesh, others are from Uttar Pradesh, Pakistan and from 'other places'. The information regarding period of migration has been discussed latter in this chapter. Out migration due to flood also shows that migrants came from Bihar (20%), West Bengal (30%), Uttar Pradesh (20%), Bangladesh (10%) and Madhya Pradesh (10%). In these states flood creates mass destruction of settlements and

Table IV.4 Percentage Distribution of Migrants by Causes of Migration

Causes of Migration	No. of households	Percentage to total households
Education	2	0.14
Employment	1077	76.54
Marriage	16	1.13
Family moved	116	8.24
Partition, war, riots	174	12.36
Came with husbands	1	0.07
Flood	10	0.71
Other causes	11	0.78
Total	1407	100

Table IV.5 Cross classification of the causes of migration with place of origin

State/country	Causes of Migration (in percentage)							Total	
	Educa- tion	Employ- ment	Marriage	Family moved	Partition, war, riot,	Came with husband	Flood		Others
Bihar		94.28 (15.22)		3.42 (5.17)	0.57 (0.57)		1.71 (30.00)		175 (12.43)
Haryana		86.20 (2.32)		10.34 (2.58)				3.44 (9.09)	29 (2.06)
Himachal Pradesh	100 (0.27)								3 (0.21)
Madhya Pradesh	1.88 (50.00)	84.90 (4.17)	1.88 (6.25)	9.43 (4.31)			1.88 (0.00)		53 (3.77)
Orissa		100 (0.46)							5 (0.36)
Punjab		83.33 (0.46)		16.66 (0.86)					6 (0.42)
Rajasthan		87.50 (3.24)		12.5 (4.31)					40 (2.84)
Tamil Nadu		100.0 (0.18)							2 (0.14)
Uttar Pradesh		88.96 (48.65)	1.86 (68.25)	7.47 (37.93)	0.16 (0.57)	0.16 (100)	0.33 (20.0)	1.01 (54.54)	589 (41.86)
West Bengal	0.58 (50.0)	85.96 (13.64)	1.16 (12.5)	8.77 (12.93)			1.75 (30.0)	1.75 (27.27)	171 (12.15)
Bangladesh		33.33 (9.74)	0.63 (12.5)	11.74 (31.89)	53.69 (97.12)		0.31 (10.0)	0.31 (9.09)	315 (22.38)
Pakistan		60.0 (0.27)			40.0 (1.14)				5 (0.35)
Other places		92.85 (1.20)			7.14 (0.57)				14 (0.99)
Total	2	1077	16	116	174	1	10	11	1407

Note: Figures in the first column indicate percentage on the horizontal total and those on second column within the bracket indicate percentage on vertical total.

property and leads to out migration. Further, these regions are comparatively nearer to Delhi and being the capital of India, people have migrated for the hope of relief.

In case of marriage, most of the migrants are from Uttar Pradesh (68.25%) and rest from West Bengal, Bangladesh and Madhya Pradesh. Migration due to employment shows that, excepting Bangladesh, more than 80 per cent of migration has taken place due to this cause. The share is even 100 per cent in case of Orissa, Tamil Nadu and Himachal Pradesh. In case of Bangladesh, as majority of the migration has taken place due to riot and partition, the share of migration due to employment is very low.

IV.3 Year of Migration

Year of migration is one of the important aspects of the study of migration. For this purpose, the year of leaving home by the migrants are classified in to four periods. These are before 1970, 1970-80, 1980-90 and after 1991. The information regarding the year of migration of the squatter dwellers shows that (Table VI.6) of the total 1407 head of the households, one-fourth of the households migrated before 1970. Majority of the households (56.07%) migrated during the period 1970-80. Tendency of migration reduced further in the decade 1980-90. Again in the year after 1991 the number of migrants reached lowest level. Information derived from yearly basis migration from 1981 to 1991 shows that with the passage of time the

Table IV.6 Distribution of migrants by year of leaving home and arrival in Delhi

Year of leaving and arrival in Delhi	No. of house holds left home	%age	No. of house holds arrived in Delhi	%age
1. Before 1970	353	25.09	188	13.36
2. 1970-1980	789	56.07	865	61.48
3(i) 1981	99	7.03	134	9.52
(ii) 1982	31	2.20	43	3.05
(iii) 1983	29	2.06	43	3.05
(iv) 1984	33	2.34	42	3.00
(v) 1985	24	1.70	28	2.00
(vi) 1986	21	1.50	26	1.84
(vii) 1987	13	0.92	16	1.13
(viii) 1988	6	0.42	6	0.42
(ix) 1989	4	0.28	11	0.78
(x) 1990	2	0.14	2	0.14
4. 1981-1990	262	18.62	351	24.94
5. After 1991	3	0.21	3	0.21
Total	1407	100	1407	100

tempo of migration has declined substantially.

The table IV.6 also reveals the arrival of the migrants in Delhi. Before 1970, while 25.09 per cent of the migrants left home only 13.66 per cent people arrived in Delhi. In subsequent periods while 56.07 per cent people left home, 61.48 per cent people arrived in Delhi. It means more people arrived than their departure. Yearly information on arrival and departure of the households shows that between 1980-87 more people arrived in Delhi than their departure. These indicate nothing but the step migration through which the migration has taken place.

To find whether there exists any association between the place of origin of the migrants and period of leaving home, information of these two aspects is cross classified and given in the table IV.7. The table shows that majority of the migrants from Bangladesh and all migrants from Pakistan have migrated before 1970. In this period, no migration has taken place from Orissa and Punjab. During the period 1970-80, the squatter has experienced most of the migration. Of the total migrants from various states, highest was from Haryana (75.86%), followed by West Bengal (63.15%), Uttar Pradesh (60.78%) and Bihar (61.14%). In this period, migration from Orissa was 40.0 per cent, from Punjab 33.33 per cent and from Bangladesh it was 40.0 per cent. During the period 1980-90, the trend of migration decreased except in Orissa and Punjab. Maximum number of people from these two states came during

Table 4.7 Percentage Distribution of Migrants by Place of Origin and Year of Migration

Place of origin	Before 1970	1970-1980	1980-1990	After 1990	Total
Bihar	10.85 (5.38)	61.14 (13.56)	27.42 (18.32)	0.57 (33.33)	
Haryana	6.89 (0.56)	75.86 (2.78)	17.24 (1.90)		
Himachal Pradesh		66.66 (0.25)	33.33 (0.38)		
Madhya Pradesh	15.09 (2.26)	56.60 (3.80)	26.41 (5.34)	1.88 (33.33)	
Orissa		40.0 (0.25)	60.0 (1.14)		
Punjab		33.33 (0.25)	66.66 (1.52)		
Rajasthan	27.5 (3.11)	55.0 (2.78)	17.5 (2.67)		
Tamil Nadu	50.0 (0.28)		50.0 (0.38)		
Uttar Pradesh	19.86 (33.14)	60.78 (45.37)	19.18 (43.12)	0.17 (33.33)	
West Bengal	7.60 (3.68)	63.15 (13.68)	29.23 (19.08)		
Bangladesh	54.60 (48.72)	40.63 (16.22)	4.76 (5.72)		
Pakistan	100.0 (1.41)				
Other places	35.71 (1.41)	57.14 (1.01)	7.14 (0.38)		
Total	353	789	262		

Note: Figures in the first column indicate percentage on the horizontal total and those on second column within the bracket indicate percentage on vertical total.

this period. After 1990, the squatter has experienced least migration. Only three households are migrated. They are one each from Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar.

To find out whether there is any association between the cause of migration and period of leaving home by the migrants, the two aspects are cross-classified and given in table IV.8. The table shows that a strong association exists between these two aspects. Employment being a cause of migration, most of the migration has taken place in the period 1970-80. In the years before 1970, only 16 per cent, and between 1980-90 only 22.09 per cent migrants left home. Migration due to marriage shows that 43.75 per cent of the migration has taken place before 1970, 50.0 per cent in 1970-80 and the least (6.25%) in 1980-90. In case of family movement as a cause, 41.73 per cent migrated before 1970, 46.08 per cent in 1970-80 and only 12.17 per cent in 1980-90.

The migration due to riot, partition and war shows a strong association with period of migration. 62.64 per cent of the migrants left home before 1970, 35.05 per cent in 1970-80 and only 2.29 per cent in 1980-90. Due to flood, 27.27 per cent migration has taken place before 1970. The migration increases due to flood in the year 1970-80 in which 54.75 per cent migration has taken place. The trend slowed down in 1980-90, in which only 18.18 per cent migration has taken place.

Summing up, there is a strong association that exists between the period of migration and causes of migration. While

Table 4.8 Percentage Distribution of Migrants by Causes of Migration and Year of Leaving Home

Causes of migration	Before 1970	1970-1980	1980-1990	After 1990	Total
Education		50.0 (0.12)	50.0 (0.38)		2 (0.14)
Employment	16.80 (51.27)	60.81 (83.01)	22.09 (90.83)	0.27 (100.0)	1077 (76.54)
Marriage	43.75 (1.98)	50.0 (1.01)	6.25 (0.38)		16 (1.13)
Family moved	41.73 (13.59)	46.08 (6.71)	12.17 (5.34)		115 (8.24)
Partition, war, riot	62.64 (30.87)	35.05 (7.73)	2.29 (1.52)		174 (12.36)
Came with husband	100 (10.28)				1 (0.07)
Flood	27.27 (0.84)	54.54 (0.76)	18.18 (0.76)		11 (0.71)
Other causes	36.36 (1.13)	45.45 (0.63)	18.18 (0.76)		11 (0.71)
Total	353	789	262	3	1407

Note: Figure in the first column shows the horizontal percentage and figure in the bracket showing the vertical percentage.

most of the migrants left home between 1970-80 due to employment, flood, family movement and marriage at the same time before the year 1970, partition, war, riot and family movement was the main cause of migration.

IV.4 Age at the Time of Migration

Age of the migrants at the time of migration is another aspect in the study of migration. The information regarding age is collected from the head of the households. Table IV.9 gives the information regarding the age of the head of the households.

The table shows that of the total 1407 migrants, more than 65 per cent migrated before 24 years of age. Detailed analysis of the data further reveals that 21.32 per cent of the migrants migrated before 15 years of age, 45.20 per cent migrated between 15-24 years and 20.18 per cent in between 25-34 years of age. This shows that one-fourth of the total migrants were child labourers or minor at the time of migration. In the age of 35-44 years, 7.82 per cent of the people migrated. As the age increased the number of migrants decreased. In the age group of 45-59 years, only 5.12 per cent of the total migrants migrated, further in the age groups of more than 60 years only 0.35 per cent people migrated.

To find whether there exists any association between the age of migrants and the causes of their migration, cross-classification of these two variables has been done. The

Table IV.9 Age of the Head of the Household at the time of Migration

Age groups	No. of migrants	Percentage
< 15 years	300	21.32
15-24 years	636	45.20
25-34 years	284	20.18
35-44 years	110	7.82
45-59 years	72	5.12
60 and above	5	0.35
Total	1407	100

information regarding these is given in the table IV.10. The table shows that people's coming for education is totally controlled by the age. Of the total 2 migrants, one migrated after the age of 15 years and another 15-24 years of age. It is due to the young mass coming to study in the urban areas. In case of employment, it is found that as the age of the migrants increased, their number decreased. The job market only needs the young people for work. So the migration due to employment decreased as the age of the people increased. The information on marriage as a cause of migration shows that of the 16 migrants, 18.75 per cent migrated below 15 years of age and 56.25 per cent in 15-24 years of age. While 6.24 per cent migrated between 25-34 years of age, no one migrated in the age of 35-44 years, but 18.75 per cent of the respondent found between 45-59 years of age. The migrants in the higher age due to marriage may be because of second marriage or widow marriage.

In case of family movement, most of the migrants (70.69%) migrated before the age of 15 years of age. As the respondents were children at that time, they came along with their family members and stated family movement as the cause of their migration.

Due to partition, war, riot or communal violence, more than one-third of the migrants left home before 15 years of age, 25.86 per cent of the migrants migrated between 15-24 years of age. After the age of 25 the percentage of migrants

Table IV.10 Percentage Distribution of Migrants of Different Age Groups According to the Causes of Migration

Age group	Education	Employment	Marriage	Family moved	Partition war, riot	Came with husband	Flood	Other causes	Total
< 15 years	0.33 (50.0)	49.33 (13.74)	1.00 (18.75)	27.33 (70.69)	20.33 (35.06)		0.66 (20.0)	1.00 (27.27)	300
15-24 years	0.16 (50.0)	86.63 (51.16)	1.41 (56.25)	3.30 (18.1)	7.07 (25.86)	0.16 (100.0)	0.63 (40.0)	0.63 (36.36)	636
25-34 years		82.40 (21.73)	0.35 (6.25)	2.81 (6.9)	13.02 (21.26)		0.35 (10.0)	1.05 (27.27)	284
35-44 years		87.54 (8.63)		0.90 (0.86)	11.81 (7.47)		1.81 (20.0)	0.90 (9.09)	110
45-59 years		69.44 (4.64)	4.17 (18.75)	5.55 (3.44)	19.44 (8.04)		1.39 (10.0)		72
60 and above		20.0 (0.09)			80.0 (2.30)				5
Total	2	1077	16	116	174	1	10	11	1407

Note: Figures in the first column show the horizontal percentage and those in the bracket shows the vertical percentage.

decreased. It is because although these people left home due to partition, war or riot, but migrated to Delhi only because of the need for proper employment as their needs were not fulfilled properly in Dandkaranaya and in other places where they were resettled by the Indian government.

In case of flood as the cause of migration, there is no conformity found on the age of the migration concerned. Of the total 10 migrants, 20 per cent migrated before 15 years of age, 40 per cent in 15-24 years of age, 10 per cent 25-34 years of age, 20 per cent in 35-44 years of age and another 10 per cent in the age of 45-59 years. As flood creates havoc and destroys settlements and cultivable lands, people of any age group choose to out migrate.

IV.5 Direct/Step-wise Migration

Migration sometimes took place direct and some times step-wise. All this is controlled by circumstances, information and distance between place of departure and place of destination. The information regarding direct or step-wise migration has been collected by questioning how many places the respondent had stayed before moving to Delhi. These information have been given in the table IV.11.

Of the total 1407 migrants, three-fourth came directly to Delhi, 19.97 per cent of the migrants stayed at one place before coming to Delhi, 3.55 per cent stayed at two different places, 0.92 per cent stayed at three places and 0.63 per cent

Table IV.11 Distribution of Migrants by Step-wise Migration

Step-wise migration	Number of respondents	Percentage
Came directly	1054	74.92
Stayed at one place	281	19.97
Stayed at two places	50	3.55
Stayed at three places	13	0.92
Stayed more than three places	9	0.63
Total	1407	100

stayed at more than three places before coming to Delhi.

To find whether there exists any association between the place of origin and step migration, information on these two aspects has been cross-tabulated and given in table IV.12.

The table reveals the fact that proportion of direct migration decreased as the distance of the place of origin increased from Delhi. This phenomena is called "distance decay"¹ given by E.T. Ravenstein in his theory of migration. Although there is no information on the actual distance of the places to prove this phenomenon numerically, still state wise the distance decay phenomenon is clear.

The table shows that 100 per cent direct migration took place from Haryana, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. Except Tamil Nadu, all other states are neighbouring states of Delhi. Between 90-100 per cent migrants came directly from Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan and 80-90 per cent from Bihar, West Bengal and Orissa. Contrary to these 60 per cent migrants from Pakistan and 26.60 per cent migrants from Bangladesh came directly to Delhi.

About step-wise migration, 54.92 per cent migrants from Bangladesh, 40 per cent from Pakistan, 20 per cent from Orissa, 16 per cent from West Bengal, 8 per cent from Uttar Pradesh and 2.5 per cent from Rajasthan stayed at one place before coming to Delhi.

¹ M. Hussain, Human Geography, Rawat Publication, Jaipur, 1994, pp.148-150.

Table IV.12 Percentage Distribution of Migrants by Step-wise Migration and Place of Origin

State/country	Came directly	One place	Two places	Three places	More than three places	Total
Bihar	85.71	10.28	2.85	1.14	0	175
Uttar Pradesh	90.15	8.65	1.01	0.16	0	589
Madhya Pradesh	96.22	3.77	0	0	0	53
Rajasthan	97.5	2.5	0	0	0	40
Tamil Nadu	100	0	0	0	0	2
Punjab	100	0	0	0	0	6
West Bengal	83.04	16.95	0	0	0	171
Bangladesh	26.66	54.92	12.38	3.17	2.85	315
Haryana	100	0	0	0	0	29
Orissa	80	20.0	0	0	0	5
Himachal Pradesh	100.0	0	0	0	0	3
Pakistan	60.0	40.0	0	0	0	5
Other places	71.42	28.57	0	0	0	14
Total	75.0	19.97	3.55	0.92	0.64	1407

Migrants from Bihar and Uttar Pradesh stayed at upto three places, while migrants from Bangladesh stayed at more than three places before coming to Delhi. It is because Bangladesh migrants were settled by Indian government in Bihar, West Bengal and Dandakaranya region from where they migrated to Delhi, so it shows more step-wise migration for them.

IV.6 Contact in Migration

In the process of migration, the migrants are always controlled by the circumstances, opportunities and information available to them. Although not always, people in migration came through some contact. According to T.K. Majumdar "arrival of the rural migrants in the city is not due to random search for employment but largely depends on the presence of friends, castemen, relations, fellow villagers or those from neighboring areas".² The information regarding contact in migration has been given in the table IV.13.

The table shows that 55.16 per cent of the migrants came through contacts. Of them, 14.14 per cent came through family contacts, 26.43 per cent through relatives and the rest 14.57 per cent came through contacts other than with family and relatives. About 44.84 per cent migrants came through without any contact.

² Tapas K. Majumdar, *The Urban Poor and Social Change - A Study to Squatter Settlements in Delhi*, De Souza, A. (ed), The Indian City Poverty, Ecology and Urban Development, Manohar Publication, New Delhi, pp.40-41.

Table IV.13 Contact in Migration

Types of contact	Number of migrants	Percentage
No contact	631	44.84
Family	199	14.14
Relative	371	26.43
Others	205	14.57
Total	1406	100.00

To find whether there exists any association between the causes of migration and contact in migration, these were cross-classified and given in the table IV.14. The table shows that in case of forced migration, like flood, partition, riot or communal violence, the percentage of migration without any contact is more. It is 68.40 per cent in case of partition and riot, and 60 per cent in case of flood. (Employment as a cause of migration shows that around 60 per cent of the migrants came through contacts, 14.58 per cent came through family contact, 28.78 per cent came through relatives and 16.06 per cent came through other than family and relatives. T.K. Majumdar in his study stated that "in urban areas, recruitment into occupations took place in an informal manner. Vacancies are advertised by word of mouth and therefore territorial, kin and caste affinities play a predominant role in the recruitment of workers".³ Thus though migrants may move to the city individually, they are not among strangers but are supported by a network of social relations built on ties of kin, caste, regional affinities and friendship.)

Education as a cause of migration shows that of the two migrants, one came through relatives and other, through other than family and relatives. As the young people came for education, they need contacts for migration to the unknown place.

³ T.K. Majumdar, op. cit.

Table IV.14 Types of Contact of Migrants by Causes of Migration

Type of contact	Education	Employment	Marriage	Family moved	Partition war, riot	Came with husband	Flood	Other causes
No contact	N	437 (40.58)	4 (25.0)	61 (52.58)	119 (68.40)	N	6 (60.0)	4 (36.36)
Family	N	157 (14.58)	4 (25.0)	23 (19.82)	12 (6.90)	N	N	3 (27.27)
Relative	1 (50.0)	310 (28.78)	5 (31.25)	26 (22.41)	24 (13.8)	1 (100.0)	2 (20.0)	3 (27.27)
Other than family relative	1 (50.0)	173 (16.06)	3 (18.75)	6 (5.17)	19 (10.9)	N	2 (20.0)	1 (9.10)
Total	2	1077	16	116	174	1	10	11

Note: N for no value.

IV.7 Migration and Occupational Change

At the place of origin, most of the migrants used to be landless labourer (32%) followed by cultivators (24.5%). Of the total 1407 head of the households, 4.8 percent were tailors, 1.8 percent each as shopkeepers and daily labourers, 1.1 percent factory workers. Among the other migrants, 6.10 percent were students and 15.0 percent were unemployed.

In the process of migration, except some migrants, most have changed their occupations (Appendix I). Of the total 449 landless labourers, 59 are working as daily labourers, 52 are working as factory workers, 39 each running shops and working as tailors, 28 as painters and 24 are maid servants. The cultivators are working as factory workers (40), labourers (41), shopkeepers (30), maid servants (24) and tailors (17). In case of landless labourers and cultivators, we find that some of them accrued some skills in urban set up like tailoring, painting. In case of tailors, they were already skilled before migration. Most of them (49) are working in the same occupation by not changing them and by working in the garment factories and in tailoring shops. Those who were students at the time of migration, are currently engaged in more diversified jobs, like driver, electricians, gardener, shopkeepers etc. In the caste based or traditional occupations also, much change has taken place among carpenters, washermen, fishermen, goldsmiths, blacksmiths, barbers, excepting only cobblers. The number of fishermen

declined from 16 to 1 due to lack of opportunity. The washermen also changed their occupation and from 3 only 1 is presently working on the same job. About the carpenters, of the 11, about half of them are working in the same occupation.

Summing up

People from various states and neighbouring countries (Bangladesh and Pakistan) migrated to the squatter at different points of time. A big share of migrants is from Uttar Pradesh, followed by Bangladesh, Bihar and West Bengal. These four places have contributed 20 percent of the households. Rest 10 percent households are from Madhya Pradesh, Haryana, Rajasthan, Punjab, Orissa, Himachal Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and from other states. Of the total households, one-fourth have migrated from Bangladesh and Pakistan. Division of Indian subcontinent followed by war, riots are the main causes of these migrations from these two countries. Employment is found to be the most important cause due to which more than three-fourth of the migration took place. Besides partition, war or riot is the second most important cause. Other causes are family movement, marriage, flood and education. In migration pull factors are more responsible than push factors.

About the period of migration, majority of migration (56.07%) took place during 1970-80, followed by 1980-90 and the period before 1970. After 1981, the tempo of migration

decreased. Migration before 1970s is mostly from Bangladesh and Pakistan, and during 1970-80 from Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar and Haryana. Between 1980-90 the migration was mostly from Orissa and Punjab. It has been noticed that the causes of migration is time specific. Migration due to employment mostly took place in 1970-80. In case of riot, partition etc., it occurred before 1970, while in the case of floods, it occurred between 1970-80.

About the age of the migrants at the time of migration, most of the migration took place before 25 years of age, out of which 21.32 per cent occurred before 15 years of age and rest 45.2 per cent between 15-24 years of age. After the age of 35 the number of migrants decreased as the age increased. The causes of migration are found to be totally controlled by age of the migrants. Number of migrants due to employment, education, marriage decreased as the age increased while in case of migration due to flood, partition, war, riot etc., the migration took place indifferently.

About step-wise migration, although three-fourth of the migrants came directly to Delhi, some of the households stayed at three places and even at more than three places. Step-wise migration of people from different places reveals that migration took place indifferently from states. While households from nearby states like Haryana, Rajasthan and Punjab migrated directly, households from far-off states like Tamil Nadu, Himachal Pradesh also migrated directly. The step-

wise migration was prominent in case of migration from Bangladesh.

About contact of migration, more than half of the respondents migrated through contacts. Migration due to pull factors took place with proper contacts while in case of push factors, the incidence of contact are less. There is found occupational mobility among the migrants. Due to lack of scope, most of the migrants changed their past occupations and shifted to other occupations. This phenomena is prominent in case of cultivators, agricultural labourers and fishermen. Some of the migrants also acquired new skills like the cultivation and landless laboures became tailors. In case of caste based occupations, although change has taken place, among the castes of cobblers, carpenters etc. no shift in occupation took place.

CHAPTER V

ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SQUATTER DWELLERS

One of the major aspects of human societies from the very beginning from the view point of survival and subsistence has been division of labour. As some people must work for the production of national wealth, in whatever form they work, they are classified as workers in contrast to non-workers, who are not engaged in the production of goods and services. Further workers are classified according to the types of activity they are engaged in, the nature of work they perform, whether they are employers, employees or independent workers, and the earning they have. All these aspects of the population in a particular region specify its economic characteristics.

The issue regarding the study of the economic characteristics of squatters has been a major concern, particularly among the scholars and the researchers. As a result the economic characteristics of squatters have been studied with great care and interest. This is because of the fact that people of a squatter are a conglomeration of different castes, religion and they belong to different regions, presently working in a diversified and more complex economic setup.

The present study on the economic characteristics of the

squatter dwellers are based on the information collected on the basis of the distribution of households. The heads of the households are interviewed and their occupational and employment status are analysed along with the workers and non-workers, main and marginal workers, work participation rate, household income, per capita income and distance of workplace.

V.1 Workers and Non-Workers

According to census of India (1981)¹, work is participation in any economically productive activity. Such participation may be physical or mental in nature. Again work involves not only actual work but also effective supervision and direction of work. By taking the census definition of work, the people fulfilling the above conditions can be called workers and others non-workers. (Further the workers were those who had worked any time at all during the last year and non-workers those who had not worked at all. The people in household duties, students, dependents, retired persons or rentiers beggars, inmates of institutions are included in the category of non-workers.)

The information regarding workers and non-workers by religion and caste has been given in Table V.1. Of the total 6569 population, 31.52 per cent are workers and the rest, i.e., 68.48 per cent are non-workers. Religion based

¹ Census of India (1981), General Economic Tables. Part III - A(i), Registrar General of India, Ministry of Home Affairs, New Delhi, p.37.

Table V.1 Region and Caste Wise Distribution of Population, Workers and Non-workers and Percentage of Workers and Non-workers to Total Population

Religion/ caste	Total population	Workers	%age	Non-workers	%age
Total population	6569	2071	31.52	4498	68.48
Hindu	5860	1871	31.93	3989	68.07
Muslim	621	174	28.02	447	71.98
Christian	22	8	35.36	14	63.64
Sikh	42	10	23.80	32	76.20
Buddhist and other religions	24	8	33.33	16	66.67
Scheduled caste	3383	1093	32.30	2290	67.70
Scheduled tribe	73	23	31.50	50	68.50
Higher caste	1289	405	31.42	884	68.58
OBCs	1115	350	31.40	764	68.60

distribution of population into workers and non-workers shows that Christians have the highest percentage (36.36%) of workers followed by Buddhists and other religions. Sikhs have the lowest percentage of (23.80%) workers.

Caste division of the workers and non-workers shows that scheduled castes have maximum share of workers (32.30%). Other castes like scheduled tribes, higher castes and people belonging to other backward classes (OBCs) have equal share of workers (31.4%).

(The distribution of workers and non-workers by the per capita income groups shows that (Table V.2) the percentage of workers is less and non-workers more in the low per capita income groups. As the per capita income increases, the percentage of workers shows a marked increase and non-workers decreases.)

V.2 Gender Disparity in Workers and Non-Workers

The division of workers by males and females shows that (Table V.3) out of the total of 2071 workers, 77.30 per cent are males and the rest are females. The male-female disparity among workers is 1.06.² The male-female disparity of workers according to religion and caste shows that, among religious groups, Sikhs have the highest disparity (1.90), followed by Muslims where the male-female disparity is 1.82. Hindus have

² Calculated on the basis of Sopher's Index of Gender Disparity.

Table V.2 Distribution of Workers and Non-workers by Per Capita Income Groups

Per capita income groups	Total population	Workers	Non- workers	Percentage of	
				workers	non-workers
0 - 65	155	30	125	19.35	80.65
65 - 125	1002	200	802	19.96	80.04
125 - 180	1502	364	1138	24.23	75.77
180 - 280	1993	612	1381	30.71	69.29
280 - 370	719	276	443	38.39	61.61
370 - 500	771	330	441	42.80	57.20
500 - 1500	413	252	161	61.0	39.0
> 1500	14	7	7	50.0	50.0

Table V.3 Distribution of Male and Female Workers to Total Workers, Percentage Distribution of Male and Female Workers and Male and Female Disparity of Workers by Religion and Caste Wise

Religion/ caste	Total workers	Male worker	Female worker	Percentage of		Male-Female disparity*
				Male worker	Female worker	
Population	2071	1601	470	77.30	22.70	1.06
Hindu	1871	1426	445	76.22	23.78	1.01
Muslim	174	155	19	89.08	10.92	1.82
Christian	8	6	2	75.0	25.0	0.95
Sikh	10	9	1	90.0	10.0	1.90
Buddhist and other religions	8	5	3	62.50	37.50	0.44
Scheduled caste	1093	804	289	73.56	26.44	0.89
Scheduled tribe	23	17	6	73.91	26.09	0.90
Higher caste	405	317	88	78.27	21.73	1.11
OBCs	350	288	62	82.29	17.71	1.33

* Male-female disparity has been calculated on the basis of Sopher's Index of Gender disparity.

a lower disparity compared to aggregate of the squatter level. Buddhist and other religious groups have lowest male-female disparity.

Among caste groups, other backward classes have the highest disparity followed by higher caste people. People belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes have lower disparity, in which the scheduled caste male-female disparity is the least.

About the non-workers, the percentage of males and females of total non-workers by caste and religious groups has been given in the Table V.4. The table shows that among the religious groups, except Sikhs and Hindus all other religions have higher percentage of female non-workers compared to total population. The percentage of female non-workers are highest among the Christians (64.28%) followed by Muslims. The Sikhs have the lowest percentage (53.13%) of female non-workers.

Among caste groups, scheduled tribe females have the lowest (50%) percentage of non-workers while the higher castes have the highest percentage of female non-workers.

In the Table V.5 the male-female division of the non-workers has been given by per capita income groups. It may be seen from the table that as the per capita income increases, the percentage of male non-workers decreases while the proportion of female non-workers increases. From the information available to us, we may easily say that (as the per capita income increases, the possibility of working of females

Table V.4 Distribution of Male and Female Workers and Percentage of Male and Female Workers to Total Non-Workers by Religion and Caste Wise

Religion/ caste	Non-workers			Percentage of	
	Total	Males	Females	Males	Females
Population	4498	1921	2575	42.70	57.30
Hindu	3989	1733	2256	43.44	56.56
Muslim	447	162	285	36.24	63.76
Christian	14	5	9	35.71	64.29
Sikh	32	15	17	46.87	53.13
Buddhist and other religions	16	6	10	37.50	62.50
Scheduled caste	2290	992	1298	43.31	56.69
Scheduled tribe	50	25	25	50.0	50.0
Higher caste	884	376	508	42.53	57.46
OBCs	765	340	425	44.44	55.56

Table V.5 Distribution of Male and Female Non-Workers and Percentage of Male and Female Non-Workers to Total Non-Workers by Per Capita Income Groups

Per capita income groups	Non-workers			Percentage of	
	Total	Males	Females	Males	Females
1 - 65	125	58	67	46.4	53.6
65 - 125	802	345	457	43.0	57.0
125 - 180	1138	513	625	45.08	54.92
180 - 280	1381	606	775	43.89	56.11
280 - 370	443	187	256	42.21	57.79
370 - 500	441	155	286	35.14	64.86
500 - 1500	161	55	106	34.16	65.84
> 1500	7	2	5	28.57	71.42
Total	4498	1921	2577	42.70	57.30

(is decreasing or vice versa. It is because, the main bread winner of a family is male, if his income is sufficient, then there will be no need for females to go for work.)

V.3 Work Participation Rate

(The work participation rate of the squatter population has been taken by dividing the total number of workers by the total population and multiplying it by hundred) (See Methodology). The table V.6 gives information about the work participation rate of males and females by religion and caste groups. The work participation rate of the total population is 31.52 per cent. It is 45.47 per cent for males and only 15.42 per cent for females.

There is a vast difference in the work participation rate among the religious groups. Where the Muslims have the lowest (28.01%) work participation rate, Sikhs have the highest (65.80%) participation rate. The participation rate for caste groups shows that there is not much difference among them. The scheduled caste population has the highest participation rate (32.30%) while the people belonging to other backward classes have the lowest (31.39%) participation rate.

(When we consider the sex differences in work participation rates, we find that the rates are much lower for females. According to Premi and others (1983), "women's participation in economic activity is determined among other things, by factors like marital status, number of children

Table V.6 Work Participation Rates of Total Population, Males and Females and Male-Female Disparity in Work Participation Rate by Religion and Caste wise

Religion/ caste	Total	Males	Females	Male - Female* disparity
Population	31.52	45.47	15.42	0.660
Hindu	31.92	45.14	16.47	0.620
Muslim	28.01	48.89	6.25	1.157
Christian	36.36	65.54	18.18	0.932
Sikh	65.80	37.50	5.55	1.009
Buddhist and other religions	33.33	45.46	36.07	0.170
Scheduled caste	32.30	44.76	18.21	0.561
Scheduled tribe	31.50	40.47	19.35	0.452
Higher caste	31.41	45.74	14.76	0.687
OBCs	31.39	45.85	12.73	0.763

* Male-female disparity has been calculated on the basis of Sopher's Index of Gender disparity.

they have to take care of, the additional income they can earn and, above all, the social outlook about female employment".³⁾

Although it is true that female participation rate is much lower than males, the disparity among females in various religious and caste groups is variable. The male-female disparity for total population is 0.66. In comparison to the disparity of the total population, Muslims, Sikhs and Christians have more male-female disparity on participation rate while Hindus and Buddhists have less disparity. Among the religious groups, Muslims rank first with highest disparity and Buddhists along with other religious groups have lowest disparity. Among the caste groups, people belonging to other backward castes have the highest disparity followed by higher caste people. Scheduled tribes have the lowest male-female disparity.

The work participation rate of the males and females and total population by the per capita income groups has been given in the Table V.7. The table shows that the participation rate of the males and females and total population increases as the per capita income increases. The correlation coefficient value of the per capita income with work participation rate of total population males and females shows that (Table V.7) as the per capita income increases, the participation rate of males increases and it is signified at

³ Mahendra K. Premi, A. Ramanamma and Usha Bambewala, (1983), An Introduction to Social Demography, Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, p.58.

Table V.7 Work Participation Rates of Total Population, Males and Females and Male-Female Disparity by per capita income

Per capita income	Work Participation Rate			Male - Female# disparity
	Total	Males	Females	
1 - 65	19.35	28.39	9.46	0.580
65 - 125	19.96	31.54	9.50	0.642
125 - 180	31.98	35.63	11.80	0.616
180 - 280	30.70	43.52	16.85	0.580
280 - 370	38.38	52.78	20.74	0.630
370 - 500	42.80	61.54	22.28	0.74
500 - 1500	61.01	78.76	31.17	0.91
> 1500	50.0	77.78	0.0	undefined
All income groups	31.52	45.46	15.42	
Correlation coefficient	0.8*	0.9**	-0.9	

* Significance at 98%

** Significance at 99%

Male-female disparity has been calculated on the basis of Sopher's Index of Gender disparity.

99% level of significance. In case of total population, it is significant at the level of 98%. But in case of females, it comes negative. It indicates that the possibility of working of females is less in high per capita income families. In a family, where the income of males is enough, the females are not going for work.

The male-female disparity on the basis of work participation rate by per capita income shows that the disparity, generally increases with the increase in income.

V.4 Main Workers and Marginal Workers

The division of the workers in to main and marginal workers is a component of the economic characteristics of any population. According to the census of India⁴, the main workers are those who worked over a period of six months (186 days) or more or major part of the year preceding the enumeration. Marginal workers on the other hand, were those who have worked any time at all in the year preceding the enumeration but have not worked for the major part of the year.

Taking the census definition of main and marginal workers, the working population of the squatters has been divided into two categories from the information of number of days worked. The information regarding the main and marginal workers has been given in the Table V.8. The table also shows

⁴ Census of India (1981), op.cit., p.32.

Table V.8 Distribution of Total Workers into Main and Marginal Workers and Their Percentage by Religion and Caste Groups

Religion/ caste	Main workers	%age	Marginal workers	%age	Total workers
Hindu	1216	94.26	74	5.73	1290
Muslim	124	93.23	9	6.76	133
Christian	5	100	0	0.0	5
Sikh	5	62.5	3	37.5	8
Buddhist and other religions	5	100	0	0.0	5
Total	1355	94.03	86	5.96	1441
Scheduled caste	687	93.59	47	6.40	734
Scheduled tribe	16	88.89	2	11.11	18
Higher caste	275	95.81	12	4.18	287
OBCs	238	94.82	13	5.17	251
Total	1216	94.26	74	5.73	1290

religion- and caste-wise distribution of main and marginal workers. Out of the total sample of 1441 workers, 94.03 per cent are main workers and the rest 5.96 per cent are marginal workers.

Religion wise vast difference is found in the proportion of the main and marginal workers. Christians and Buddhists and other religious groups have 100 per cent main workers, thus no marginal worker in these groups is observed. On the other hand, among the Hindus and Muslims, 94.26 per cent and 93.23 per cent are main workers respectively. Sikhs have lowest percentage (62.5) of main workers; in other words highest percentage (37.5) of marginal workers. Except scheduled tribes, all other workers have 39 to 40 per cent of main workers and 4 to 6 per cent of marginal workers. The scheduled tribes have 88.89 per cent main workers and 11.11 per cent marginal workers.

V.5 Occupational Categories of Workers

Delhi metropolitan area has a great diversity of economic activities. A squatter in this diversified setup is more diversified and complex as far as the occupational structure of the squatting people is concerned. They are engaged in low paid unskilled works like porters, loaders, rickshaw pullers, cooks, construction workers, etc.; the occupations in public undertakings, government and semi-government agencies and private offices as peons and watchmen; petty traders and

vendors; traditional occupation like carpenters, blacksmiths, leather workers; and occupations of semi-professional kind like compounders, school teachers, clerks and accountants, etc.)

In the course of study, more than 120 small occupations of different types were identified. To analyse and interpret the data, the small occupations are clubbed together and reduced to 45 occupations. For example, the vendors of 10 to 15 types are given the occupation of vendor.

Various occupations of the squatter dwellers have been classified according to the number of people in the occupation. The number of people in occupations have been classified into eight groups. The information regarding the number of people in different occupations is given in Table V.9.

The table shows that there are two occupations in which more than 150 persons are engaged. They are factory workers and daily labourers. The reasons behind such a large number of workers in these two occupations are many. About the factory workers, it is mainly due to the locational factor of the squatter. As we mentioned earlier in the first chapter, that the squatter is nearer to the New Okhla Industrial Area, the dwellers are absorbed in the factories of the area. The factories in which the dwellers are getting jobs are garment, rubber, leather, spare parts, electronic goods making, shows factory, etc. The daily labourer in which 160 people are

Table V.9 Classification of Occupations by Number of Occupants

Occupation	Number of occupants
1. Factory worker, labourers	> 150
2. Shopkeeper, tailor	105 - 150
3. Maid servants	75 - 100
4. Driver, mechanic, vendor	50 - 75
5. Carpenter, electrician, gardner, catering, hotel and restaurant, priest, security guard	25 - 50
6. Fisherman, rickshaw puller, Kabadi wala	10 - 25
7. Blacksmith, barber, contractor, clerk, dhobi, stitching, shoe maker (cobler), Rag picker, CPWD worker	5 - 10
8. Book binder, carpenter, craftsman, goldsmith, doctor, music and orchestra, priest, postman, supervisor, service man	1 - 5

engaged, is the second ranking occupation. The unskilled and little educated migrated people first do this type of occupations. Later, they shift to other occupations according to their educational qualifications and choice of jobs. The study shows majority of the labourers are illiterates, and one-fourth of them are educated upto middle class.

Occupations in which 100-150 people are engaged are petty traders or shop-keepers and tailors. These two occupations absorbed 255 people. Occupations in which 75-100 people are engaged are domestic workers and painters. These two occupations absorbed 174 people. The occupation of 'maid servant' is done by the females of the squatters to earn some money, which helps to run their household smoothly. As little education is needed for this job, more and more women prefer to do this job. (We find that the females of the squatters are doing the job in nearby flats and in Chittaranjan Park areas.)

Occupations in which 50-75 people are engaged are drivers, merchants and vendors. These three occupations absorb 11.75 per cent of the total workers of the squatters. Occupations in which 25-50 people are engaged are seven in number. They are carpenters, guards, electricians, gardeners, hotel and catering, helpers and masons in the construction work. Occupations in which 10-25 people are engaged are seven in number. In these occupations, 7.92 per cent of the people are absorbed. The occupants in these category are fishermen, junk dealers, peons, plumbers, rickshaw pullers, sweepers and

salesmen.

Occupations in which 5-10 people are engaged are ten in number. These ten occupations absorbed only 5.14 per cent of the total workers. The occupants in this class are blacksmiths, barbers, teachers, contractors, clerks, washermen, rag pickers, stitching, cobblers. Occupations in which 1 to 5 persons are engaged are ten in number and absorbed only 1.53 per cent of the working people. These occupants are book binders, compounders, craftsmen, doctors, goldsmiths, singers, priests, postmen, supervisors, and servicemen.

V.6 Literacy and Occupation

It would be of some interest to examine the role of education in the occupational structure of the squatter dwellers. Education is a vital factor in the social transformation of a society and its economic amelioration. As far as the occupational characteristics of the squatter population are concerned, we find that except for some occupations the educational qualifications of the people does not play an important role, particularly when the occupation is taken individually. This can be accounted for by the fact that for a small squatter where the total population is not a substantial one, individual occupation comprises of only very less number of workers. As a result, the occupational pattern and the level of education do not show any significant

relationship. To avoid this problem, however, we have tried to form some broad categories of occupation on the basis of the nature of the work done by workers in individual occupation. These are (i) manual occupation, (ii) semi-skilled occupation, (iii) traditional occupation, and (iv) petty traders.

The table V.10 clearly reveals the fact that the skill of a labourer is determined by the level of education. The table reveals that the percentage share of semi-skilled labourer, is the least in the category of illiterates while they represent the highest share as far as the category of higher-secondary level education is concerned. A more noticeable factor is that of semi-skilled workers who are only workers of the squatter dwellers, which have a meagre share in the category of graduates, while rest three categories of workers do not show in the category of graduates. It is also an observable fact that all other three categories of workers, i.e., manual occupations, traditional occupation and petty traders comprise of almost half of the total workers who are illiterates, but for the semi-skilled workers it is just one-fourth. Even if we consider the education at intermediate level, we see that semi-skilled workers stand second after the manual occupations, though the difference is very less. This may be because of the fact that occupation like "painters" which although does not require a minimum level of education, but done by people educated upto 12th class due to more wage

Table V.10 Percentage Distribution of Workers in Various Categories of Occupation by Educational Level

Educational level	Occupations			
	Manual	Semi-skilled	Traditional	Petty traders
Illiterates	49.68	25.11	45.94	43.22
Primary	8.49	9.81	9.46	11.97
Middle	23.58	27.40	21.62	22.40
Secondary	19.50	31.73	21.62	20.83
Higher secondary	5.03	4.79	1.35	1.56
Graduation	NA	1.14	NA	NA
	318	438	74	192

NA for zero value.

in this occupation.

Thus level of education does not show a positive association with the occupational pattern which may not be much remarkable for the squatter dwellers.

V.7 Industrial Classification of Workers

The workers are classified according to the industrial classification given by national industrial classification (1970). The number of workers in each category has been given in the table V.11. The distribution of workers in each category are different from others. Of the total sample of 1444 people, 4.64 per cent workers are in the category of agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting. The main contributors in this category are the fishermen and gardeners. In the category of mining and quarrying 0.28 per cent workers are there. This is the lowest percentage of workers in any category.

There are 17.44 per cent of workers in the manufacturing and repairing category. Most of them are the factory workers employed in various factories. In the construction work, there are 19.73 per cent of workers. In this work highest percentage of workers are engaged. In metropolitan Delhi large scale construction work is going on by both government and private firms. The poor rural migrants without any skill are absorbed by the construction works as it needs little skill and less qualifications. The 1991 census data on industrial category

Table V.11 Distribution of Workers into Industrial Classification (one digit level)

Industrial classes	Number of workers	Percentage
1. Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	67	4.64
2. Mining and quarrying	4	0.28
3. Manufacturing and repairing	252	17.44
4. Electricity, gas and water	41	2.84
5. Construction	285	19.73
6. Wholesale and retail trade and restaurants and hotels	265	18.35
7. Transport, storage and communication	178	12.32
8. Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	74	5.12
9. Community, social and personal services	278	19.25
	1444	100

NOTE: The industrial classification is based on the National Industrial Classification (NIC) 1970.

shows that the share of construction workers to total main workers was 7.80 per cent. It is an indicator of high percentage of workers in this category.

18.35 per cent workers are in the category of wholesale and retail traders and restaurant and hotel. The shopkeepers and vendors are the main contributors to this category. Of the total workers, 12.32 per cent workers are in the category of transport, storage and communications. The workers like drivers, mechanics, rickshaw pullers are the main contributors to this category. 19.25 per cent workers are in the category of community social and personnel services. Maid servants, barber, washerman, cobbler etc., are the main contributors to this category.

V.8 Economic Sector

The information regarding the economic sector has been given in the table V.12. The table also shows the religion and caste based distribution of workers in different sectors. At squatter level, the largest share of workers (55.05%) is in the tertiary sector. It is followed by 40.03 per cent workers in secondary sector while only 4.91 per cent workers are in the primary sector.

Distribution of workers by religion shows vast difference among them. Only Hindus are in the primary sector, among religious groups. Although share of tertiary sector is more in every religion, it is different for Sikhs. They have more in

**Table V.12 Distribution of Workers into Economic Sector
by Religion and Caste Groups**

	Primary	%age	Secondary	%age	Tertiary	%age	Total workers
Total population	71	4.91	578	40.03	795	55.05	1444
Hindu	71	5.49	527	40.72	696	53.78	1294
Muslim	N.A.		43	32.58	89	67.42	132
Christian	N.A.		1	20.0	4	80.0	5
Sikh	N.A.		5	62.5	3	37.5	8
Buddhist and other religions	N.A.		2	40.0	3	60.0	5
Scheduled caste	26	3.52	307	41.65	404	54.81	737
Scheduled tribe	N.A.		8	44.44	10	55.55	18
Higher caste	7	2.43	108	37.63	172	59.93	287
OBCs	38	15.08	104	41.27	110	43.65	252

N.A. = zero value

secondary sector than in tertiary sector.

Caste based distribution of workers shows that only higher caste, OBCs and scheduled castes are in the primary sector. No scheduled tribe is working in the primary sector. OBCs have more share than any other castes in the primary sector. In tertiary sector, the percentage of higher caste workers to total workers is more.

V.9 Employment Status

The employment status of the squatter population is determined by the definition given by National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO).⁵ NSSO has divided the employment status into four categories viz., self-employed, regular salaried/wage earner, casual labours and others. The definition of these terms is given below.

Self-employed Persons who are engaged in their own farm or non-farm enterprises are defined as self-employed. There are different kinds of self-employed. Some may operate their enterprise without hiring any labour. Some others may normally work on their own but occasionally hire a few labourers. There is also a third category who by and large, regularly run their enterprises by hiring labours. The first two groups of self-employed are called own-account workers and the third, employers.

⁵ Survekshana vol.xii, no.4, July-Sept 1969. A note on employment and unemployment situation in India. Deptt. of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, pp.2-5.

Regular salaried/wage employees Persons working in other's farm or non-farm enterprises (both household and non-household) and getting, in return, salary or wages on a regular basis (and not on the basis of daily or periodic renewal of work contract) are treated as regular salaried/wage employees. The category, salaried/wage employee will include not only salary and wage earners getting time wage but also earners getting piece wage or salary and paid apprentices both full time and part time.

Causal labour Persons engaged in others' farm or non-farm enterprises (both household and non-household) and getting in return wages according to the terms of the daily or periodic work contract are treated as causal wage labour.

The information on the employment status of the sampled people can be seen from the table V.13. The information is given by religion and caste. Of the total 1442 sampled workers, more than two-fifth are causal labourers, 30.85 per cent are self-employed while only 24.47 per cent are regular salaried/wage employees, 0.69 per cent of the workers are the other workers. The others are those who are not coming in any of the above-mentioned three categories.

Among the self-employed people, the percentage of Muslims to total Muslim workers is highest (40.15%) which is followed by Hindus where 30.10 per cent of total workers are self-employed. Sikhs have lowest percentage (12.5%) of self-employed. In caste groups, higher castes have highest (33.79)

Table V.13 Employment Status

Religion/ caste	Self employed	%age	Regular salaried/ wage employees	%age	Causal labour	%age	Others	%age	Total
Hindu	389	30.10	326	25.23	568	43.96	9	0.69	1292
Muslim	53	40.15	26	19.69	53	40.15	-	-	132
Christian	1	20.0	1	20.0	3	60.0	-	-	5
Sikh	1	12.5	-	-	7	87.5	-	-	8
Buddhist and other religions	1	20.0	-	-	4	80.0	-	-	5
Total	445	30.85	353	24.47	635	44.03	9	0.62	1442
Scheduled caste	219	29.83	162	22.07	348	47.41	5	0.68	734
Scheduled tribe	6	33.33	2	11.11	10	55.55	-	-	18
Higher caste	97	33.79	76	26.48	110	38.32	4	1.40	287
OBCs	67	26.48	86	33.99	100	39.52	-	-	253
Total	389	30.10	326	25.23	568	43.96	9	0.69	1292

percentage of self-employed and other backward classes have lowest (26.48) percentage of self-employed.

In the category of regular salaried/wage employees, Hindus have highest share of employees to total Hindu workers. No Sikhs or Buddhists and other religious groups are found in this category. Castewise highest percentage (33.99) of regular salaried/wage employees are found among OBCs. It is followed by higher caste (26.48) and scheduled castes (22.07%) people. Scheduled tribes people have lowest percentage (11.11) of the employees in this category.

In the category of casual labourers, Sikh and Buddhist people have the highest percentage of casual labourers to the total workers of Sikh and Buddhist. Muslims have lowest percentage (40.15) of casual labourers. Castewise, scheduled tribe people have the highest (55.55) per cent of labourers. It is followed by scheduled castes (47.41%) and OBCs (39.52%). Higher caste people have lowest percentage of labourers.

By summing up, we find that in every religion and caste groups, percentage of labourers is more than self-employed and regular salaried people. No regular salaried/wage employees are found among Sikhs and other religious groups. Religion based regular salaried or wage employees are more among Hindus and on caste basis among OBCs. Self employed people are more among Muslims and among higher caste Hindus.

V.10 Distance of Work Place

The information on distance of work place has been collected to get more explanations about nature and structure of the economic activities of the squatter dwellers. Again, to find whether the particular squatter settlement is clustered near its work place, as it is found sometimes that the poor migrants squat of a place near the work place so that they don't have to travel long distance for work (Rao and Rao).⁶

The information on distance of work place shows that (Table V.14) of the 1449 respondents, 14.63 per cent are working at a distance within 5 kilometers. Distance of workplace of 654 respondents (45.13%) is 5 to 10 kilometers. It means, around 60 per cent people are working within a distance of 10 kilometers. Of the rest 40 per cent workers, 10.42 per cent are working within a distance of 10-15 kilometers, 21.32 per cent within 15-20 kilometers and the rest 8.42 per cent more than 20 kilometers away.

It can be observed from the information that the number of workers is increasing upto a distance of 10 kilometers and after that it decreases in between 10-15 kilometers. Again it increases 15-20 kilometers, and after 20 kilometers, it declines.

To find whether there exists any association between the distance of workplace and employment status of the people, the

⁶ K.R. Rao and M.S.A. Rao, "Cities and Slums: A Study of a Squatters' Settlement in the City at Vijayawada", Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi, 1984, p.3.

Table V.14 Distance of Work Place

Distance in kilometres	Number of respondents	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
1. 0-5	212	14.63	14.63
2. 5-10	654	45.13	59.76
3. 10-15	151	10.42	70.18
4. 15-20	309	21.32	91.50
5. > 20	123	8.48	100
Total	1449	100	

Table V.15 Distribution of Workers by Employment Status with Distance of Work Place

Distance in kms	Self-employed	%age	Employment Status			Others	%age	
			Regular salaried/ wage employee	%age	Casual labours			%age
1. 0-5	131	29.43	29	8.12	52	8.15	0	0.0
2. 5-10	159	35.73	198	55.46	295	46.23	2	22.22
3. 10-15	25	5.61	54	15.12	71	11.12	1	11.11
4. 15-20	108	24.26	28	7.84	167	26.17	6	66.67
5. > 20	22	4.94	48	13.44	53	8.30	0	
Total	445	100	357	100	638	100	9	100

information of these two aspects are cross-classified. It shows that (Table 15) within 5 kilometers, proportion of self-employed people is higher (29.43%), followed by casual labourers (8.15%) and regular salaried/wage employees (8.12%). No workers of other categories is working in this distance. Self employed people like vendors and shopkeepers, rickshaw pullers which comprise around 15 per cent of the total occupants (see table V.10) are working within these distance.

Within a distance between 5-10 kilometers, proportion of regular salaried /wage employees is the highest (55.46%) followed by casual labourers (46.23%), self-employed (35.73%) and other workers (22.22%). Regular salaried/wage employees are mostly working in various factories of Okhla Industrial Area, New Okhla industrial Area and in Nehru Place. So these workers have to travel a distance between 5-10 kilometers. Between 10-15 kilometers, again the proportion of regular salaried and wage employees is more 15.12%) followed by casual labourers (11.12%) and other workers (11.11%). Proportion of self-employed people (5.6%) is the lowest in this distance range. Within a distance of 15-20 kilometers, proportion of other workers is the highest 66.66%) followed by Casual Labourers (26.17%), self-employed (24.26%). Regular salaried/wage employees' share is the lowest in this distance.

Proportion of regular salaried/wage employees is the highest (13.44%) in the distance of workplace more than 20km. It is followed by Casual Labourers (8.3%) and self-employed

(4.94%). Workers of other categories are not working in this distance.

V.11 Household Income

The monthly households income is calculated by aggregating income of all households members from all the sources. Of the total 1445 households, 78 households (5.4%) monthly income is less than Rs.500 (Table V.16). Monthly income of 594 households (41.1%) is between Rs.500-1000. Monthly income of maximum households are in this category. The upper two categories comprise 46.5 per cent of the total households. Monthly income of 428 households (29.62%) is Rs.1000-1500. The upper three classes comprise of 70.72 per cent of the total households. Monthly income of 185 households (12.8%) is Rs.1500-2000, and of 84 households (5.81%) is Rs.2000-2500. Monthly income of 34 households (2.35%) is Rs.2500-3000 and of 22 households (1.52%) is Rs.3000-3500. Monthly income of 6 households (0.97%) is more than Rs.4000. If we take monthly households income upto Rs.1000 as low income households and Rs.1000-3500 as middle and more than Rs.3500 as upper income households, then 46.5 per cent households are in the low income groups, 52.09 per cent households come under middle income groups, and the rest 1.38% households are coming under upper income groups.

Although monthly households income gives the assessment of level of income, a better assessment and the level of well-

Table V.16 Distribution of Households by Monthly Household Income

Monthly household income	Number of households	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
1. < 500	78	5.40	5.40
2. 500-1000	594	41.12	46.52
3. 1000-1500	428	29.62	76.14
4. 1500-2000	185	13.00	89.14
5. 2000-2500	84	6.00	95.14
6. 2500-3000	34	2.35	97.49
7. 3000-3500	22	1.52	99.01
8. 3500-4000	6	0.41	99.42
9. > 4000	14	0.97	100.00
	1445	100.0	

being can be made through the analysis of per capital income rather than total family income.

V.12 Per Capita Income

Of the total 1449 households 66 households (4.57%) per capita income is Rs.1-95 (Table V.17). Per capital income of 188 households (13%) is Rs.95-140 and 227 households (15.7%) is Rs.140-180. These three categories comprises one third of the total households. Per capita income of maximum households is from Rs.180-280 (29.55%). Per capita income of 177 households (12.25%) is Rs. 280-370 and of 206 households (14.25%) is between Rs.370-500. Per capita income of another 149 households (10.31%) is Rs.500-1500 and only 5 households (0.34%) is more than 1500. The information of distribution of households by per capita income shows that upto Rs.180-280, the number of households increases and after that it decreases.

Summing up

The share of non-workers is more than the workers in the squatter. Of the total population 68.48 per cent are non-workers while only 31.52 per cent are workers. In low per capita income groups, the percentage of workers is less and non-workers is more. As the per capita income increases the share of workers is increased and non-workers decreases. Among workers 22.70 per cent are females and rest 77.30 per cent are

**Table V.17 Distribution of Households by Per Capita
Income Groups**

Per capita income	Number of households	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
1. 1-95	66	4.57	4.57
2. 95-140	188	13.01	17.58
3. 140-180	227	15.70	33.28
4. 180-280	427	29.55	62.83
5. 280-370	177	12.25	75.08
6. 370-500	206	14.25	89.33
7. 500-1500	149	10.31	99.64
8. > 1500	5	0.34	100
	1445	100	

males, so a strong gender-disparity exist between them. Among religions, Sikhs and Muslims and among caste groups OBCs have more gender disparity on workers.

The participation rate of females is low in every religion and caste group. Muslims, Sikhs and Christians have more gender disparity in participation rate. The participation rate of population increases as per capita income increases.

The occupational structure of the workers is diversified and complex. Less number of people are engaged in large number of occupations and more people are engaged in less number of occupations. The occupations which absorb most of the workers are labours, factory workers, shopkeepers and vendors, tailors and maid servants. These occupations share alone 60 per cent of the total workers. There is a strong association between the educational level and occupation of the people. Although illiterates are there in almost all the jobs performed by squatter dwellers, it is less in case of semi-skilled occupations and more in case of manual labourers.

About the industrial classification of the workers, there are four industries which absorbed around 75 per cent of the workers. They are construction (19.73%), community, social and personnel services (19.25%), wholesale and retail trade (18.35%) and manufacturing and repairing (17.44%). Economic sector for the squatter dwellers shows that more workers are in the tertiary sector. It is followed by secondary sector and a distant primary sector. On the basis of religion, Hindus are

only in the primary sector and Sikhs are more in the secondary sector than tertiary sector.

Employment status of the workers shows that casual labourers are more than self-employed and regular salaried/wage employees. The share of regular salaried/wage employees are more among Hindus and among OBCs. Self employed women are more among Muslim and higher caste people.

CHAPTER VI

LIVING ENVIRONMENT

The urban slums, contribute a significant quantity of labour force to the urban labour market and generate adequate income to sustain and grow the urban economy. In return, the poor migrants are denied the very basic facilities which is necessary for their development of both health and moral faculties. For this purpose, in this chapter an attempt has been made to evaluate the living environment of the squatter dwellers in terms of facilities and amenities provided to them, it includes housing, tenure status of the building, water supply, toilet and bathing facilities, drainage system, electricity facilities, whereabouts treatments, possession of ration card, supply of ration and distance of school.

VI.1 Housing

Housing is an important and inseparable part of human survival. For vast majority of people the type of house they live in would be important determinants of their well-being or ill-being, so the quality of house would be an important indicator of the quality of life-itself (Mathew)¹. For this purpose, along with other facilities information on housing has been collected for the squatter settlement.

The information on housing has been collected by the

¹ T. Mathew, Economic Aspects of housing, Financial Express, 30th Dec., 1987.

building material used for roof, wall and floor. According to the type of material used, the house has been classified as pucca, semipucca and katcha, as per the criteria given by National Building Organisation.² The basis of the classification is as below:

Material used for construction

Wall

Pucca - Burnt brick, G.I sheets or other metal sheets, stone, cement, concrete.

Kutcha - Grass, leaves, reeds, bamboo, mud, unburnt bricks, wood.

Roof

Pucca - Tiles, slate, corrugated iron, zinc or other metal sheets, asbestos, cement sheets, bricks, lime and stone, stone and RBC/RCC, concrete.

Kutcha - Grass leaves, reeds, bamboo, thatch, mud, unburnt bricks, wood.

In addition to the material used for wall and roof, the floor of the jhuggies is also classified as kutch or pucca. If the floor is made of mud, wood, bamboo, bricks, stone and lime, it is classified as Kutch and when it is made of cement, mosaic and tiles then it is classified as Kutch.

Those houses which have all walls, roof and floor made of pucca materials are classified as Pucca. When all wall roof and floor are made of Kutch materials it is classified as

² Census of India, 1991, Housing and Amenities, Occasional paper No.5, of 1994, Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India.

Kutchra. If any two of the components is Pucca, then the house is classified as Semi-Pucca.

The information regarding housing of squatter settlement reveals that more than half (52.6%) of the jhuggies are Kutchra (Table VI.1), one fourth (25.5%) of the jhuggies are Semi-Pucca.

Detailed information on the classification of wall, roof and floor by building material (Table VI.2) indicate that 42.5 per cent jhuggies are made of Kutchra roof and 57 per cent are made of Pucca materials and seven households (0.5%) reported no roof at all. This is because of a major fire that broke out in the settlement before the survey and these households still had not managed a roof for their house. Information on wall shows that more than half of the jhuggies (55.3%) are made of Kutchra material and rest (45.7%) are made of Pucca wall. In case of floor also, more than half (52.7%) of the jhuggies have Kutchra floor and rest (47.3%) have Pucca floor.

About the tenure status of the jhuggies (Table VI.3) of the total 1449 households, 99.4 per cent are self owned and only 0.6 per cent (8) houses are rented.

VI.2 Water Supply

There are two sources of water supply to the squatter. Of that 85 per cent households depend on tap water and rest 15 per cent on hand pump (Table VI.4). The residents of squatter reported that the pressure of water supply was low throughout

Table VI.1 Number of Household and Percentage of Household Occupying Types of Houses

	No. of Household	Percentage
Kutcha	762	52.6
Pucca	317	21.9
Semi-Pucca	370	25.5
Total	1449	100

Table VI.2 Types of Building Material Used for Roof, Wall and Floor

	Roof	%age	Wall	%age	Floor	%age
1. Kutcha	616	42.7	801	55.3	763	52.7
2. Pucca	826	57.3	648	44.7	686	47.3
Total	1442*	100	1449	100	1449	100

* - Seven houses reported no roof.

Table VI.3 Tenure Status of the Households

Tenure status	Number of households	Percentage
1. Owned	1441	99.4
2. Rented	8	0.6
Total	1449	100

the year and was extremely inadequate during the summer months. Water timing observed during the period of investigations were four hours (6-10 A.M.) in the morning and another two hours (4-6 P.M.) in the evening. Taking the total population of the squatter depending on tap water, it was found that one tap served 400 people. In case of tube well, the population pressure is less. It is 170 people per tube well.

Long queues of children and women are a common sight before the taps. The queues start prior to the time of water coming. The struggle to get some water leads to heated argument and often to quarrels.

The water supply is somewhat augmented by the hand pumps in the squatter. However, these pumps also supply less water in the Summer months. Further a single hand pump cannot take as many persons as the municipal water tap. Since water has to be drawn by manual operation, this necessitated frequent repairs, resulting in interruptions of the water supply.

VI.3 Toilet Facilities

Of the total 1449 households, only 18 households (1.2%) have their own toilets, rest 1431 households (98.8%) are dependent on the toilet built by Sulabh International (Table VI.5). The *Souchalaya* is a two storeyed building having 102 lavatory seats, of that 52 for males and 50 for females. It charges a nominal rate of Rs.0.25 paise per person for once.

Table VI.4 Source of Drinking Water

Source	Number of household	%age	Population	%age
1. Tap	1238	85.4	5590	84.58
2. Hand Pump	211	14.6	1019	15.42
Total	1449	100	6609	100

Table VI.5 Place for Toilet

Place for toilet	Number of household	Percentage
1. Sulabh Sauchalay	1431	98.8
2. Own toilet	18	1.2
Total	1449	100

Table VI.6 Place for Bath

	Number of household	Percentage
1. Sulabh Sauchalaya	254	17.5
2. By own arrangement	1195	82.5
Total	1449	100

The toilets have running water facilities.

Although the toilet has 102 lavatory sets^a, but taking into account the people dependent on it, it is found that, an average 130 people depend per lavatory seat. It indicates a very high pressure of population on sanitation. This situation becomes more worse in monsoon months when the ground floor of the sauchalays is choked.

VI.4 Bathing Facilities

Unlike the use of toilets, few people use bathrooms made by Sulabh International and most use their own bathrooms or take bath in front of jhuggies. Data on place of bath (Table VI.6) shows that only 17.5 per cent household go to take bath in the *Sauchalayas* and rest (82.5%) households are having bath at their own arrangement. People are not using sauchalaya bathing facilities due to several reasons. First, the *Sauchalaya* authority discourages the females taking bath because they claim that the females are using more water for bathing and also washing clothes. So it creates water shortage in the *Sauchalayas*. Secondly, *Sauchalayas* charges Rs.0.50 per person, which is more than that for using toilet. So the poor do not want to spend their money on this account. Instead, they made some kind of enclosure outside their jhuggies and some even (generally females) take bath inside the jhuggi. In latter case, males and children take bath in front of their houses.

VI.5 Drainage System

The drainage system of the squatter settlement is extremely poor. A proper drainage of the sewage out of the settlement is essential. Lack of it creates sanitary problem and storage of the sewage becomes breeding ground of diseases ✓ and also creates filthy atmosphere by rancid smell.

In the squatter, of the total 1449 household, 5 per cent households do not have any drainage at all (Table VI.7). Although rest of the households have sewerage, 58 per cent households have open drainage, and only 23.6 per cent houses ✓ have covered drainage and rest 13.4 per cent houses have other arrangement for sewage.

Sewage in many places is found over flowing due to stagnation of sewage and absence of regular cleaning. The *safai karamacharies* visit only once in a week which is not sufficient. Further, the sense of keeping clean the surroundings by the dwellers is very poor. Solid wastes are dumped into the sewer which creates stagnation of the sewage ✓ is another reason of stagnation of sewage.

VI.6 Electricity Facilities

Among the squatter dwellers, 84.6 per cent households have electricity facility and the rest 15.4 per cent households have no electricity facility (Table VI.8). Although more than three-fourth households have electricity facility, this is in the form of only one bulb in each household and

Table VI.7 Drainage System Around House

Types of drainage	Number of household	Percentage
1. No drainage	73	5.0
2. Covered drainage	342	23.6
3. Open drainage	840	58.0
4. Others	194	13.4
Total	1449	100

Table VI.8 Electricity Facility

	Number of household	Percentage
Yes	1226	84.6
No	223	15.4
Total	1449	100

Table VI.9 Types of Fuel Used for Cooking

Types	Number of household	Percentage
1. Gas	6	0.4
2. Kerosene	1280	88.4
3. Wood	20	1.4
4. Kerosene and wood	143	9.9
Total	1449	100

connection is not permanent one. There is also danger of electrocution and sparking in these connections and above all, these connections are illegal. ✓

VI.7 Type of Fuel Used For Cooking

The type of fuel used for cooking would be another indicator of the quality of life of the households. For this purpose, the information regarding the type of fuel used for cooking has been collected for the squatter dwellers. It has been given in the (Table VI.9). The table shows that most of the households (88.4%) are using kerosene as fuel. Of the rest, 1.4 per cent households use wood as fuel and 9.9 per cent households use both kerosene and wood as fuel for cooking. The least percentage of 0.4 of household are using cooking gas as fuel. Kerosene, being cheap and also available at public distribution system, is used by most of the households. Wood, which is not available in this region and also has high value is used by lesser number of households. The households using wood may be collecting it from their work place, like gardener working in district parks or a factory worker, from the wooden packages or a shopkeeper of fruit and vegetables from the fruit packages. Gas, being the most expensive fuel is used by the least number of (6) households.

VI.8 Housing and Level of Living

Here, an attempt has been made to find whether the basic amenities (water, toilet, bathroom and electricity) and use of fuel for cooking (gas, kerosine) are most available for the Pucca house owners and the Semippucca house owners than the Kutcha house owners. For thir purpose, all aspects are cross-classified and discussed below.

There are two sources of water supply in the squatters viz., tap and hand pump. Tap water points are serving the common people while the hand pumps are personal. According to our study the proportion of source of water from hand pump will be more in case of Pucca house owners and Semi-pucca house owners than the Kutcha house owners. The data (Table VI.10) shows that the source of water from hand pump are more in case of Pucca house owners (16.71%) and Semi-pucca house owners (15.13%) than Kutcha house owners (13%).

In case of toilet facilities there are two places for toilet viz., using public toilets made by Sulabh Sauchalaya and using own toilets. The information (Table VI.10) shows that the proportion of people using own toilets are more in case of Pucca house owners (2.2%) than the Kutcha (1%) house owners. The proportion of use of own toilets are less (0.81%) in case of Semi-pucca households.

About the bathing facilities, there are two sources of having bath like the toilet facilities. The information about place of bath by types of house (Table VI.10) shows quite

Table VI.10 Amenities Available in Kutcha, Pucca and Semi-pucca Houses

Amenities		Types of house						Total	%age
		Kutcha	%age	Pucca	%age	Semi-pucca	%age		
Source of water	Tap	663	86.61	264	83.28	314	84.86	1241	85.0
	Handpump	99	13.00	53	16.71	56	15.13	208	14.0
		762	100	317	100	370	100	1449	100
Place of toilet	Public	754	99.00	310	97.80	367	99.19	1431	98.8
	Private	8	1.00	7	2.20	3	0.81	18	1.2
		762	100	317	100	370	100	1449	100
Place of bathing	Public	154	20.20	52	16.40	48	13.00	254	17.5
	Private	608	79.80	265	83.60	322	87.00	1195	82.5
		762	100	317	100	370	100	1449	100
Electricity Connection	No	131	17.20	32	10.10	60	16.20	223	15.4
	Yes	631	82.80	285	89.90	310	83.8	1226	84.6
		762	100	317	100	370	100	1449	100
Use of fuel for cooking	Gas	2	0.26	3	0.94	1	0.27	6	0.4
	Kerosene	658	86.35	287	90.53	335	90.54	1280	88.4
	Wood	15	1.97	1	0.31	4	1.08	20	1.4
	Kerosene + Wood	87	11.42	26	8.20	30	8.10	143	9.9
		762	100	317	100	370	100	1449	100

differently. The proportion of households taking bath by their own arrangements are more in case of Semi-pucca house owners (8.7%) and Pucca house owners, than Kutcha house owners. Semi-pucca house owners are more than the Pucca house owners because they reported some kind of enclosure made of *Chataie* or plastic for taking bath by these households. Again having a bathroom by this type is much less costlier than using a toilet.

It has been noticed that the percentage of households having electricity connection are more in case of Pucca house owners and Semi-pucca house owners than Kutcha house owners.

The use of fuel for cooking reveals that there are four types of fuel used by the squatter dwellers, gas, kerosine, wood and both kerosine and wood. The use of gas and kerosene will be costlier than the used wood. Again the households using wood are not purchasing it but getting it from various sources.

In case of use of gas for cooking, the percentage of households using it is more in case of Pucca house owners (0.94%), and Semi-pucca house owners (0.27%) than Kutcha house owners (0.26%). In case of use of kerosene as fuel the per cent of households using it is again more in case of Pucca house owners (90.53%) and Semi-pucca house owners (90.54%) than Kutcha house owners (06.35%).

VI.9 Health Facilities

The information on health has been given in Table VI.11. The table shows that an equal number of households are going to private (34%) and Government (34%) doctors for treatment and rest 32 per cent house owners go to both private and government doctors. The information indicate that in spite of poverty, a substantial number of families did not go to government doctors for treatment and rather went to private doctors. The main reason for the people to go private doctors (Table VI.12) is better treatment by private doctors (91.4%) other reasons are, due to emergency (6.61%), less time taken in private clinics (0.20%), better infrastructure (0.52%) and others (1.26%). Although private doctors charge more, but immediate and personalised attention compensates for their higher charges. Again the squatter dwellers want quick and easy access to a doctor, proper attention and quick relief through medication so that the loss of wage earned on a daily basis would be minimal.

About the reasons for going to government doctors (Table VI.13) shows that 71.42 per cent households are going due to cheap treatment, 18.78 per cent households due to free medicine available in the government dispensaries and 4.44 per cent households reported that due to emergency cases they go to government hospitals, 3.40 per cent families reported that they go to government hospitals due to serious diseases which if treated by private doctors, would be very expensive.

Table VI.11 Mode of Treatments

Agencies of Treatment	Number of household	Percentage
1. Private	492	34.0
2. Government	491	33.9
3. Both	466	32.1
Total	1449	100

Table VI.12 Reasons for Going to Private Doctors

Reasons	Number of household	Percentage
1. Emergency	63	6.61
2. Better treatment	871	91.40
3. Less time taking	2	0.20
4. Better facilities	5	0.53
5. Others	12	1.26
Total	953	100

Table VI.13 Reasons for Going to Government Doctors

Reasons	Number of household	Percentage
1. Free medicine	182	18.78
2. Cheap treatment	695	71.72
3. Emergency cases	43	4.44
4. Serious diseases	33	3.40
5. Others	16	1.66
Total	969	100

VI.10 Possession of Ration card

Most of the households have (97.9%) ration cards and rest 2.1 per cent households do not have (Table VI.14). Although most of the households have it, but possession of cards does not remove their distress. Irregular supply and lack of ration are the problems the dwellers are facing. The information regarding purchasing from outside given in Table VI.15. The table reveals that only 0.41 per cent households get sufficient ration. More than half (51.24%) of the households get upto 50 percent ration, 27.90 per cent households get 50-75 percentage of ration. 17.95 per cent households get 75-95 percentage of ration. The insufficient ration from cards results in purchasing from outside. 18.6 per cent families purchase one fourth of the ration from outside. 63.02 per cent households purchase 25-50 percentage of the ration from outside. 12.32 per cent families purchase 50-75 percentage of the ration and 2.4 per cent families purchase 75-99 percentage of the ration from outside.

The cause of purchasing the ration from outside (Table VI.16) reveals that irregular supply of ration (38.38%) is the main cause. Non-availability of ration at the public distribution shop is another important reason (35.52%) due to which people purchase from outside. 26.62 per cent households reported that the ration available in the distribution system is not sufficient for them.

Table VI.14 Possession of Ration Card

	Number of household	Percentage
1. Yes	1419	97.9
2. No	30	2.1
	1449	100

Table VI.15 Household Purchasing Proportion of Ration from Ration Shop and from Open Market

Percentage of Ration	purchasing from ration shop	%age	purchasing from outside	%age
1. Upto 25%	30	3.09	187	18.60
2. 26% to 50%	496	51.24	634	63.02
3. 51% to 75%	270	27.90	124	12.32
4. 76% to 99%	168	17.36	24	2.39
5. 100%	4	0.41	37	3.68
Total	968	100	1006	100

Table VI.16 Reasons for Purchasing Outside

Reasons	Number of household	Percentage
1. Non-availability of ration	347	35.52
2. Irregular supply of ration	375	38.38
3. Not sufficient for family	255	26.10
Total	977	100

VI.11 Distance of School

There is no school for the squatter dwellers except one *balwadi* centre. So, most of the children go outside the settlement for schooling. The information regarding distance of school has been given in Table VI.17. The table shows that 8.90 per cent children are attending school in the settlement. It is the *Balwadi* which is situated in the settlement, reported so.

Most of the children (67.95%) are attending school within a distance of 1 Kilometers. 17.25 per cent children are going upto a distance of 1 to 3 kilometers and 7.18 per cent children upto a distance of 3-5 kilometers. While only 0.57 per cent children are going upto 5-7 kilometers. It's double percentage (1.14%) of children is going upto even more than seven kilometers for school. In latter case, it is the students going to higher secondary schools, as they can manage to travel long distance by city buses.

VI.12 Recreation

Economically poor condition and busy occupational life do not permit the squatter dwellers to have recreation. Spending the day's income on urban mode of entertainment (cinema, theater etc.) is impossible for them. Again, the occupational life by which most of the people came back to their homes in late evening after a days work, does not allow for leisure.

Table VI.17 Distance of School

School Distance	No. of respondents	Percentage
1. Within the settlement	78	8.90
2. Upto 1 km	596	67.95
3. 1 km to 3 kms	125	14.25
4. 3 kms to 5 kms	63	7.18
5. 5 kms to 7 kms	5	0.57
6. More than 7 kms	10	1.14
Total	877	100

Table VI.18 Recreation

	Number of household	%age
1. Yes	618	42.7
2. No	831	57.3
Total	1449	100

Table VI.19 Visits to Library

	Number of respondents	%age
1. Yes	16	1.1
2. No	1433	98.9
Total	1449	100

The only means of recreation left is listening to transistors and watching television either of their own or others.

The celebration of festivals like Holi, Dushera, Diwali, and other religious festivals were the only occasions which provide collective recreation and community participation. Small temples and mosques constructed by inhabitants of the settlement provide the main focus of social and religious gatherings during religious occasions. The information available about the recreation of the dwellers (Table VI.18) shows that 42.7 per cent households reported to have some recreation and rest 57.3 per cent declined having any recreation. In the case of former, watching Television is most popular mode of recreation and this is mostly done by children and women.

Visiting Library is not popular among the squatter dwellers. Only 1.1 per cent respondents reported have been visiting library and rest 98.9 per cent people do not go to library (Table VI.19).

Summing up

The living environment of the squatter is of lowest quality. The poor migrants are denied very basic amenities and social services. The water supply to the squatter is characterised by low pressure, less duration and uncertainty in the summer months. Above all, a high pressure of 400

population served by one tap. Although most of the households depend on Sulabh International for toilet facilities with a minimal charge 25 paise, the population depend on one lavatory seat is very high. It is around 130 people per one lavatory seat. In monsoon months, the dwellers face problems of using the *Sauchalayas* as half of the seats are choked. In the squatter only 18 households have their own toilet.

Dwellers are facing problem for taking bath. Due to high charge for taking bath and not allowing females to take bath in the Sulabh creating problem. So the dwellers made some kind of enclosure outside to their jhuggies to take bath. Even in some cases, female take bath inside their jhuggies.

Drainage system in the squatter is very poor. Overflowing, stagnation of sewage are a common site due to absence of regular cleaning and poor sense of cleanliness. Some houses are not even connected by sewerage (5%). Where it is connected most of the sewerage are open or uncovered.

About the structure of the dwellings more than half of the jhuggies are made of Kutcha materials; another one fourth of the jhuggies are made of semi-pucca materials and only 21.9 per cent jhuggies are made of pucca materials. The connection of electricity to the jhuggies are not proper and permanent. most of the families use kerosine fuel for cooking, around one tenth of the households use both kerosine and wood for cooking. Least number of families use gas for cooking.

About the mode of treatment, despite poverty, a

substantial number of families are not going to government hospitals for treatment, rather they go to private hospitals. Better treatment, immediate and personalised attention of the private doctors and unsympathetic attitude of the doctors and staff in government hospitals are the main reason. Above all the slum dwellers want quick and easy access to a doctor, proper attention and quick relief through medication, so it helps them minimise their loss of wage due to ill health.

Although most of the households have ration card, irregular supply and lack of ration at the distribution centre, force the dwellers to purchase from open market. Of the total households only 0.41 per cent households get sufficient ration and more than half households get half of the ration.

About the distance of schools, although most of the children (67.95%) attending school within a distance of one kilometers, the distance for some children ranges over more than seven kilometers.

Economically poor condition and busy occupational life do not permit the squatter dwellers to have recreation. The most popular means of recreation for them is listening to transistors and watching television either of their own or of others. The celebrations at religious festivals were the only occasion which provide collective recreation and community participation.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

(More than one billion people in the world live in desperately inadequate conditions. In the developing countries, the urban poor live in life threatening conditions. At least 220 million urban dwellers lack access to clean drinking water; more than 420 million do not have access to the simplest latrines. And more than 1.1 billion people live in urban areas where air pollution levels exceed permissible levels.)

Urban centres of India in general, and slums and squatters in particular, have turned into areas of despair. The quality of life in Indian slums is miserable, poverty-stricken, and pitiable. People live in subhuman conditions due to lack of basic facilities. Although most of the people are found to be employed, their wages are not enough to meet the daily expenses. They cannot even afford a conventional pucca house and a serviced site. The situation in Pondicherry, Manipur, Assam and Madras is gloomy, where more than 60 percent houses are kutcha structure. Due to absence of latrines people defecate in open spaces. Where the common latrines exist, they are over-crowded. Above all, there is no provision for removal and safe disposal of excreta and wastewater from the slums. More than two-fifth households have no drainage facilities at all, and wherever this exists it is mostly in the form of open and kutcha drainage. Another threat

is of water logging and water entering into the houses in monsoon months. There is also a threat of flooding from river and sea as the slums mostly develop in the low lying areas.

In Delhi, along with urbanisation, the growth of slums also has taken place. The slum households increased twenty times from 1951 to 1991. There are as much as 929 slum settlements in Delhi. In our study of a squatter settlement it is found that, demographically, the squatter is imbalanced due to male selective migration. The sex ratio is very low (850). The squatters have a very broad base of young people below 15 years of age so the dependency ratio is very high (93%). The age structure of the squatter is influenced by immigration and out-migration due to employment and marriage. While the inclusion of males to the squatter is due to employment, for females it is due to both employment and marriage. The marital status of the dwellers is also influenced by sex selective migration. Number of the unmarried is more, and among the married, the males are more than females. Educationally, most of the dwellers are illiterates or less educated. It is also characterised by high gender disparity in education.

The squatter is an amalgamation of various people who migrated to the squatter in different periods of time and due to different causes. Migrants not only from far off states but neighbouring countries (Bangladesh and Pakistan) also have settled in the squatter. A big share of households is from Uttar Pradesh, followed by Bangladesh, Bihar and West Bengal.

These four areas contributed 90 percent of the households. Of the total households one-fourth are from Bangladesh and Pakistan. Among the causes of migration, employment is reported to be the most important cause due to which more than three-fourth of the migration took place. Besides partition, war, riot are reported to be the second most important cause. Migration due to pull factors is more than the push factors.

The migration to the squatter took place in a long expanse of twenty years. But in some periods, the flow of migration was more. Most of the migration took place during the periods 1970-80, followed by the period 1980-90 and before 1970. While the migration before 1970 from Bangladesh and Pakistan was due to partition, war and communal tension; in the period 1970-80 it was mostly from Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Bihar due to employment, floods and marriage.

Age played an important role in migration, since the job market only takes the youths. After the age of 35 years the number of migrants decreased. Most of the migration took place through proper contact, since no body preferred to migrate alone to an unknown place without contact. But in case of push factors, the instances of contact in migration are reported to be few. The work experience of the migrants at the places of origin was mostly related to agricultural labour and cultivation. Some even reported as being unemployed and did not work due to schooling. In the process of migration there is found to be large scale occupational mobility. Since a

majority of them were young, they found that the occupational structure at Delhi provided an infinite variety of occupations requiring unskilled labour or the type of skills that could be acquired during a short period by working on the job itself. There were, however, some who adopted their traditional skills to the demands of urban consumers. These varied from carpentry, leather work, hair cutting, tailoring etc., rendered by hereditary caste groups.

Economically, the squatter is an area of deficiency. Non-workers are more than workers, and in workers males are more than females. The work participation rate of the people is only 31.52 percent, branded with a higher gender disparity. Muslims are among those having the lowest work participation rate with the highest gender disparity. Occupational structure of the people is diversified and complex. Less number of people are engaged in a large number of occupations and vice versa. Occupations like daily labour, factory workers, shopkeepers and vendors, tailors and maid-servants constitute most of the people. There is found a strong association between the educational level of the people and the occupation they are doing. Although illiterates are there in almost all the jobs performed by squatter dwellers, they are less in the semi-skilled occupations.

More than half of the workers are engaged in tertiary sector and other two-fifth in the secondary sector. A negligible proportion of the workers is in primary sector.

About the employment status of the workers, casual labourers are more than self-employed and regular salaried workers. Illiteracy, lack of skill etc. force the people to work as construction workers, loaders, daily labourers.

The living environment of the squatter is of the lowest quality. Water supply to the squatter is characterised by low pressure, less duration and uncertainty. Very small number of households have their own toilets. In public toilets the pressure of population is 130 per toilet. Drainage system in the squatter is very poor; over flowing and stagnation of sewage are common sites. More than half of the structures are kutcha and another one-fourth are semi-pucca. Insanitary conditions in the squatter lead to many diseases but despite poverty, a substantial number of families do not go to government hospitals. They found private doctors more reliable due to better treatment and immediate personal attention.

Although most of the households have ration cards, irregular supply and lack of ration at the fair price shops force the dwellers to purchase such items from the open market. About the distance of school, although most of the children attending school live within a distance of one kilometer, the distance of some schools ranges over more than seven kilometers.

The Habitat-II 1996 (a follow up of Habitat-I 1976) has brought out two basic terms of global importance: adequate shelter for all and sustainable Human Settlement Development

in an urbanising world. But none of the people living in despair in urban areas may be aware about all these happenings world-wide.

To achieve the aim of sustainable human settlement development, overstressed metropolitan cities need to be relieved through their integrated development along with their hinterlands. Also desirable is a more widespread urbanization for an equitable spatial development, and equitable provision of housing and related services for all sections of the society. Effective steps for raising the income levels of the poor need to be simultaneously taken. Otherwise, socio-economic well being and quality of life of these people will forever remain low.

APPENDIX I

Past and Present Occupations of the Migrants

Present occupation	Black smith	Barber	Book binder	Carpenter	Contractor	Compounder	CPWD worker	Craftman	Clerk	Dhobi	Driver
Past occupation (before migration)											
1. Not worked	1	-	-	6	3	-	1	1	2	1	12
2. Landless labour	1	-	1	16	1	1	1	-	3	2	19
3. Cultivator	4	2	1	10	3	-	1	-	-	1	8
4. Student	-	2	1	3	-	-	-	2	-	2	5
5. Factory worker	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
6. Tailor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
7. Fisherman	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8. Carpenter	-	-	-	5	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
9. Blacksmith	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10. Barber	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11. Weaver	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12. Goldsmith	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13. Dhobi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
14. Cobbler	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15. Driver	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16. Mason	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
17. Painter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
18. Welder	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
19. Watch maker	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20. Shopkeeper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
21. Vendor	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
22. Maid servant	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
23. Helper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
24. Labour	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-
25. Const. worker	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
26. Bus conductor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
27. Rickshaw puller	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
28. Teacher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
29. Butcher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
30. Cycle repair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
31. Kabadiwala	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
32. Guard	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
33. Clerk	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
34. Salesman	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1

Present occupation	Electrician	Fisherman	Factory worker	Guard	Gardner	Goldsmith	Helper	Hotel cook	Kabadi wala	Labour	Maid servant
Past occupation (before migration)											
1. Not worked	2	2	33	1	4	-	8	6	4	28	25
2. Landless labour	9	8	52	21	14	1	21	13	3	59	24
3. Cultivator	9	2	46	9	20	-	15	8	3	41	24
4. Student	2	-	18	2	2	-	6	1	2	6	3
5. Factory worker	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	3	1
6. Tailor	1	-	14	1	-	-	1	-	-	4	-
7. Fisherman	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-
8. Carpenter	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-
9. Blacksmith	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10. Barber	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11. Weaver	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
12. Goldsmith	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13. Dhobi	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14. Cobbler	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15. Driver	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
16. Mason	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
17. Painter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
18. Welder	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
19. Watch maker	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20. Shopkeeper	1	-	1	-	2	-	-	2	-	4	-
21. Vendor	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	2
22. Maid servant	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
23. Helper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
24. Labour	1	2	1	1	-	-	1	1	-	5	-
25. Const. worker	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	3	-
26. Bus conductor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
27. Rickshaw puller	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-
28. Teacher	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
29. Butcher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
30. Cycle repair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
31. Kabadiwala	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
32. Guard	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
33. Clerk	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
34. Salesman	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	3	-

Present occupation	Mecha- nic	Mason	Peon	Plum- ber	Priest	Post- man	Printer	Rickshaw puller	Rag- picker	Shop- keeper	Stich- ing
Past occupation (before migra- tion)											
1. Not worked	5	4	3	2	1	-	9	2	-	30	2
2. Landless labour	12	8	5	1	-	-	28	7	2	39	3
3. Cultivator	21	8	-	6	2	-	16	8	-	30	1
4. Student	5	1	-	1	-	-	5	1	1	5	-
5. Factory worker	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	1	1	1
6. Tailor	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	2	-
7. Fisherman	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	-	1	3	1
8. Carpenter	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
9. Blacksmith	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10. Barber	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
11. Weaver	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
12. Goldsmith	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-
13. Dhobi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
14. Cobbler	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15. Driver	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16. Mason	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17. Painter	1	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
18. Welder	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
19. Watch maker	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20. Shopkeeper	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	6	-
21. Vendor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-
22. Maid servant	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
23. Helper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
24. Labour	1	2	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
25. Const.worker	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-
26. Bus conductor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
27. Rickshaw puller	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
28. Teacher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
29. Butcher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
30. Cycle repair	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-
31. Kabadiwala	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
32. Guard	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
33. Clerk	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
34. Salesman	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-

Present occupation	Sweeper	Sales man	Super-visor	Shoe-maker	Service	Tailor	Teacher	Vendor	Total
Past occupation (before migration)									
1. Not worked	1	1	-	-	-	14	1	6	221
2. Landless labour	6	5	-	1	1	39	1	21	449
3. Cultivator	3	5	1	1	-	17	3	15	344
4. Student	-	-	-	1	-	8	1	1	87
5. Factory worker	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
6. Tailor	1	-	-	-	-	35	-	-	67
7. Fisherman	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	2	18
8. Carpenter	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	11
9. Blacksmith	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
10. Barber	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	4
11. Weaver	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
12. Goldsmith	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	5
13. Dhobi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
14. Cobbler	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	3
15. Driver	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	4
16. Mason	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	7
17. Painter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
18. Welder	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
19. Watch maker	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
20. Shopkeeper	-	2	-	-	-	3	-	-	26
21. Vendor	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	3	14
22. Maid servant	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
23. Helper	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
24. Labour	1	1	-	-	-	1	1	3	25
25. Const. worker	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	10
26. Bus conductor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
27. Rickshaw puller	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	4
28. Teacher	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2
29. Butcher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
30. Cycle repair	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
31. Kabadiwala	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
32. Guard	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	2
33. Clerk	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
34. Salesman	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	10

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