INTRODUCTION

The thesis is a study of socio-economic conditions of slum dwellers and poverty measurement level among them. The level of urbanization and the rate of urban expansion may not always be caused by the 'pull' of economic prosperity and opportunity in the cities; it is sometimes caused by the push from the rural areas due to significant changes in the agriculture practices effected by the use of mechanized farming techniques needing relatively lesser proportion of labour force thus compelling the surplus labour to seek a living in urban areas.

In India, urban population has grown from 78.9 million in 1961 to 286 million in 2001 and is estimated to be doubled in the next two decades (MHUPA, 2011). Cities and towns are centres of innovation, investments, technology and economic growth. The contribution of urbanization in country’s GDP is immense. Urban centres are reservoirs of skill, capital and knowledge. It is the hope of millions of migrants for their livelihoods. Due to the surge of knowledge economy, the pressure on cities is bound to escalate. Urban areas are increasingly facing negative consequences of rapid urbanization such as polarization of population in large cities, high density, slum and squatter settlements, acute shortage of housing and basic amenities, degradation of environment, traffic congestion, pollution, poverty, unemployment, crime and social unrest.

According to 2001 census 810 lakh urban populations still subsists on incomes that are below poverty line. Eighty per cent of their meagre income goes towards food and energy, leaving very little for meeting the cost of living in the
monetized economy. The majority of them live in slums and squatter settlements, in inhuman conditions that deny them dignity, shelter, security and the right to access basic civil amenities that draw them deeper into vulnerability and poverty. Urbanization accompanied by sustained population growth due to migration from rural hub to urban centres lead to mushrooming slum settlements in all cities and towns in India.

Poverty is widely prevalent in slum areas. Increasing urbanization leads to migration of rural population as a consequence, slums are increasing at alarm rate in urban centres. The increasing slum population and poverty is closely associated with each other. Poverty in India has been a part of the policy debate right from the First Plan Period with the primary focus being on agriculture and rural development. Urban development was tackled through a focus on industry. While social services, such as health and education provided for the urban population, there remained a concerted focus on rural India in the Five Year Plans; urban poverty was not recognized as a concern in the initial plan periods. The change towards an urban focus is seen from the Seventh Plan period onwards (1985-1990) with attention to infrastructure, environmental improvement (slum upgrading) and livelihood promotion. Subsequent plans have steadily increased the allocation for urban development and urban poverty alleviation. Most significant is the recent emphasis on urban renewal evidenced through the allocation under JNNURM (Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission) in the 10th Five Year plan which has continued since then. JNNURM is the first attempt at a comprehensive package for development and poverty alleviation in urban India, recognizing the importance of cities as
engines of economic growth. However, being the first such attempt of its kind, the review of its performance has been mixed and much more effort and commitment is needed in this regard. Although budgetary allocations for urban development have risen substantially, these do not compare with the allocation for schemes and interventions for rural India. The per capita expenditure on the urban sector at 1,566 is significantly lower than the per capita expenditure in the rural sector, which is 7,433 for the current plan period.

In the past, the focus on the development of rural India was justified because of the large proportion of the population living in rural areas. There has, in recent years, been a marked shift in the country’s economic structure, from a predominantly agrarian economy to a manufacturing and services sector-oriented economy. Today, urban population growth areas and the accompanying challenges demand concerted policy attention.

India is a part of the global trends where an increasing number of people live in urban areas. The number of towns and the absolute urban population in India has increased steadily over the last six decades. More significant for policy formulation is the share of urban population to total population, which has grown from 17.3 per cent in 1951 to 31.16 per cent in 2011 (MHUPA, 2011). Varying projections place urban population at about 590 – 600 million in 2030.

1.1. Origin of Slums

Majority of the developing countries and less developed countries are facing this problem of slums and there is no panacea to eradicate the same from the surface of the earth. Slums are universal in character and no country is able to get rid of them. Unplanned urbanization with its attendant evils of negating
the fundamental purpose of human society - secure, rewarding and happy life - is no doubt a matter of great concern. Infrastructure facilities like housing, safe drinking water supply, transport, health care, educational institutions for children, parks, etc. become woefully inadequate and will soon reach a critical stage threatening the civilized existence itself. As per the latest information more than one fifth of urban population living in slums and squatters, settlements, the future can only be one of still larger population living in such conditions if public neglect continues. It is said that every second there are two additional mouths to feed. At the last count, more than 74 million people were added to the world population in a year. The overcrowding population, poverty, ignorance, diseases, malnutrition, etc., must be eliminated and the society should seek improvement of living standards and quality of life of the people.

Ali, S and S.N. Singh (1998) narrate the position regarding creation of slums in their book entitled “Major problems of Delhi Slums”. According to them, rapid urbanization while paving the way for prosperity has also been responsible for creation of slums, degeneration of human society and it is the base for enhancing character. In the western countries the problem of housing and slums came to the forefront after the Industrial Revolution. In United Kingdom, the rapid establishment of Industrial units and simultaneously mechanization of agricultural sector was a sudden influx from the rural to urban areas. This had resulted in massive level of migration from the rural to urban areas and earning more income than the previous one at their native places. Once the income earning member reaches to the centres of developed area automatically his relatives move towards the urban centres not only for income
earning through working in employment sectors or in informal sectors but also learning latest development of technology.

In the present day world especially in developing countries, the growth of slums is usually parallel to the growth of urbanization. India is no exception to urbanization. In India, one important reason for the migration of the rural population to the metropolitan cities, apart from the fact that urban areas offer better job opportunities appears to be that the development of rural areas has lagged far behind, with the result that the rural population is attracted to the amenities and entertainment facilities which are available in the cities. Housing has, without exception, failed to keep pace with staggering rate of migration into the cities and inevitable result has been unplanned growth of the cities and the consequent growth of slums. A recent assessment of slums growth as obtained by the Census of India indicates that about 20-25 per cent of the population of the urban areas is living in slums. On this basis, out of 2001 urban population of 285.4 million nearly 62 million is living in slum areas.

India, a land of colorful contrasts, had a population of about 120 million at the time of Ashoka (22 BC) and the population remained almost static till the time of Akbar i.e. up to 17th century AD (during 1901 Census India’s population was 236 million). In a span of one century the population of India increased to 1027 million in 2001. Planned urbanization is a necessary component of the infrastructure of economic development as towns provide, inter alia, a variety of centralized services for the surrounding area. Rural urbanization in India, however, has grown at a much faster rate than the provision of this infrastructure mainly because of the low living standards of a large proportion of the rural
population, who migrate to the towns in search of livelihood. The most disquieting feature of the urbanization process has been significantly large rate of growth of the large number of metropolitan cities as compared to small and medium towns. During the decade 1991-2001, the overall population of India increased by 21.4 per cent while the urban population grew by 31.3 per cent.

1.2. Slums Definition

The Encyclopaedia Britannica (2003) defines slums as “residential areas that are physically and socially deteriorated and in which satisfactory family life is impossible. Bad housing is a major index of slum conditions. By bad housing is meant dwelling that have inadequate light, air, toilet and bathing facilities; that are in bad repair, dump and improperly heated: that do not afford opportunity for family privacy: that are subject to fire hazard and that over crowded the land, leaving no space for residential use.

Registrar general of India has adopted the following definition for the purpose of Census of India. 2001, the slum areas broadly constitute of:

All specified areas in a town or city notified as ‘Slum’ by state/local government and UT administration under any act including a ‘Slum Act’. Housing and Slum Boards have not been formally notified as slum under any Act.

A compact area of at least 300 population or about 60-70 households of poorly built congested tenements, in unhygienic environment usually with inadequate infrastructure and lacking proper sanitary and drinking water facilities.
UN-Habitat defines “a slum is a contiguous settlement where the inhabitants are characterised as having inadequate housing and basic services. A slum is often not recognised and addressed by the public authorities as an integral or equal part of the city”

Slum households as a group of individuals living under the same roof that lack one or more of the conditions listed below;

a. Insecure residential status;
b. Inadequate access to safe water;
c. Inadequate access to sanitation and other infrastructure;
d. Poor structural quality of housing and
e. Overcrowding.

1.3. Slums Development and Urbanisation: A long lasting problem

The urbanisation of India is taking place at a faster rate than in the rest of the world. By 2030, 40.76 per cent of India’s population will be living in urban areas compared to about 28.4 per cent at present. United Nations ‘State of the World Population 2007’ report adds that metropolitan cities like Mumbai and Kolkata have a greater number of people moving out then coming in. It also says that a few cities will be having large population size as doomsayers had predicted in the 1970s. Mega cities are still dominant but they have not grown to the size once projected and have consistently declined in most world regions, the report adds further. Releasing the report in India, Urban Development Minister Thiru Jaipal Reddy said urbanisation was a sign of liberalisation but the condition of slum-dwellers was even worse than that of the poor people in villages.
According to the report, over 90 per cent of slum dwellers live in developing countries with China and India together accounting for 37 per cent of them. About 56 per cent of the urban population lives in slum conditions. The report also informs that in countries like India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, the literacy rate of women living in slums is as low as 52 per cent. For countries like India, the report says, getting ready for the aging population is another big challenge. In Chennai, it says, total fertility rate has fallen to below replacement levels. The city has closed down 10 maternity clinics and reopened them as geriatric units.

Nesim Tumkaya, United Nation’s Population Fund representative of India, said that by next year, half of the world’s population would be living in urban areas. But in most regions, the rate of urbanisation is showing a decline trend except in growing economies like India. The population of towns and cities in developing countries like India is set to be double in the space of generation, while the urban population in the developed world is expected to grow relatively lower, according to the report.

1.4. Growth of Slums and Poverty

Poverty is caused by many factors such as low income, lack of employment opportunities, low nutritional intake, poor educational standards and so on. These features can be generally seen among the slum population. Slum people are not native of a particular place. They are migrated from one place to another place, especially urban centres for their survival.

Poverty is a concept not so difficult to grasp in the abstract but at the same time, extremely complex to frame in a satisfactory ‘operational’ way.
Hence different individuals have, in their studies, perceived poverty in different ways. Not surprisingly, there is much ambiguity in the way poverty is discussed by social scientists and analytically quantified by economists.

Poverty means going short materially, socially and emotionally. It means spending less on food, shelter, and clothing than someone on an average income. Above all, poverty takes away the tools to build the blocks for the future – your ‘life chances’. It steals away the opportunity to have a life unmarked by sickness, a decent education, a secure home and a long retirement (Oppenheim and Harker, 1996).

The evidence of improving living standards over this century is dramatic, and it is incontrovertible. When the pressure groups say that one-third of the population is living in poverty, they cannot be saying draconian subsistence levels used by Booth and Rowntree (Moore, 1989).

Almost two decade ago, Amartya Sen (1981) addressed this issue in the context of persistent starvation in the midst of plentiful food stocks, nothing that different social groups employ different means, to gain access and control over food. The simple existence of sufficient food, he asserts, does not necessarily ensure access to that food. The means of securing access which nearly always involves institutional interaction are critical for enhance poor people’s rights to freedom, choice, and action (Sen, 1984; 1999).

Hence, the persistence of poverty is linked to its interlocking multidimensionality: it is dynamic, complex, institutionally embedded, gender and location specific phenomenon. The pattern and shape of poverty vary by
social group, season, location, and country. Narayan et al. (2000) have explained the six different dimensions of poverty in his ‘Voices of the poor’.

First, poverty consists of many interlocked dimensions. Although poverty is rarely about the lack of only one thing, the bottom line is always hunger, the lack of food. Second, poverty has important psychological dimensions, such as powerlessness, voicelessness, dependency, shame, and humiliation. The maintenance of cultural identity and social norms of solidarity helps poor people to continue to live in their own humanity, despite inhumane conditions. Third, poor people lack access to basic infrastructure – roads (particularly in rural areas), transportation and clean water. Fourth, while there is a widespread thrust for literacy, schooling receives little mention or mixed reviews. Poor people realize that education offers an escape from poverty but only if the economic environment in the society at large and the quality of education improves. Fifth, poor health and illness are dreaded almost everywhere as a source of destitution. This is related to the costs of healthcare as well as income, but focus is instead on managing assets – physical, human, social, and environmental as a way to cope with their vulnerability. In many areas this vulnerability has gender dimensions.

1.5. Poverty: Conceptual Development

The concept of poverty is not so easy to describe in view of the fact that no universally acceptable definition is available. However, since disagreement over the definition of poverty run deep and are closely associated with disagreements over both the determinants and the solutions to it. In practice all these issues of definition, measurement, determinants and solution are bound up
together and understanding of poverty requires an appreciation of the interrelationship between them all. Nevertheless some logical distinctions can be made, and they will have to be if we are to make any progress in analysing the range of theoretical and empirical material these debates have produced.

The need for definition is in fact recognized by most of the major researchers and commentators on poverty issue. Townsend, in his study of poverty in the 1960s and 1970s, opened the report with a definition of poverty that was crucial to his approach to the study and the findings it revealed has been widely used by others.

Notwithstanding poverty is a complex problem and it is product, in part at least, of the impact of political process and policy development. It is also a political or a moral concept – it implies and requires action. Poverty is thus not the same as inequality, although the two concepts are closely connected. The most important distinction between the two is that whereas poverty or absolute poverty is a prescriptive concept, inequality is a descriptive concept. Inequality is simply a state of affairs and probably inescapable if not even a desirable one. Opinions are hotly disputed, of course, about the extent of inequality that should be tolerated. There are those who argue strongly that certain levels of inequality should be acceptable and indeed desirable (Green, 1990), and others argue that significant inequality is unacceptable and even destructive (Field, 1980). But the dispute here is about the extent of inequality, not the existence of it.

In the 1990s the debate on the distinction between poverty and inequality has been complicated by the identification of wider conceptualizations and poverty to include recognition of social exclusion. Social exclusion is a term
refers to circumstances of deprivation and disadvantages that extend beyond lack of material resources, and people may be socially excluded even if they are not materially poor.

However social exclusion, like poverty, is a prescriptive concept – it suggests an unacceptable state of affairs requiring policy action. This is also true of the 1990s concept of social polarisation, which is broader conceptualization of inequality implying not just differences in the levels of resources but also the development of undesirable gaps between social groups.

For many years, a vigorous debate persisted over relative versus absolute definitions of poverty. Relative and absolute definitions of poverty tap into fundamentally divergent notions of difference and deprivation (Shanahan and Tuma, 1994). Also, absolute and relative standards produce different policy implications and accounts for the experience of poverty, and somewhat differ in the extent of poverty (Townsend, 1980). Despite this historically contentious debate, poverty scholars increasingly conclude that in advanced capitalist democracies; a relative definition is more appropriate (Atkinson 1998; Gordon 1972; Hagenaars 1991; Madden, 2000; Ravallion 1998; Sen 1992).

Particularly relevant to such nations, relative measures are useful capture changes in necessities over time and place. Scholars also conclude that a relative measures more effectively gauge comparative historical variation across comparable nations in a historical period. Alternatively, absolute concepts of poverty are most useful in developing countries as large proportion of people prone to vulnerable to famine and underdevelopment.
Since there is no universally acceptable definition of poverty, it is not easy to measure poverty with certain parameters. However, economists have advocated certain criteria to define poverty. They are (i) lack of ‘means’ in relation to ‘needs’ i.e., absolute Poverty, and (ii) lack of ‘means’ in relation to ‘means’ of others i.e. inequality or relative Poverty.

1.6. Absolute Poverty

Absolute poverty is claimed to be an objective, even a scientific definition, and it is based on the notion of subsistence. Subsistence is the minimum needs to sustain life, and so being below subsistence level is to be experiencing absolute poverty because one does not have enough means to live on. On the face of it, this is a contradiction in terms of how do those without enough to live? The answer, according to absolute poverty theorists, is that they do not for long; and if they are not provided with enough for subsistence they will starve, or perhaps more likely, they will be involving in illegal activities for earnings because they have no access to employment opportunities legally.

In short, absolute poverty simply refers to the position of an individual or a household in relation to the minimum cost of food and a set of basic needs consistent with the spending patterns of the poor. All those who are unable to satisfy these needs are considered as poor.

The definition of absolute poverty is thus associated with attempts to define subsistence. One needs to work out what people need to have in order to survive; then, if one ensures that they are provided with this, the problem of poverty can be removed. This notion of absolute or subsistence poverty has often been associated with the early works of Booth (1889), Rowntree (1901; 1941),
Townsend (1979) and Sen (1984, 1999), although Spicker (1990) and Veit-Wilson (1986) respectively, argue on the works of Booth and Rowntree that these are mistaken or oversimplified judgements and that in practice both employed more complex, relative definitions in their studies.

1.7. Relative Poverty (Inequality)

Relative poverty or inequality refers to the position of an individual or a household in relation to the average income and or expenditure. Peter Townsend describes,

The poor are poor because their resources over time
Fall seriously short of resources command by the
Average individual or family in the community in
Which they live (Townsend, 1962).

This implies that relative poverty is concerned with the relative position of income groups to one another. In a later writing, Townsend remarks,

The poverty must be regarded as a general form of relative deprivation,
which is the effect of maldistribution of resources (Townsend, 1971).

Townsend further argues that the relative nature of poverty in various countries is a function of mainstream levels of living and a broader concept of social stratification. This implies the emphasis on relatively leads to the treatment of poverty as simply a feature of stratification and inequality.

According to this view poverty is a relative phenomenon; Galbraith has further strengthened and argued
People are poverty stricken when their income even
If adequate for survival falls radically behind that of
The community (Galbraith, 1977).

Adding to the above, Sen rightly remarks as,

To try to analyse poverty ‘as an issue of inequality’ or the other way round, would do little justice to either, Inequality and poverty are not, of course, unrelated, but neither concept subsumes the other. A Transfer of income from a person in the top income group to one in the middle – income range must ceteris paribus reduce inequality; but it may leave the perception of poverty quite unaffected. Similarly, a general decline in income that keeps the chosen measure of inequality unchanged may, in fact, lead to Sharp increase in starvation, malnutrition and obvious hardship; it will then be fantastic to claim that poverty is unchanged (Sen, 1981).

The term ‘relative deprivation’ is explained by the Sen in his book, ‘poverty and famines’ in the following words,

The concept of ‘relative deprivation’ has been
Fruitfully used in the analysis of poverty, especially
In the sociological literature ……. ‘In an objective sense
To describe situations where people possess less of
Some desired attribute, be it income, favourable
Employment conditions or power, than do others (Sen, 1981).

Relative poverty is a more subjective or social standard in that it explicitly recognizes that some element of judgement is involved in determining poverty levels. Judgement is required because a relative definition of poverty is based on a comparison between the standard of living of the poor and other
members of society who are not poor, usually involving some measures of the average standard of the whole of the society in which poverty is being studied.

Relative definition of poverty is associated with the Fabian critics of the post-war achievements of the welfare state in eliminating poverty, most notably the work of Townsend (1954; 1979) and Abel Smith & Townsend (1965). Their argument was that although state benefits had provided enough to prevent subsistence poverty for most, in terms of their position relative to the average standard of living in society the poorest people were not better off in the 1950s and 1960s than they had been in the 1990s. As Townsend puts it in his definition, quoted above, relative poverty prevents people from participating in activities that are customary in the society in which they live.

According to Adam Smith:

*By necessaries, I understand not only the Commodity which are indispensably necessary for the support of life but whatever the custom of the Country renders it indecent for creditable people, Even of the lowest order, to be without. A linen shirt, For example, is strictly speaking not a necessity of Life …… But in the present time ….. A creditable day Labourer would be a ashamed to appear in public without a linen shirt, (Smith, 1776, p. 691)*

Similarly Marx wrote that ‘our desires and pleasure spring from society; we measure them, therefore, by society … they are of a relative nature’ (Marx, 1952).
Of course absolutist critics, such as Moore (1989), argue that these relative differences are merely inequalities, which will exist in any society, and that the relativists protagonists are using the notion of poverty illegitimately to redistribute wealth rather than to prevent want.

As mentioned above, Viet-Wilson (1986) has demonstrated how Rowntree, often thought of as the architect of the absolute definition of poverty, in reality utilized relative measures. This is because the bad distinction between absolute and relative poverty is in practice an over simplification of much more complex definitional problems.

However, in this study, the researcher is not concerned with the competition and superiority, of both forms of poverty. Since, poverty theorists advocated that absolute poverty concept is more relevant with the development problems of developing economies that the relative concept. This study aims to analyse the socio-economic conditions of slum dwellers and also attempts to estimate the poverty level among them.

1.8. Research problem

In most of the developing countries, the majority of the urban poor dwell in slum areas. Increasing rate of slum population creates several social, economic, environmental and cultural problems. It is now well accepted that the biggest challenge in development planning of India come from poverty and unemployment. Poverty is widely prevalent in slum population. Unless the poor is provided with satisfactory job and income, efforts on development will not bear the desired result. Poverty, unemployment and low income are expected to move together. However, an unemployed need not necessarily be poor and the
poor need not necessarily be unemployed. To see the extent validity, the relationship between poverty and unemployment, and poverty and income are undertaken in the present analysis.

Generally, it is believed that the labour force participation in the child age group among the slum dwellers is high. This might be on account of strong feeling that the opportunity education of these children is low. The preference for entering into labour market at an early age, therefore, is considered to be more paying in relation to giving them education, particularly when there is a need to provide more calorie intake. A detailed inquiry of the labour force participation is different with age groups and occupational structure. It is believed, that this research will throw more light on the problem.

An attempt is also made to examine a very vital issue of incidence of unemployment. This has been done with the help of alternative measures of incidence of unemployment. Is there marked concentration of unemployment among the younger generation in urban India? Is this valid even for slum dwellers having tendency to accept any stray job with meagre remuneration? Which is the most prominent caste affected by a high degree of incidence of unemployment? These are some of the questions which the study tries to answer with the help of a detailed inquiry both by age and caste.

The incidence of unemployment is generally linked with educational attainment. Unemployment is expected to be low among illiterates as they are ready to accept any petty type of work; whereas a qualified and educated person may prefer to remain unemployed rather than accepting a low wage work. This situation in slum is altogether different in the sense that poorly educated and
illiterates are accepting for any available work in a highly cooperative situation and hence it may be expected that labour market may not discriminate between illiterate and literate with some educational qualification. It is, therefore necessary that due attention be paid to focus on the association between incidence of unemployment and education for vulnerable class. One may expect a negative association between these two. The study also attempt to examine labour force participation rate and rate of unemployment with educational attainment. The extent of under employment with different threshold number of days worked is also estimated for various castes.

Protein deficiency undoubtedly appears to be the indirect result of inadequate energy in the diet. This association between calorie and protein intake needs detail investigation. Hence it would be interesting to examine the relationship between calorie intake and protein intake per consumer unit for the downtrodden and poverty fed group under study.

If the calorie response to income increase is low, normal rate of income growth would have relatively minor impact towards eliminating malnutrition gap. This may ultimately lead to food subsidies to be provided to supplement market distribution. To throw light on this and related aspects, the calorie elasticity is estimated not only for the entire vulnerable group but also separately for poor and non-poor from among the vulnerable group. The evidence on marginal propensity to consume calorie is expected to highlight the pattern of expenditure for poor and non-poor.
Education is expected to be associated with primary and secondary poverty. The present study attempts to examine the following with respect to educational level of the vulnerable class of the society.

(a) Level of education
(b) Relationship between education and earning
(c) Rate of literacy and secondary poverty

To examine the variation in calorie intake per consumer unit, the present study considers the influence of the vulnerable like proportion of literates, household per capita monthly income, dependency rate, social castes, migration, and proportion of expenditure on food, occupational class, and age of the head of the household. These factors would also prove to be important as determinants of poverty and hence a fruitful guideline to policy maker for upgrading the weaker section of the society residing in slum. The study, thus, attempts to examine a number of hypotheses in relation to poverty, employment/unemployment, education, income and migration of slum dwellers, the most challenging and rapidly experiencing group of Chennai city.

1.9. Objectives of the study

1. To study the socioeconomic conditions of slum dwellers in Chennai city
2. To examine the causes of primary and secondary poverty among slum dwellers
3. To analyse consumption pattern and nutritional intake of slum dwellers
4. To examine the education level of slum dwellers and its impact on their standard of living
5. To measure extent of poverty among slum dwellers
6. To suggest suitable policy measures based on the findings of the study

1.10. Hypotheses

Based on the objectives of the study, the following hypotheses have been framed for the present study.

1. There is no significant difference between sample per capita Income with respect to poverty line.
2. There is no significant difference between actual calorie intake with respect to required calorie intake.
3. There is no association between levels of education qualification and poverty.
4. There is no association between migration with respect to poverty.
5. There is no significant difference between levels of income with respect to poverty.
6. There is no correlation between total expenditure and per capita expenditure on food.

1.11. Methodology

The study is empirical in nature as it is based on both primary and secondary data. The primary data for the study have been collected through interview schedule from the respondents spread across the Chennai city. The interview schedule contains many questions which are aimed to satisfy the objectives and research questions of the study. The interview schedule has been validated through pilot survey from 50 respondents. Final draft of schedule has been prepared based on the field experience and error occurred in pilot survey.
Necessary insertion and deletions (indels) of questions in the schedule was made based on pilot survey.

1.12. Collection of Data

Before canvassing the questionnaire, a pilot survey was undertaken in order to incorporate changes, if any, in the final form. Pilot survey gave lot of incitement to deal with the vulnerable sections of the society. The questionnaire underwent several revisions and pre-tests. However, during the period of second round for same sample households, necessary revisions were made with respect to employment (person days) of only other earning members in a household. Having selected number of hutments randomly in each ward, the researcher traced the name of the head of the family and locality within each ward. This was done from the comprehensive list prepared by corporation. The help of a mediator was taken in the beginning for approaching a household. The mediator was found helpful in explaining the purpose of conducting the survey and its policy implementation to the sample households. To ensure that the reliable information will be provided by the respondents’ households, the purpose of the study was well explained to the person before collecting data. After establishing a healthy rapport with the person concerned in the household, the researcher also inquired the housewife to participate in furnishing the requisite information. Housewives would provide detailed information pertaining to the expenditure on various items. This also proved to be a very good check of the information on income of the households. Many times, very useful and important information was revealed through a lengthy conversation and a dialogue.
The reference period for collecting information pertaining to employment/unemployment was seven days preceding a day of interview. However, the information for 30 days preceding a day of interview was also collected. Thus, the reference period was a week as well as a month. The information pertaining to consumption expenditure was converted on a monthly basis. The reference year of the present inquiry, thus, comes to 2011-12.

1.13. Sampling Design

The population with which the present study is concerned consisted of the slum dwellers in Chennai city. In order to draw the sample it was necessary to know the number of slum dwellers and its distribution in various localities or wards in the city. There is no systematic survey of slum dwellers statistics available. Based on the information provided by the officials in the slum clearance board, Chennai, 800 sample respondents have been chosen from North (300), South (300) and Central (200) Chennai.

1.14. Statistical Tools

The collected information have been categorised and tabulated according to its nature. Simple statistical tools such as percentage analysis, diagrammatic representation, measures of central tendency, measure of dispersion are used to infer nature and relationship of variables. High level statistics such as correlation, regression, chi-square, ANOVA and t test are used to validate the hypothesis. Further, Headcount ratio, Poverty Gap Index, and Squared poverty gap Index are used to measure poverty level among the slum dwellers. A detailed description of measurement of poverty is discussed in Chapter IV.
1.14. **Scope and Limitations**

The study covers various aspects of poverty measurement level of slum dwellers. It also deals with the problem of slum dwellers and the environment conditions. The study has certain limitations. Since the study has chosen 800 respondents from the universe as sample and therefore sampling limitations are applicable to the study. The study is micro in nature and the results arrived from the study may not be appropriate for macro level application. The poverty measurement variables such as income, consumption, health conditions and employment level are subject to change based on the economic conditions of the country. So, the results of the study are changeable.

1.15. **Scheme of the study**

The thesis is composed into seven chapters. The first chapter deals with problem of the study, objectives, methodologies, sampling design, statistical tools and scope and limitations of the study.

Chapter two dealt with review of empirical literature on poverty. Moreover, a review about poverty and theories of economic development is also supplemented to this chapter. Review of literature is done separately for absolute and relative poverty studies.

Chapter three gives profile of the study covers demographic features, distribution of slum population.

Chapter four is devoted to the issues of measurement of poverty. It derives those methods of measurement, which are used in the present study. These include headcount measure and poverty gap measures. The FGT poverty
measures in terms of headcount index, poverty gap / depth index and severity index, and Gini coefficient for the relative poverty or inequality.

Chapter five provides socioeconomic conditions of slum dwellers. In which, the researcher has classified the respondents based on socioeconomic conditions.

Chapter six discusses empirical determination of poverty by applying regression technique. Further, the researcher has measured the level of poverty among the slum dwellers located in the study area.

Chapter seven is summary of findings and conclusion.
REFERENCES


