HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY, INSTITUTE OF POPULATION STUDIES
ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEMOGRAPHY PROGRAM

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIOECONOMIC PROFILE OF HOUSEHOLDS IN İSTANBUL METROPOLITAN AREA ACCORDING TO THE UN-HABITAT SLUM CRITERIA

Mehtap DEMİRCİ

M.A Thesis Proposal submitted for the partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the M.A. degree
in Economic and Social Demography at Hacettepe University
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ÖZET

Dünyadaki en önemli sorunlardan birisi kentleşmedir. Hızlı ve düzensiz kentleşmeyle birlikte kentlerde yoksulluk olgusu ön plana çıkmış ve kentsel yoksulların konut sorunu ülkelerde yeni kavramlar oluşturmuştur. *Slum* kavramı da bunlardan birisidir. *Slum* olgusu, ülkeden ükeye kavramsal ve niteliksel açıdan değişik özellikler göstermektedir. UN-HABITAT, global ölçekteki bu soruna ortak çözüm yolları bulabilmek için genel bir tanım oluşturmuş ve bu tanımdan yola çıkarak dünya ölçeğinde bir araştırma yapmıştır.

UN-HABITAT'ın Uluslararası *Slum* Araştırmasında dünyada seçilen mega şehirlerden birisi de İstanbul'dur. TNSA-2003 sorukağıdına eklenen 'İstanbul Metropoliten Hanehalkı' modülü ve yeni oluşturulan 'İstanbul Hanehalkı Gözlem' sorukağıdı ile İstanbul Metropoliten Alanında UN-HABITAT'ın tanımına göre *slum* araştırması yapılmıştır. TNSA-2003 ile İstanbul Hanehalkı Gözlem araştırması sonucunda elde edilen veriler bu çalışmanın temel verisini oluşturmaktadır.

Bu tez, TNSA-2003 verisini kullanılarak UN-HABITAT'ın *slum* tanımında belirlenen beş kritere göre İstanbul Metropoliten Alanındaki hanehalklarını *slum* ve *non-slum* olarak belirlemiş; hanehalklarının sosyo-ekonomik ve demografik özelliklerini, yaşadıkları konut ve çevresine ilişkin verileri *slum ve non-slum* ayrımında ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca tez çalışmasında, Türkiye'deki *gecekondu* olgusu, UN-HABITAT'ın *slum* tanımı ve tanımda kullanılan kriterler tartışılmıştır.

Bu tez, Türkiye ve/veya İstanbul ölçeğinde *slum* ile ilgili olarak yapılan ilk çalışmadır. Bu çalışmanın konu ile ilgili başka çalışmalara yol göstereceği düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Slum, Gecekondu, UN-HABITAT, TNSA-2003, İstanbul Metropoliten Alanı, Uluslararası Slum Araştırması, Kentleşme.

SUMMARY

One of the most important problems in the world is urbanization. With the rapid and unplanned urbanization, the phenomenon of poverty has come forward and the housing problems of the urban poor have resulted in the need of new concepts. The concept of *slum* is one of them. The phenomenon of *slum* differs from country to country in terms of conceptual and qualitative aspects. UN-Habitat has formed a general definition to find a solution to the problem which can be observed at a global scale, and using this definition has made a study at a global scale.

One of the megacities handled in UN-HABITAT's International *Slum* Survey, is İstanbul. In İstanbul metropolitan area, the *slum* survey was made according to UN-HABITAT's definition by adding Household of İstanbul Metropolitan Area Module and questionnaire İstanbul Households Observation Fieldwork to the questionnaire of TDHS-2003. The fundamental data used in this study is the data acquired by the TDHS-2003 and of Households Observation Fieldwork.

In this thesis, the households living in the İstanbul metropolitan area has been categorized as slum or non-slum according to the criteria stated in the UN-HABITAT's definition by using the data provided by TDHS-2003 and it has been attempted to put the demographic and socio-economic aspects of the households and the data about the buildings where the households live forward by using the difference of slum and non-slum. Moreover, in this dissertation the phenomenon of "*gecekondu*"s in Turkey, the definition of *slum* made by the UN-HABITAT and the criteria used in the UN-HABITAT's definition has been discussed.

This thesis is the first one about *slum*s at the scale of İstanbul and/or Turkey. It has been thought that this study will be guiding for the further studies on related topics.

Key Words: Slum, Gecekondu, UN-HABITAT, TDHS-2003, İstanbul Metropolitan Area, International Slum Survey, Urbanization.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Cities, the cradles of human civilization, have existed for at least the last 8,000 years. Urbanization, as a process involving large shifts of people from rural to urban settings, began with the industrial revolution in Europe. By 1900, an estimated 10% of the world's population was urban. By 1950, the proportion had risen to almost 29 percent. Since 1950, the pace of urbanization has accelerated enormously, driven to a large degree by unprecedented rates of population growth in much of the world. Urban population growth over the last several decades differs in important ways from historical patterns of urbanization. Urban residents are increasingly concentrated in very large urban agglomerations. In 1950, there were only 10 metropolitan areas with populations of 5 million or more. In 1990, there are 33 metropolitan areas with 5 million people or more, 15 with 10 million people or more, and 6 with 15 million people or more (PCC, 1990). The year 2007 marks a turning point in history. The world's urban population would equal for the first time to the world's rural population. One of the stark realities of a rapidly urbanizing world is that the locus of poverty is shifting to towns and cities.

Cities in the world's poorer countries are fast filling up the ranks of the world's largest cities. This trend breaks the historical connection between city size and levels of economic development or political power. The major force behind urbanization is no longer industrialization. Some 58 of the world's 100 largest metropolitan areas are in developing countries. Large cities in developing countries are growing much faster than cities in the industrialized world ever have. By the end of this century, the urban population of the developing world will be almost double the size of that in the industrialized world. By 2025, it will be four times larger (PCC, 1990).

The developing world as a whole has been predominantly rural but rapidly is becoming urban. In 1975, only 27% of people in the developing world lived in urban areas. In 2000, the proportion was 40%, and projections suggest that by 2030 the developing world will be 56% urban. Although the developed world is already far

more urban, at an estimated 75% in 2000. Rapid urban growth reflects migration of people to cities as well as natural population increase among urban residents. (Hinrichsen and et al., 2002). This implies an unprecedented growth in the demand for housing, water supply, sanitation and other urban infrastructure services. This new challenge exists in a context of already widespread poverty and inequality in cities, with millions of people living in slums without adequate basic services (UN-HABITAT, 2005a).

In general, the urbanization process in Turkey is similar to that of in the world. But Turkey rapidly lived a transition period from being a low populated and stable agrarian society to being a fast growing populated and moving society. Therefore the maintopics in community programme are increase in population, young population, growing cities, migration and *gecekondu* in near past (TÜSİAD, 1999).

Gecekondu is one of the most important issues of urbanization, which has been increasing rapidly in the past 50-60 years. The term *gecekondu* was first seen in our language in 1940s and it has a meaning that the house is built and completed in one night (Yörükan, 1968). The term *gecekondu* has its origin in the rapid construction process. *Gece* in Turkish means “night” and *kondu* may be translated as “landed,” suggesting the quick construction process (Yalçıntan and Erbaş, 2003). In the downtowns of the cities where rapid urbanization exists, not having enough industry to meet the needs of people living there increases unemployment or forces them to work in marginal jobs. Not setting up a policy to build sites for these people with low income to live is another reason to have gecekondu dwellings. *Gecekondu* neighborhoods and sites full of non-standard gecekondu houses, which are built on lands owned by others (usually by the public) in a hurry, without having permissions, without needed health conditions, without needed technical features, have surrounded the big cities.

The fact, *gecekondu*, is also an issue of some other countries particularly of developing Third World Countries with the similar conditions and similar reasons

(Keleş, 1983). Rapid and unplanned growth causes a dwelling problem for those who are with low income intowns, which has been an important issue of Turkey and other developing countries for years. *Gecekondu,* a term to define the dwelling buildings of those people with low income migrating from villages or small towns to cities, exists in other developing countries with different names. For instance, *jacale* in Mexico, *rancho* in Panama, *macambo* in Brazil, *favela* in Argentina, *gourbevile* in Tunisia, *casbah* in Algeria, *bidonville* in Morocco, and *bustee* in India. These dwelling sites resemble each other in many ways in different countries and usually gather the poor in the cities. These neighborhoods make up an important proportion of the population overall. 36% in Lima, 35% in Caracas, 35% in Manila, 33% in Calcutta of the urban population live in *gecekondu* regions. The total rate for Turkey is 35%; allocated as 62,5% in Ankara, and more than 50% in İstanbul and İzmir (Keleş, 2008).

Although *slum* and *gecekondu* are not similar to each other, it is frequently assumed that slums in big cities of developed and industrialized western countries and *gecekondu*-like houses in developing countries are alike. Of course, some similarities exist between these two facts. Both types of dwellings make home for the poor or low-income classes. There are some other similarities also exist between *gecekondu* and *slum* such as occupations, education, social value systems and some social behaviors (Keleş, 2008). Shared points between slums and *gecekondu* can be lined as follows.

-Low income,
-Poor education,
-Unqualified labour force,
-High unemployment,
-Low living standards in dwellings,
-High numbers living in per room,
-Low services.

Hundreds of millions live in poverty in the cities of low- and middle-income nations, and their numbers are sure to swell in coming years. Slum dwellers of the

new millennium are no longer a few thousand in a few cities of a rapidly industrializing continent. They include one out of every three city dwellers, a billion people, a sixth of the world's population (UNFPA, 2007).

One of the most serious challenges that human settlements face today especially in the large cities of developing countries is the spread of urban slums and squatter areas. Before a viable solution can be found, there is a need to analyze the present situation to examine government responses to the problem, identify major trends in the policies of dealing with these settlements, and to pin point the main issues that have to be considered (UN-HABITAT, 2004a).

The United Nations Millennium Declaration recognized the importance of addressing the situation of slum dwellers in reducing overall poverty and advancing human development. Despite the strength of this commitment, monitoring progress on the situation of slum dwellers has been a challenge (Satterthwaite, 2006). That important document outlines peace, security and development concerns including environment, human rights and governance to build a better and safer world for the twenty-first century. The Declaration merged a set of development goals under a global agenda for achieving such a world through collective security and a global partnership for development. "Millennium Development Goals" (MDGs) designate that global agenda.

The United Nations System has set numerical targets for the eight goals of the Millennium Declaration. United Nations Human Settlement Programme (UN-HABITAT) was assigned the responsibility to monitor the "Cities without Slums" target as part of one of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDG). The "Cities without Slums" is one of the tree Targets of Goal 7, "Ensure Environment Sustainability". Target 11 aims:

> ***"By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of 100 million slum dwellers."***

Moreover, UN-HABITAT developed a household level definition in order to be able to use existing household level surveys and censuses to identify slum dwellers among the urban population (Turkstra and Raithelhuber, 2004). A slum household is defined as:

> "A group individuals living under the same roof lacking *one or more* of the following attributes:
>
> -Security of tenure,
>
> -Structural quality/durability of dwellings,
>
> -Access to Improved water,
>
> -Access to sanitation facilities,
>
> -Sufficient-living area "(UN-HABITAT 2003c)

The phenomenon of "*gecekondu*" taking place in urban spaces and created by the industrialization is a common problem faced all over in the world. However every single country has experienced or is still experiencing the problem in different ways due to their specific socio-economic, historical, cultural, demographic and physical conditions.

The aim of this thesis is to classify the housing structure in the İstanbul Metropolitan Area and shed light on the socio-economic and demographic aspects of habitants of the area by using the *slum* definition made by UN-HABITAT to define similar settlement formations in the world and common aspects of these settlements.

To this aim, first of all, the households of İstanbul has been described as slum or non-slum according to the definition of UN-HABITAT by using the data of Turkish Demography and Health Survey-2003 (TDHS-2003) made for İstanbul households. According to the result of these analyses, the rate of slum/non-slum has been almost half a half (49% non-slum, 51% slum). The following aspects of İstanbul Households have been compared by using the data of TDHS-2003:

-Characteristics of household population,

-Fertility behavior,

-Family planning,

-Household members' demographic and socioeconomic profile (age, sex, education, employment),

-Antenatal care and delivery assistance,

-Vaccination and child health and,

-Attributes of building and settlement area.

The existence of the phenomenon of "*gecekondu*"s is a reality in Turkey. In this area, many field researches have been made and their results have been published. However, the phenomenon of "*gecekondu*" and the UN-HABITAT's definition of *slum* do not exactly match with each other. Thus, within the framework of the study has been only elaborated by searching the literature and the slum/gecekondu difference has not been discussed at the findings chapter of the study. This thesis claims to be the first made at the scale of Turkey, because it differs slum from the non-slum by using UN-HABITAT's definition and moreover, explains the differences between slum and non-slums by using the data of TDHS-2003.

In this thesis, the definition, formation, historical process of and policies on the phenomenon of "*gecekondu*" are elaborated in detail in the chapter 3. The differences and similarities between the UN-HABITAT's definition of slum and "*gecekondu*" is explained also in this chapter. The definition and formation process of slum and slum attributes have been handled in the chapter 4.

In the chapters 5, 6 and 7 where the data have been formed, analyzed and commented on, UN-HABITAT's definition is used instead of the definition of "*gecekondu*" and within the scope of the study no comparisons are made between the two concepts.

The thesis resulted in the observance of that the socio-economic and demographic aspects of slum and non-slum households differ from each other, the fertility behaviors of slums show important differences than behaviors of non-slums and the features observed at the living environment of slums is an indicator of their socio-economic features.

2. CONCEPT OF "SLUM" IN THE WORLD

2.1. Urbanization Process in the World

It is not a value judgment to say that the world is inevitably becoming urban day by day. Very soon, for every villager, there will be one citizen. In three decades from now, for every one villager there will be two citizens (UN-HABITAT, 2004b).

The present pattern of global urban development is merely the most recent product of processes of urban change that began over 8000 years ago. It represents an intermediate stage in the progression from a wholly rural to what will possibly be an urban world (Clarck, 2006). As you read this study, the globe is changing from a predominantly rural world to one where the majority of us live in urban places. For the first time in history, we now live in an urban world. Moreover, it is important to remember that metropolitan areas are not museums but are constantly undergoing physical and social change (Palen, 2005).

2.1.1. The Meaning of Urbanization

Despite the fact that the world is becoming increasingly urban in nature, the apparent differences between 'urban' and 'rural' or town and country are actually not straightforward. The definition of urban itself changes over time and space (Cohen, 2004), each country tending to adopt its own definition in an often arbitrary way that reflects different economic and cultural situations. Definitions are usually based on criteria that may include any of the following: size of population in a locality, population density, distance between built-up areas, predominant type of economic activity, legal or administrative boundaries, and urban characteristics such as specific services and facilities.

In general, however, the traditional distinction between urban and rural areas within a country has been based on the assumption that urban areas, no matter how they are defined, provide a different way of life and usually a higher standard of living than those found in rural areas. In many industrialized countries, this

distinction has become blurred and the principal difference between urban and rural areas in terms of living circumstances tends to be a matter of the degree of concentration of population (UN, 2002).

Urbanization is a cyclical process through which nations pass as they evolve from agrarian to industrial societies. Urbanization not only refers to the changes in the proportion of the population of a nation living in urban areas but also to the process of people moving to cities or other densely settled areas. Urbanization is thus a process, the process by which rural areas become transformed into urban areas. In demographic terms, urbanization is an increase in population concentration (numbers and density); organizationally it is an alteration in structure and patterns of organization (Eldridge, 1956). In addition, urbanization, described demographically as the percentage of a nation's total population living in urban areas, is a process that clearly has a beginning and an end. Even after a nation achieves a high level of urbanization, its cities and metropolitan areas can continue to grow. While there is a limit to the percentage of urbanization possible, the practical limit for the size of cities or metropolitan areas is not yet known (Palen, 2005).

2.1.2. Urban Growth

A hundred and twenty-five years ago not a single nation was as urban as the world is today. The rapidity of the change from rural to urban life is at least as important as the amount of urbanization. During the 19th century and the half of the 20th century the most rapid urban growth took place in European countries and in countries largely settled by Europeans, such as the United States. These places first developed modern agricultural, transportation, and industrial technologies. England, the first country to enter the industrial age, was also the first country to undergo the urban transformation. A century ago, England became the world’s only predominantly urban country (Weber, 1899). Among the more important reasons for this spurt in European population were:

-Declining death rates,

-The beginning of scientific management of agriculture,

-Improved transportation and communication systems,
-Stable political governments, and
-The development of the Industrial Revolution.

Today the urban change in the world has a sheer scale of urban population growth. The urban population rose by 576 million between 1990 and 2000. Urban growth correlates strongly with overall population growth, so it is not surprising to find that greatest gains occurred in highly populated countries where large numbers were added to the national population. The urban population of China alone rose by 154 million over the decade. Major increases also occurred in India (63 million), Indonesia (31 million), Brazil (28 million), and Nigeria (20 million). Little or no urban growth took place in Europe, where national population levels are virtually static. For example, the urban population of the Netherlands rose by a mere 900.000 between 1990 and 2000 (Clarck, 2006).

Today, the developed world is three-quarters urban. The proportion of the population living in urban areas reached 50 per cent for the first time in history in 2007. While in the more developed regions, the proportion urban was already nearly 53 per cent in 1950 (Table 2.1 and Box 2.1), in the less developed regions the 50 per cent level will likely be reached around 2019 (UN, 2008).

Table 2.1. Percent Distribution of Urban Area By Development Group, Between 1950-2050

	Percentage Urban					Rate of Urbanization %			
	1950	**1975**	**2007**	**2025**	**2050**	**1950-75**	**1975-07**	**2007-25**	**2025-50**
World	29.1	37.3	49.4	57.2	69.6	0.99	0.88	0.82	0.59
More Developed Countries	52.5	67.0	74.4	79.0	86.0	0.97	0.33	0.33	0.24
Less Developed Countries	18.0	27.0	43.8	53.2	67.0	1.62	1.51	1.08	0.78

Source: UN, 2008.

An important corollary of contemporary urban growth at the global scale is the rapid increase in the number and size of the largest cities. Against the background of a general rise in the number of people who live in urban places it is the metropolitan

centers that are proliferating and growing the fastest. United Nations estimates indicate that the number of cities with over eight million people increased from 10 in 1970 to 24 in 2000 (Table 2.2). The number and size of mega-cities are increasing most rapidly in developing countries. In 1950, the only mega-cities, London and New York, were both in the developed world, while 18 of the 24 mega-cities in 2000 were in the developed world (Table 2.2) (Clark, 2006).

Table 2.2. Urban Agglomeration with Eight Million or More Persons, 1950-2000

1950	1970	1990	2000
More developed regions			
New York	New York	Tokyo	Tokyo
London	London	New York	New York
	Tokyo	Los Angeles	Los Angeles
	Los Angeles	Moscow	Moscow
	Paris	Osaka	Osaka
		Paris	Paris
Less developed regions			
None	Shanghai	Mexico City	Mexico City
	Mexico City	Sao Paulo	Sao Paulo
	Buenos Aires	Shanghai	Shanghai
	Beijing	Calcutta	Calcutta
	Sao Paulo	Buenos Aires	Mumbai
		Mumbai	Beijing
		Seoul	Jakarta
		Beijing	Delhi
		Rio de Janeiro	Buenos Aires
		Tianjin	Lagos
		Jakarta	Tianjin
		Cairo	Seoul
		Delhi	Rio de Janeiro
		Manila	Dhaka
			Cairo
			Manila
			Karachi
			İstanbul

Source: UN, 2001.

Settlements expand and become urban for different reasons. While there are substantial differences in the reasons behind and characteristics of urban growth, overall in developing countries rapid urban population growth reflects three basic factors: (Argenti, 2000) migration from rural areas and from other urban areas;

natural population increase (births minus deaths) among urban residents; and (Baharoğlu and Kessides, 2001) reclassification of previously rural areas as urban as they become built up and change character. During the initial phases of urbanization in a country, migration from rural to urban areas tends to play a greater role than natural population increase in urban areas. As a greater share of the total population lives in cities, however, natural population increase within them surpasses migration in importance (Kasarda and Crenshaw, 1991). As natural population increase slows, migration can once again play a dominant role in urban population growth. For example, if economic opportunities in urban areas expand rapidly while those in rural areas do not (Brookfield and Byron, 1993).

2.1.3. Urbanization Trends in the World

Urbanization is not new and its roots go back to early history, but it only started to grow in a significant way following the industrial revolution, particularly in Western Europe and the United States during the nineteenth century. Industrialization and the development of modern transportation such as the railways contributed to the process. For example, from 1801 to 1911, Britain's urban areas accounted for 94 per cent of the country's population increase. One-third of the urban growth was due to net immigration from rural areas (Lawton, 1972). The world's population increased three-fold between 1800 and 1860 but the world's urban population increased thirty-fold. It has been estimated that before the start of the nineteenth century only some 3 percent of the world's population lived intowns of over 5,000. At the beginning of the twenty-first century, the figure is probably about 40 per cent (Carter, 1995).

During the first half of the twentieth century, urban population continued to grow fast, particularly in Europe and North America. At the beginning of the century, 60 per cent of the American people lived on farms and in villages, but by 1970, 69 per cent resided in metropolitan areas. Clearly, metropolitan concentration was the dominant feature of population redistribution in the so-called developed world during the first half of the twentieth century (Berry, 1981). In the so-called

developing world, urbanization started later, being limited in the nineteenth century in both scale and extent to the areas of Western colonial expansion. During the twentieth century, this situation changed dramatically. In 1920, about a quarter of world's urban population lived in 'developing' countries; by 1950, this had increased to 42 per cent.

Between 1950 and 2007, the world's total population increased from 2.54 billion to 6.67 billion, while the world's urban population increased from 0.73 billion (29 per cent) to 3.29 billion (49.4 per cent) (Table 2.3, Table 2.1 and Box 2.1) (UN, 2008). In the more developed regions, annual growth of urban population was nearly 2 per cent, while in developing regions it reached a startling 3.88 per cent. From 1975 to 2007, urban population growth in developed regions slowed down to more than 1 per cent, while less developed regions maintained a high rate of 3.35 per cent per year. Thus, while in 1950 more than half of the world's urban population lived in developed regions, by 2007 over 72 per cent lived in developing regions, and hence the term 'rapidly urbanizing world'. Looking at it from the point of view of urbanization levels within these rapidly urbanizing regions, while in 1950 less than 18 per cent of the population there lived in urban areas in 1950, by 2007 this figure was over 47 per cent (UN, 2008).

In terms of absolute numbers, there are now more than twice as many urbanites in developing regions as there are in more developed countries. Fuelled by changes in the countryside, high rates of fertility, falling death rates and rapid city-ward migration, most developing countries have been transformed from rural to urban societies in two or three decades. The larger cities, in particular, have been expanding rapidly, often doubling in size every 15 years (Gilbert and Gugler, 1992). This rapid transformation from a basically rural to a heavily urbanized world and the development of urbanism as a way of life have been far more dramatic and spectacular than the much better known population explosion. The bulk of the world’s population growth is now occurring in cities of the developing world. The population explosion is, in reality, overwhelmingly a third world urban explosion.

Today, the number of people living in developing world cities outnumbers the entire population of the world only 100 years ago (Palen, 2005).

Table 2.3. Total, Urban and Rural Populations by Development Group Between 1950-2030

	Population (Millions)					Average annual rate of change (%)			
	1950	1975	2007	2025	2050	1950-75	1975-07	2007-25	2025-50
Total Population									
World	2.54	4.08	6.67	8.01	9.19	1.90	1.54	1.02	0.55
More Developed Countries	0.81	1.05	1.22	1.26	1.25	1.01	0.48	0.16	-0.04
Less Developed Countries	1.72	3.03	5.45	6.75	7.95	2.26	1.84	1.19	0.65
Urban Population									
World	0.74	1.52	3.29	4.58	6.40	2.89	2.42	1.84	1.33
More Developed Countries	0.43	0.70	0.91	0.99	1.07	1.98	0.81	0.49	0.30
Less Developed Countries	0.31	0.82	2.38	3.59	5.33	3.88	3.35	2.27	1.58
Rural Population									
World	1.80	2.56	3.38	3.43	2.79	1.41	0.87	0.08	-0.82
More Developed Countries	0.39	0.35	0.31	0.26	0.17	-0.40	-0.32	-0.94	-1.67
Less Developed Countries	1.41	2.21	3.06	3.16	2.62	1.80	1.02	0.17	-0.75

Source: UN, 2008.

The world population reached a landmark in 2007: for the first time in history the urban population was equal the rural population of the world and, from then on, the world population will be urban in its majority. This event is a consequence of rapid urbanization in the last decades, especially in the less developed regions. Nevertheless, major parts of the world remain largely rural. In Africa and Asia, still six out of every ten persons live in rural areas (UN, 2008).

In many countries, natural increase (the difference of births minus deaths) accounts for 60 per cent or more of urban population growth. Consequently, policies that facilitate the reduction of fertility by allowing couples to have the number of children they desire can contribute to moderate increases in the number of urban dwellers, thereby making it easier for developing countries to adjust to the transformations associated with growing urbanization (UN, 2008).

There is significant diversity in the urbanization levels reached by different regions. The transformative power of urbanization was felt earlier intoday's more developed regions and they have reached high levels of urbanization. Thus, 74 per cent of the inhabitants of more developed regions lived in urban areas in 2007, whereas just 44 per cent of those in the less developed regions did so. Urbanization is expected to continue rising in both the more developed and the less developed regions so that, by 2050, urban dwellers will likely account for 86 per cent of the population in the more developed regions and for 67 per cent of that in the less developed regions. Overall, the world population is expected to be 70 per cent urban in 2050 (UN, 2008).

Little change is taking place in the urban and rural balance in the developed world because, in most countries, the cycle of urbanization has run its course. Analysis that is more detailed in fact suggests that, in many developed countries, the processes responsible for urbanization have turned around. After many decades of expansion, major cities are in decline and population growth is taking place in rural areas. For example, nine of the 12 largest cities of Great Britain lost population between 1991 and 2001 and 11 of the 12 most rural counties gained, some at more than 5 per cent (Clark, 1989).

Heavy urbanization in the developing world is largely a post-World War II phenomenon. The pace of urbanization in developing countries has been far more rapid than that found during the 19th century in Europe or North America. The urban population living in developing countries is expected to explode from just under 2.5 billion today (2007) to 5.33 billion in 2050. Note in Table 2.4 the dramatic projection of African, and especially Asian, urban growth over the next half century. At the same time, the United Nations anticipates a declining population in Europe (Palen, 2005).

Table 2.4. The Percentage of Urban Population in the Major Area, 1950-2050

	Percentage urban					Rate of urbanization %			
	1950	**1975**	**2007**	**2025**	**2050**	**1950-75**	**1975-07**	**2007-25**	**2025-50**
Africa	14.5	25.7	38.7	47.2	61.8	2.28	1.28	1.10	1.08
Asia	16.8	24.0	40.8	51.1	66.2	1.42	1.66	1.24	1.04
Europe	51.2	65.7	72.2	76.2	83.8	1.00	0.29	0.30	0.38
Latin America and theCaribbean	41.4	61.1	78.3	83.5	88.7	1.56	0.78	0.36	0.24
North America	63.9	73.8	81.3	85.7	90.2	0.58	0.30	0.29	0.20
Oceania	62.0	71.5	70.5	71.9	76.4	0.57	-0.05	0.11	0.24

Source: UN, 2008.

Today's 3.4 billion urban dwellers are distributed unevenly among urban settlements of different size. In discussing urbanization, the focus often is on large cities, cities whose populations are larger than those of many countries. In 2007, 19 urban agglomerations qualified as megacities because they had at least 10 million inhabitants. Despite their visibility and dynamism, megacities account for a small though increasing proportion of the world urban population: nearly 9 per cent in 2007 and nearly 10 per cent in 2025. At the same time, over half of the urban population lives and will continue to live in small urban centers with fewer than half a million inhabitants (UN, 2008).

There are marked differences in the size and proportion of the urban population among major areas of the world. In 2007, Africa and Asia's urban population was just under 41 per cent; Europe and Oceania were at nearly 70 per cent; and the Americas had the highest levels of urbanization, with Latin America and the Caribbean at 78.3 per cent and Northern America at 81.3 per cent. However, the combined number of urban dwellers in Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, Northern America and Oceania (1.28 billion) is smaller than the number in Asia (1.65 billion), one of the least urbanized major areas of the world. Of course, these broad figures conceal considerable variations within each area, particularly in developing regions. Most parts of Africa are far less urbanized, containing many countries where more than 60 per cent of the population still live in rural areas (Tables 2.4 and 2.5). Asia appears to be a little more uniform in its urban

characteristics in comparison to Latin America and Africa (Jenkins et al., 2007; UN, 2008).

Table 2.5. Total, Urban And Rural Populations by Region, 1950-2030

	Population (Millions)					Average annual rate of change (%)			
Total Population	**1950**	**1975**	**2007**	**2025**	**2050**	**1950-75**	**1975-07**	**2007-25**	**2025-50**
Africa	224	416	965	1394	1998	2.48	2.63	2.04	1.44
Asia	1411	2394	4030	4779	5266	2.12	1.63	0.95	0.39
Europe	548	676	731	715	664	0.84	0.24	-0.12	-0.30
Latin America and the Caribbean	168	325	572	688	769	2.65	1.77	1.02	0.45
Northern America	172	243	339	393	445	1.40	1.03	0.82	0.50
Oceania	13	21	34	41	49	2.03	1.49	1.05	0.65
Urban population									
Africa	33	107	373	658	1234	4.76	3.90	3.15	2.52
Asia	237	574	1645	2440	3486	3.54	3.29	2.19	1.43
Europe	281	444	528	545	557	1.84	0.54	0.18	0.08
Latin America and the Caribbean	69	198	448	575	683	4.21	2.55	1.38	0.69
Northern America	110	180	275	337	401	1.98	1.33	1.11	0.70
Oceania	8	15	24	30	37	2.60	1.44	1.17	0.89
Rural population									
Africa	192	309	592	736	764	1.92	2.03	1.21	0.15
Asia	1174	1820	2384	2339	1780	1.75	0.84	-0.11	-1.09
Europe	267	232	204	170	107	-0.57	-0.41	-1.00	-1.84
Latin America and the Caribbean	98	126	124	113	87	1.01	-0.06	-0.50	-1.08
Northern America	62	64	63	56	44	0.11	-0.02	-0.65	-1.00
Oceania	5	6	10	12	11	0.88	1.60	0.78	-0.04

Source: UN, 2008.

It is clear that current prediction that the fast growth of the world's urban population will continue, particularly in developing countries.

The rapid trend of urban growth exhibited implies that mega-cities are primarily a phenomenon of the developing world. Growth of this scale and trend will have severe consequences for the quality of life and surrounding environment. The combination of high population density amid poverty and limited resources makes the developing world's mega-city an environment that favors the rapid growth of slum areas (UN-HABITAT, 2003).

Box 2.1. Key Findings of the World Urbanization Prospects 2007 Revision

-During 2008, for the first time in history, the proportion of the population living in urban areas will reach 50 per cent. While in the more developed regions, the proportion urban was already nearly less developed regions the 50 per cent level will likely be reached around 2019.

-The world urban population is expected nearly to double by 2050, increasing from 3.3 billion in 2007 to 6.4 billion in 2050. By mid-century the world urban population will likely be the same size as the world's total population in 2004. Virtually all of the world's population growth will be absorbed by the urban areas of the less developed regions, whose population is projected to increase from 2.4 billion in 2007 to 5.3 billion in 2050. The urban population of the more developed regions is projected to increase modestly, from 0.9 billion in 2007 to 1.1 billion in 2050[1].

-The rate of growth of the world urban population is slowing down[2]. Between 1950 and 2007, the world urban population grew at an average rate of 2.6 per cent per year and more than quadrupled over the period, passing from 0.7 billion to 3.3 billion. During 2007-2025, the world urban population is projected to grow at an average annual rate of 1.8 per cent, which, if maintained, would lead to a doubling of the urban population in 38 years. During 2025-2050, the urban growth rate is expected to decline further to 1.3 percent per year, implying a doubling time of 52 years.

-The sustained increase of the urban population combined with the pronounced deceleration of rural population growth will result in continued urbanization, that is, in increasing proportions of the population living in urban areas. Globally, the level of urbanization is expected to rise from 50 per cent in 2008 to 70 per cent in 2050[3]. More developed regions are expected to see their level of urbanization rise from 74 per cent to 86 per cent over the same period. In the less developed regions, the proportion urban will likely increase from 44 per cent in 2007 to 67 per cent in 2050.

-Historically, the process of rapid urbanization started first intoday's more developed regions. In 1920, just less than 30 per cent of their population was urban and by 1950, more than half of their population was living in urban areas. In 2007, high levels of urbanization, surpassing 80 per cent, characterized Australia, New Zealand and Northern America. Europe, with 72 per cent of its population living in urban areas, was the least urbanized major area in the developed world. By 2050, Australia, New Zealand and Northern America are all expected to be over 90 per cent urban while Europe's level of urbanization is projected to be lower, at 84 per cent [4] .

Source: UN, 2008.

[1] Table 2.3
[2] Table 2.3
[3] Table 2.1
[4] Table 2.4

2.2. “Slum” Fact in the World

2.2.1. The Urbanization of Poverty

One result of urban growth is the urbanization of poverty. A significant and increasing proportion of the growing urban populations are living on low incomes. Poverty in the developing world, a phenomenon that has been for long uniquely associated with rural areas, has increasingly become urbanized. Depending on the individual countries and cities, between 40 and 80 per cent of urban dwellers in the world are living in poverty, with very little or absolutely no access to shelter, basic urban services and social amenities (UN-HABITAT, 2003a). World Bank estimates that, worldwide, 30% of poor people live in urban areas. By 2020 the proportion is projected to reach 40%, and by 2035 half of the world’s poor people are projected to live in urban areas (Ravallion, 2001).

While urban incomes, even for rural-urban migrants, are often substantially higher than those in rural areas are, these higher living costs force the poor into spending a high proportion of their incomes on basic human needs, including food, water, and housing. It has been estimated that nearly 1 billion urban residents in developing countries are poor, and their numbers are increasing more rapidly than in rural areas (Payne and Majale, 2004).

Rapid urbanization and urban growth have placed immense pressure on the resources of national and local governments. Few have been able to meet the increasing need for planned and affordable land, housing, and services through either direct provision or incentives to the private sector. The result is that millions of people around the world have found their solution in various types of slums and unauthorized or informal settlements. Ironically, these often reflect the socio-economic and cultural needs of low-income communities more than the official forms of development favored by professionals and government agencies (Payne and Majale, 2004).

2.2.2. Overview of "Slum" Fact in the World

The study of Roman ruins indicates that even in ancient times tenements crowded with the poor of the empire created slum conditions. The medieval cities of the West, picturesque as they were, suffered from inferior housing. The Middle Ages were characterized by less technological skill than that of the Romans; aqueducts, sewers, paved roads, and private baths were unknown. Even in Elizabethan times, cities were so crowded with utterly destitute people that poor laws were enacted to cope with problem. However, the homeless, though proportionately large, were still small in numbers and many were kept out of the cities (Bergel, 1955).

But after the Industrial Revolution the poor were needed to work in urban factories. It was then that the modern slums began to grow. The low wages permitted no decent quarters; rapidly increasing industry multiplied the number of the urban masses. Housing had to be provided. New sections, consisting entirely of tenements for manual worker, sprang up overnight. The tenements were made of poor materials so workingmen could afford them; apartments were provided in basements or looking over back yards; rooms were small and low and baths were omitted; toilet facilities and water outlets had to be shared by several tenants. These houses were firetraps, unsanitary, and they deteriorated quickly (Bergel, 1955).

Slums are a manifestation of the two main challenges facing human settlements development at the beginning of the new millennium: rapid urbanization and the urbanization of poverty. Slums develop because of a combination of rapid rural-to-urban migration, increasing urban poverty and inequality, marginalization of poor neighborhoods, inability of the urban poor to access affordable land for housing, insufficient investment in new low-income housing and poor maintenance of the existing housing stock. Slums areas have the highest concentrations of poor people and the worst shelter and physical environmental conditions (UN-HABITAT, 2003a).

Ever since there have been cities, there have been poor quarters but only since the 16th century have there been slums, places that are 'squalid, overcrowded

and wretched'. Slums have been the only large-scale solution to providing housing for low-income people. It is the only type of housing that is affordable and accessible to the poor in cities where the competition for land and profits is intense, and the places where they must live if they have little income or no other options.

The incomes of slum dwellers are mostly too low for formally regulated markets to provide them with any kind of permanent housing. They have acted to solve their own problems by building their own dwellings, or by building informal rental accommodation for each other. Rather than being assisted in their efforts by governments, they have been hounded and their homes frequently demolished, they have been overlooked when basic services are provided, and they have been ignored and excluded from normal opportunities offered to other urban citizens (UN-HABITAT, 2003b).

It is a mistake to think that slums are an unnecessary or extraneous part of the city, that slums are just for poor people or that they are all the same (UN-HABITAT, 2003b). In terms of physical conditions and housing standards, it is important to keep in mind the comparative nature of definition. A slum should be judged physically according to the general living standards of country. Certainly, slum housing in New York City or Chicago would be regarded as adequate, or even good, in many parts of the world. Even limited availability of running water, flush toilets, electricity, and cooking facilities may be enough to exempt certain "slum" areas from classification as slums, at least in the physical sense, in other parts of the world (Clinard, 1966).

Urban slums and squatter settlements exist and continue to grow for a variety of reasons – economic, social, political and environmental. From an economic perspective, they are a source of (real or imagined) economic opportunity for a nation's poor, and of low-cost labour supply for the public and private production of goods and services. They are also a source of profit and capital accumulation for both internal and external property owners. Socially, slums provide low cost housing and low-cost services for rapidly expanding low-income urban populations. They also serve as Networks of social support for new migrants to the city. Politically, in

democratic and quasi-democratic regimes, slums can be an important source of votes and other forms of mutual support for local and national governments. Alternatively, they can act as an organizational base for opposition to governments (UN-HABITAT, 2003b).

Rapid urbanization, one of the greatest socio-economic changes during the last five decades or so, has caused the burgeoning of new kinds of slums, the growth of squatter and informal housing all around the rapidly expanding cities of the developing world. Urban populations have increased explosively in the past 50 years, and will continue to do so for at least the next 30 years as the number of people born in cities increase and as people continue to be displaced from rural areas that are almost at capacity. The rate of creation of formal sector urban jobs is well below the expected growth rate of the urban labour force, so in all probability the majority of these new residents will eke out an informal living and will live in slums (UN-HABITAT, 2003b).

The population of slum areas and the percent distribution of the slum population by regions and country taken from “State of The World’s Cities 2006/7” is given at below (Table 2.6).

Table 2.6. Percent Distribution of Slum and Slum Population at Mid-Year by Region and Country, 1990-2001

	1990		2001	
	Percentage Slum	Slum Population (000)	Percentage Slum	Slum Population (000)
WORLD	31,3	714.972	31,2	912.918
Developed Regions	6,0	41.750	6,0	45.191
EURASIA (Countries in CIS)	10,3	18.929	10,3	18.714
European Countries in CIS	6,0	9.208	6,0	8.878
Asian Countries in CIS	30,3	9.721	29,4	9.836
Developing Regions	46,5	654.294	42,7	849.013
Northern Africa	37,7	21.719	28,2	21.355
Sub-Saharan Africa	72,3	100.973	71,9	166.208
Latin America and Caribbean	35,4	110.837	31,9	127.566
Eastern Asia	41,1	150.761	36,4	193.824
Eastern Asia excluding China	25,3	12.831	25,4	15.568
Southern Asia	63,7	198.663	59,0	253.122
South-Easten Asia	36,8	48.986	28,0	56.781
Western Asia	26,4	22.006	25,7	29.658
Oceania	24,5	350	24,1	499
Least Developed Countries (LDCs)	76,3	81.925	78,2	140.121
Countries				
Egypt	57,5	14.087	39,9	11.762
Morocco	37,4	4.457	32,7	5.579
Mali	94,1	1.968	93,2	3.361
Niger	96,0	1.191	96,2	2.277
Argentina	30,5	8.597	33,1	10.964
Brazil	45,0	110.610	36,6	51.676
Mexico	23,1	13.923	19,6	14.692
Panama	30,8	397	30,8	505
Peru	60,4	8.979	68,1	12.993
Venezuela	40,7	6.664	40,7	8.738
China	43,6	137.929	37,8	178.256
India	60,8	131.174	55,5	158.418
Nepal	96,9	1.574	92,4	2.656
Philippines	54,9	16.346	44,1	20.183
Iraq	56,7	6.825	56,7	9.026
Israel	2,0	81	2,0	113
Saudi Arabia	19,8	2.385	19,8	3.609
Turkey	***23,3***	***7.997***	***17,9***	***8.011***

Source: UN-HABITAT, 2006.

2.2.3. Slum Theories

According to the concentric zone theory of Burgess, largely derived from a study of cities in the United States, the slum develops within the zone surrounding the central business district (Burgess, 1925 and Wirth, 1939). Early in the development of a city, this area is the home of the upper classes, a fashionable residential district. With the expansion of commercial and industrial ventures, the neighborhood becomes infiltrated with industrial, storage, and wholesale operations, and the better to do move farther out, away from the city center. Low-income workers, including recently arrived poor regional ethnic and racial groups, then move in and become the exclusive inhabitants of these areas. Because the owners receive insufficient rental income to maintain their buildings properly, conditions decline, and, because of overcrowding, carelessness, and destructiveness by the occupants, the neighborhood becomes a slum (Clinard, 1966).

The slum develops into an area of high land values but cheap rents, a curious contradiction that results from the land's being held "in pawn" so to speak, on the assumption that the central business district will expand, bringing into the area new business firms, manufacturing establishments, and high-priced rental units like hotels and apartment hotels. The landowners, who seldom live in the area, do not wish to improve slum housing, as it will eventually be torn down. This fact and the rather undesirable location result in cheap rentals, yet the land remains so high-priced that, when an occasional apartment hotel is erected, it must be of high-rise proportions to be profitable.

According to Hoyt's theory, the industrial areas develop along rail lines, river valleys, and watercourse and at the outskirts of the city. The industrial areas do not expand in a circular fashion but string like. The best housing areas are not developed in the fifth concentric zone at the fringe of the city but in some sectors. With the expansion of the city the upper classes move away from the central areas of the fringes of the city. Their residences are located in a few sectors and not in circular fashion. The lower classes occupy central area of the city and here deterioration of the housing conditions give rise to slumming conditions (Hoyt, 1939 and 1943).

It has been claimed, however, that the pattern of land distribution in which the slum is located in or near the central city represents a generalization fulfilled only in industrial cities, where centralized commercial and industrial activities are necessarily more prominent, and does not apply to "preindustrial" cities. In such cities, formerly common in Europe and still common in the developing countries of Asia and other parts of the world, the central areas are generally inhabited by the elite, with the slums located on the peripheries where "houses toward the city's fringes are small, flimsily constructed, often one-room, hovels into which whole families crowd (Sjoberg, 1957).

2.2.4. Definition of "Slum"s

The first published definition of 'slum' reportedly occurs in Vaux's 1812 Vocabulary of the Flash Language, where it is synonymous with 'racket' or 'criminal trade' (Prunty, 1998).

By the cholera years of the 1830s and 1840s, however, the poor were living in slums rather than practicing them. A generation later, slums had been identified in America and India, and were generally recognized as an international phenomenon. Classical slum definition of the 19. century liberals; "overcrowding, poor or informal housing, inadequate access to Improved water and sanitation, and insecurity of tenure" (UN-HABITAT, 2003b).

At the end of the 19th century, the word is used as defined in the Oxford English Dictionary as: " A street, alley, court, etc. situated in a crowded district ofa town or city and inhabited by people of a low class or by the very poor; a number of these streets or courts forming a thickly populated neighborhood or district where the houses and the conditions of life are of a squalid and wretched character" (UN-HABITAT, 2003a).

A definition of the slum is offered in the report on urban land policies of the United Nations in 1950s: "… a building, group of buildings, or area characterized by overcrowding, deterioration, unsanitary 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" (UN, 1952).

During to rapid urbanization process in the developing world, slum phenomenon become so prevalent in the worldwide so that different definitions of slum are used in different countries. In Cairo, The Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS) defined slum as "unplanned and the majority of building were constructed without permits, streets were unstructured, and it lacked basic services, including health, education, and sanitation facilities" (Fikree and others, 2003).

The slums and squatter settlements in Kathmandu Valley (Nepal) Survey Report defined as; "the settlement devoid of the very basic needs; food, cloth, shelter including education, health, sanitary and visually unpleasing and unhealthy environment".

The National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO), India, defines a slum as a "compact settlement with a collection of poorly built tenements, mostly of temporary nature, crowded together usually with inadequate sanitary and drinking water facilities in unhygienic conditions" (NSSO, 2003).

Government of Bangladesh (GoB) and Centre for Urban Studies, defined a slum as a "residential area where more than three hundred people live in one acre (0.405 hectors) of land. An average of more than three adults lives in a single room. 46 percent of these houses are one-roomed and the average size is 120 square feet. Ventilation, drinking water, electricity and sewerage facilities are absent in these houses (Rehman and others, 2002)

There are number of terms by which slums are known in different countries. Today, the catch-all term 'slum' is loose and deprecatory. It has many connotations and meanings and is banned from many of the more sensitive, politically correct and academically rigorous lexicons. It can also vary considerably in what it describes in different parts of the world, or even in different parts of the same city. In developing

countries, the term ‘slum’, if it is used, mostly lacks the pejorative and divisive original connotation, and simply refers to lower quality or informal housing. Large, visible tracts of squatter or informal housing have become intimately connected with perceptions of poverty, lack of access to basic services and insecurity. Terms such as slum, shanty, squatter settlement, informal housing and low-income community are used somewhat interchangeably by agencies and authorities. The coverage of settlement types is even more complex when one considers the variety of equivalent words in other languages and geographical regions:

- **French**: bidonvilles, taudis, HABITAT précaire, HABITAT spontané, quartiers irréguliers;
- **Spanish**: asentamientos irregulares, barrio marginal,barraca (Barcelona), conventillos (Quito), colonias populares (Mexico), tugurios and solares (Lima), bohíos or cuarterias (Cuba), villa miseria;
- **German:** Elendsviertel;
- **Arabic:** mudun safi, lahbach, brarek, medina achouaia, foundouks and karyan (Rabat-Sale), carton, safeih,ishash, galoos and shammasa (Khartoum), tanake (Beirut), aashwa’i and baladi (Cairo);
- **Russian:** trushchobi;
- **Portuguese:** bairros da lata (Portugal), quartos do slum, favela, morro, cortiço, comunidade, loteamento (Brazil);
- **Turkish:** gecekondu;
- **American English:** ‘hood’ (Los Angeles), ghetto;
- **South Asia:** chawls/chalis (Ahmedabad, Mumbai), ahatas (Kanpur), katras (Delhi), bustee (Kolkata), zopadpattis (Maharashtra), cheris (Chennai), katchi abadis (Karachi), watta, pelpath, udukku or pelli gewal (Colombo);
- **Africa:** umjondolo (Zulu, Durban), mabanda (Kiswahili, Tanzania) (UN-HABITAT, 2003b).

2.2.5. The Nature of "Slum"

Slum settlements take many forms, ranging from pavement dwellers in Mumbai to poor urban householders packed into dilapidated, unheated buildings of Moscow and Bucharest. There is one common thread among them all. Slums are the stage to the most acute scenarios of urban poverty, and physical and environmental deprivation (UN, 2005a).

Slum may be characterized as areas of substandard housing conditions within cities. A slum is always an area. A single neglected building, even in the worst stage of deterioration, does not make a slum. Furthermore, the term 'housing conditions' refers to actual living conditions rather than to the mere physical appearance of a building.

It is obvious that lower income groups have lower living standards. That does not necessarily imply that these standards are identical with slum conditions. The slum is a complex product of many factors, as is true of many other social phenomena. Nevertheless, poverty is the foremost cause. Low-income forces people to live in slums, but such groups do not object because they are used to even worse condition. It is also true that almost any area will turn into a slum if its residents do not take proper care of their dwellings.

The continuing existence of slums has also been explained by the fact that 'their inhabitants can not afford good housing and because private enterprise will not supply it at prices they can afford' (Schnore, 1946).

Research indicates that slums invade many other types of areas as well. Two locations predominate settlement decision of most slums inhabitants. One location is to settle on hazardous, landslide, flood prone areas (UN-HABITAT, 2003b). In such cases slum dwellers could be considered as the potential victims of environmental destruction, rather than being the cause of it. The other location for building clusters of makeshift shacks is, around public works, urban land that is already used for development, such as railroad slums in Mumbai and Dhaka, or clusters of shacks squatting under flyovers, as in Sao Paolo and Manila (UN-HABITAT, 2004b).

Slum dwellers are often perceived as semi-criminal squatters on public or private urban land. Not only are they excluded from services, but from political decision-making processes. Investments in infrastructure, provision of planned urban land and low cost housing and credit opportunities are often non-existent, or at best, insufficient, in slum areas. The more dramatic manifestation of exclusion of slum dwellers by the authorities is evictions (UN, 2005b).

Disease, mortality, and unemployment rates are much higher in slums than in other areas of cities and towns. The mortality and morbidity rates of children under five in slum areas often equal or exceed those found in rural areas (Fry and Olivola, 2002).

In slums, the single room serves as a living room, bedroom, kitchen, dining room, etc., and to add to this the number of persons living in the single room ranges from 4 to 10 (Abrams,1990).

3. CONCEPT OF "GECEKONDU" AND "SLUM" IN THE TURKISH LITERATURE

3.1. Urbanization and "Gecekondu" in Turkey

Turkey rapidly lived a transition period from being a low populated and immobile agrarian society to being a fast growing populated and mobile society. Thus, increase in population, young population, growing cities, migration and gecekondu made the subjects of agenda in society in near past (TÜSİAD, 1999).

Urbanization is one of the significant remarking features of the century. As the very word implies, urbanization means an increase in number of towns and in number of people who live in them. The population of towns' increases as the births outrun the deaths and/or via migrations from rural to urban. Since the fertility level in the towns of growing countries is low or tends to be low, it could be said that the urbanization feeds itself by the migrations from village to town. Urbanization is a dynamic term meaning a change, a process in time.

The most significant feature of the urbanization in Turkey is its high speed. In the result of the urbanization, not all towns can grow parallel; bigger towns get bigger faster than the others (Keleş, 1983). According to 2000 census, 43 % of Turkish urban population live in "crowded cities", that have a population bigger than 100.000. However, 16 % of Turkish urban population live in medium sized cities that have a population of about 20.000-50.000 (SIS, 2000a).

In Turkey, one of the most important issues of urbanization, which has been increasing rapidly in the past 50-60 years, is gecekondu. In the downtowns of the cities where rapid urbanization exists, not having enough industry to meet the needs of people living there increases unemployment or forces them to work in marginal jobs. Not setting up a social housing policy to build sites for these people with low income to live is another reason to have gecekondu.

Gecekondu is the dwelling type that is usually built on the lands or fields of others (mainly owned by persons other than the builder or public) in a short term without proper technology and with no substructure at all (Karpat, 1976). Places near work (business) areas in cities, which are usually not healthy to settle such as river banks, steep hills, hard topographies, and valley grounds were preferred in building gecekondu (Ocak, 2002). Gecekondu, which were built as jerry built dwellings, in time, constituted the neighborhoods surrounding the cities as constantly growing circles with low population, and insufficient substructure and service (Erman, 2004). The cheap materials used into build a gecekondu differ from region to region. Wood, stone, brick or iron sheets could make a house in a short time. Gecekondu regions are made up of one-storey dwellings but it has changed now, which are close to each other and usually in a yard or garden with insufficient living areas.

New migrants generally try to settle into the city by seeking their friends or relations in order to find employment and accommodations through them. The new comers settle near their fellow villagers or close relatives, thereby receiving emotional and financial support. As this process continues, gecekondu neighborhoods are formed. There is a strong feeling of solidarity in these areas stemming from common traditions and culture as well as the relatively closed economic system and limited education (Erdoğan et. al., 1996). These rural migrants built their own houses within a network of people having similar experiences. They use their own labour and local or second-hand materials in the construction of their “houses” (Mahmud and Duyar-Kienast, 2001).

Gecekondu is not a concept unique to Turkey. What unique to Turkey is the word “gecekondu”. The fact, gecekondu, is also an issue of some other countries particularly of developing Third World Countries with the similar conditions and similar reasons (Keleş, 1983). Rapid and unplanned growth causes a dwelling problem for those who are with low income intowns, which has been an important issue of Turkey and other developing countries for years. Gecekondu, a term to define the dwelling buildings of those people with low income migrating from

villages or small towns to cities, exists in other developing countries with different names. For instance, *jacale* in Mexico, *rancho* in Panama, *macambo* in Brazil, *favela* in Argentina, *gourbevile* in Tunisia, *casbah* in Algeria, *bidonville* in Morocco, and *bustee* in India. These dwelling sites resemble each other in many ways in different countries and usually gather the poor in the cities. These neighborhoods make up an important proportion of the population overall. 36% in Lima, 35% in Caracas, 35% in Manila, 33% in Calcutta of the urban population live in gecekondu regions. The total rate for Turkey is 35%; allocated as 62,5% in Ankara, and more than 50% in İstanbul and İzmir (Keleş, 2008).

3.1.1. Definitions of "Gecekondu"

The concept of "slum" has different meaning and contents, and changes to country to country because of differences in their economic, social, demographic and urban development process. In Turkey this process, brought in the "gecekondu" concept to define type of building result of rapid urbanization, mechanization in agriculture, insufficiency in house policy, high rent price, etc.

The term "gecekondu" was first seen in our language in 1940s. The term "gecekondu" has a meaning that the house is built and completed in one night (Yörükan, 1968). Gecekondu has various definitions in various resources.

In accordance with the Dictionary of Urbanization Terms, gecekondu means, "a dwelling type for the poor built in violation of Public Works and Housing regulations on the lands of juristic or public persons without their consents and with no water, electricity, phone lines etc. facilities by the government and municipality management."

In accordance with the Gecekondu Act 775 enacted in 1966 regulating the public works and housing of gecekondu, the term gecekondu means "the dwelling built in violation of public works and housing acts on others' lands without the consents of the owners."

And in accordance with Act 6188 for building permitted and non-permitted dwellings, gecekondu means “a dwelling built on a land owned by someone else without his consent in violation of public planning and usually unhygienic and unscientific and completed in a hurry” (Tatlıdil, 1989). Gecekondu is a name for the dwellings built contrary to public works acts with no health conditions and supervision, and completed in a hurry (Çelik, 2000).

İstanbul Metropolitan Municipality Dwelling and Gecekondu Affairs Directorate defines “gecekondu” in the project of urbanization transformation as “buildings built on the lands owned by others without their consents in violation of the public works and housing regulations; and dwellings built on lands owned by public (municipalities, treasure, funds) and private persons by others without permission.”

Shared points of all these definitions above can be lined as follows:
-Violation of the acts,
-Built on others’ (state or private) lands,
-Without the consent of the owners,
-Without license,
-Built in a hurry (in one night).

Some sociologists and city planners believe that owning the land is not a criterion to clarify gecekondu. Considering the definition by sociologists, a great majority of the city and village dwellings in Turkey should be counted as gecekondu (Keleş, 2008). According to the State Planning Organization’s Planning Commission’s point of view, the dwellings that are built contrary to the acts on the lands of the landowners without a license should also be called gecekondu. The Act 775 also considers some other work place buildings such as groceries, cafes etc. as gecekondu via using the word “building” (Geray, 1968).

3.1.2. Overview of "Gecekondu" Fact in Turkey

In the Turkish context, "gecekondu" dwellings began to emerge during the 1940s, and continued with increasing numbers especially in big cities of Turkey. The basic underlying reasons of emergence and massive increase of these dwellings are rapid urbanization, housing shortage and the high rents in cities (Heper, 1978). In Turkey, during the 1940s a high rate of urbanization started with increasing migration from rural to urban areas. Among the push factors of urbanization, Marshall Aid during the 1940s had crucial implications for rural to urban migration. The Marshall aid at first glance promoted mechanization in the agricultural sector that ultimately caused a high rate of unemployed rural laborers and small-scale farmers (Şenyapılı, 1983). With Marshall Aid Anatolian highways were built which made it easier to migrate to urban areas. Thus, the Marshall aid had ultimately led to urbanization through causing structural changes in the agricultural sector by altering labour-intensive agriculture to technology-based one, and also through highway construction, by making urban areas more accessible (Ardıç, 2002). Continuous migration to cities has been a considerable part of urbanization and increase in urban population. Table 3.1 illustrates urban population growth between 1970 and 2007.

Table 3.1. Urban and Rural Population Between 1970-2007, Turkey

Years	Total Population	Urban Population (1)	%	Rural Population	%
1970	35.605.156	11.550.644	32,4	24.054.512	67,6
1975	40.347.719	15.181.918	37,6	25.165.801	62,4
1980	44.736.957	18.824.957	42,1	25.912.000	57,9
1985	50.664.458	23.926.262	47,2	26.738.196	52,8
1990	56.473.035	30.515.681	54,0	25.957.354	46,0
1995 (2)	62.171.000	37.853.969	60,9	24.317.031	39,1
2000	67.803.927	44.006.274	64,9	23.797.653	35,1
2007 (3)	70.586.256	49.747.859	70,5	20.838.397	29,5

Source : http://www.dpt.gov.tr and http://www.tuik.gov.tr
(1) Urban is the places with a population of 20000 and more.
(2) Estimation by the end of the year
(3) Address Base Registration System, 2007.

Migrations seen in this process headed towards industry cities, which are called migration attractors. People coming to cities first aimed to have a secure and

constant occupation and find a house to settle down (Karpat, 1976). In fact, urban population increase, which mostly depended on rural migrants, gave rise to housing demand. As the housing supply could not keep pace with the housing demand in cities due to rapid urbanization, and due to housing shortage and lack of social housing programs, gecekondu construction emerged as a solution adopted by migrants (Mahmud and Duyar-Kienast, 2001).

"Gecekondu" since its first appearance has been growing in quantity in relatively developed big cities (Keleş, 1983). The number of gecekondu predicated by thousands increased rapidly in the course of time. The number of gecekondu was approximately 80 thousands in 1950s, 240 thousands in 1960s, and 600 thousands in 1970s. And today, 12 million populations live in about 2,5 million gecekondu, which makes 30% of the urban population intotal (Keleş, 2003).

Geographical regions that have the most gecekondu dwellings are, at the same time, have the most developed cities. Big regions Central Anatolia with Ankara, and Marmara with İstanbul and other two big regions Mediterranean and Aegean have 90% of the total gecekondu dwellings in Turkey. Therefore, this makes gecekondu a big city and a developed region. But this indicator should not be considered as a criterion of development. The following table shows the increasing number of gecekondu and population live in gecekondu in accordance with years (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2. Number of Gecekondu, Population Living in Gecekondu and Proportion of Population Living in Gecekondu in the Urban Population of Turkey, 1955-2002

Year	Number of Gecekondu	Population Living in Gecekondu	Proportion of Population Living in Gecekondu into Urban Population %
1955	50.000	250.000	4,7
1960	240.000	1.200.000	16,4
1965	430.000	2.150.000	22,9
1970	600.000	3.000.000	23,6
1980	1.150.000	5.750.000	26,1
1990	1.750.000	8.750.000	33,9
1995	2.000.000	10.000.000	35.0
2002	2.200.000	11.000.000	27.0

Source: Keleş, 2008

According to Erman (2001): When people started migrating from villages to the cities in the late 1940s and began to build their own gecekondu, their presence in the city and their makeshift houses were perceived as highly alarming both by the state and by the urban elites. The elitist view was to regard the gecekondu people as a serious obstacle to modernization of the cities and the promotion of the modern (Western) way of life in them. Within this elitist political context, squatter settlements were not welcomed, and several measures were taken, for example prevention, prohibition, and demolition through legislative actions.

Nevertheless, in 1940-50 decade, efficient policies and programmed institutional regulations directed to meet the dwelling and accommodation needs of the population that migrated from rural to urban were not made, so the migration carried on within the same conditions. During these years the rural did ‘push’, but the urban ‘did not pull’ (Çelik, 200). The main feature of the gecekondu in 1950s is that the migrants from the rural performing the building process with their own effort on public lands. Another feature of the first generation gecekondu is that the owner and the user of the produced gecekondu were not different people.

In the beginning, gecekondu were some dwellings that should be banned which were built against the law and with no proper city planning and ruined the view of the cities. By the 1960s, the political response continued in the same

manner. “It had gradually become apparent that the squatters were emerging as an important pressure group. And particularly during the election years, title deeds were distributed, municipal services were provided to those areas immediately after efforts were made to demolish the houses” (Heper, 1978). Gecekondu population became politically important in addition to economic importance. Gaining political importance meant having access to urban infrastructure, and more importantly, having their own deeds for the poor (Şenyapılı, 1982).

During the 1970s, gecekondu gained an additional meaning of being a tool for economic and social security, as ‘commercialization’ was seen in the urban labour market, construction process, and in gecekondu housing, which had exchange value for the urban poor. Commercialization was mainly due to the speculative growth in the urban land market, and the exchange value of gecekondu. “By the mid-1970s, it had become common practice for a developer to offer two, three or even four units in a proposed apartment block in order to persuade a settler to sell out” (Payne, 1982). Indeed, the transformation process of gecekondu into apartment buildings started in the mid-1970s.

The 1980s and 1990s were the years when society realized beyond doubt that not only could rural migrants/gecekondu people rapidly jump up to a higher economic stratum, but also they could shape the city by creating their own ways of life and sets of values, which were surely different from those of the modernizing urban elites.

The growth of gecekondu today is now a new way of earning money with plenty of opportunities other than finding a dwelling place in city (Işık, 1999). This way, the gecekondu trade got its start as renting, selling, and no more gecekondu, which were once built, as homes for the builder and his families were seen.

In Turkey, the gecekondu, with respect to its economic, social and political meanings, has changed since its first appearance during the 1940s. The progress of gecekondu in Turkey can be summarized as follows:

- In the emergence phase of gecekondu dwellings, they were low quality and cheap, self-help houses, and their residents were rural migrants with low education and unskilled labour, whose livelihoods were dependent on marginal jobs in the urban labour market and agricultural facilities in their villages.
- In the expansion phase during the late 1950s, gecekondu dwellings became neighborhoods enabling high solidarity networks, their residents became politically important clients in the multiparty political sphere, gecekondu men had access to regular jobs, and gecekondu women started to participate in the urban labour market.
- In the late 1970s, the construction process of gecekondu dwellings became commercialized, and the gecekondu had exchange value in addition to its use value in the urban informal housing market.
- In the transformation phase during the 1980s, gecekondu and their residents have faced dramatic changes.
- The post-1980s period is of significance for the urban poor, since from then on Turkey has experienced restructuring processes in all spheres of life, from which the urban poor have been affected significantly. Economically, structural adjustment programs, socially, terrorism in the South-eastern region, and politically, the gecekondu policies have changed the composition of the urban
- In the late 1990s and early 2000s, it was seen that some of the gecekondu neighborhoods transformed themselves to formal apartment buildings and some of them just kept their typical gecekondu neighborhood features and some of them were worn out but still made home for the poorest (Erman and Eken, 2004).

3.1.3. Causes Leading to Emergence of Gecekondu

Gecekondu is usually an issue of the Third World countries. Since the developing countries have a rapid urbanization course without a certain city planning, undesired urbanization development appears. As a result, the undesired

urbanization process with an increasing speed since 1950s created the fact of gecekondu (Gürel, 1983).

1-Agricultural Mechanization:

Upon agricultural mechanization, agrarian laborers lost their jobs and started to migrate to cities and settle down in the mentioned areas. Since their incomes were not sufficient to rent a house, they built gecekondu usually away from the cities in distance neighborhoods (Gençay, 1962).

2-Urbanization-Industrialization:

The appearance of gecekondu and its rapid growth in underdeveloped countries had the same speed with the urbanization in these countries (Keleş, 1972).

In the result of the unplanned industrialization, big cities were made into industry centers and hence they took floods of workers from various villages and towns of the country. However, since the industrialization was not Improved enough to feed the migrated population, many people were unemployed or forced to work in marginal occupations.

Since the number of the present houses was not sufficient and necessary precautions to built houses for the workers were not taken or building cheap and reasonable dwellings was not thought of and the workers could not afford rentals in the city, they built the gecekondu dwellings away from the city and near their work places on lands of others usually owned by the treasure, the municipality or private persons (Gençay, 1962).

3-Insufficient Dwelling Policy:

One of the most important reasons of gecekondu growth is the absence of reasonable and low priced dwellings. Agricultural mechanization and industrialization movements made an increase in the number of the dwellings. A serious dwelling construction program was not applied to meet the dwelling needs in

the cities. Dwelling investments were directed to the luxurious dwellings other than the ones with ordinary standards.

As the population living in the cities increased, the number of dwellings constructed was not enough to meet the accommodation needs of the population. In the decade of 1950-1960 the population living in the cities reached 8,9 million from 5,2 million with an increase of 3,6 million. Assuming that one dwelling is for four persons, 900.000 dwellings should have been built in the same decade. The real number of the dwellings constructed with a license was 52.000. This made the growth of gecekondu and brought a density of population (Geray, 1968).

With the share parted for the construction of dwellings of national revenue, constructing more dwellings was not possible. In short, a social dwelling policy was not produced in our country (Keleş, 1996).

Increasing demand for the land in gecekondu areas in Turkey increased the land prices as well. This situation encourages and forces the extra lands in gecekondu areas to be parceled and sold. Therefore, the speculation activities on public lands in gecekondu areas accelerate. Plenty of public land handed over to private ownership (Alpar and Yener, 1991).

4-High Rental Prices:

Since the rental prices of the dwellings that were constructed via big capitals have high rental prices, it is not possible for the people with low incomes to pay such rental prices. The rental prices of the dwellings constructed with cooperative system are close to those mentioned above. High rental prices forced a lot of people to build gecekondu (Geray, 1968).

5-Psychological Causes:

One migrated from village to city will normally compare what he earns in village and in city. Even the money earned is the same compared to city; he will stay

in city to benefit from the services given by city. Consequently, he will choose to build a cheap gecekondu instead of paying the rental price, which is equal to his salary for a house in the city (Geray,1968).

6-Domestic Security:

With the terrorism began in the early 1980s, East and Southeast Anatolian people forced to leave their villages. These people leaving their own lands in order to save their own lives and to take some security precautions did not have any money or an occupation to be employed in cities did also not have any opportunities to buy or to get a house constructed to live in. As they had to live in the city of which their village was under the custody, they were forced to stay and live in the makeshift homes they built in the outer neighborhoods of the cities. Especially Diyarbakır and Gaziantep were surrounded with the gecekondu built by them (Çelik, 2000).

7-Insufficient Police Forces and the Role of Politicians:

There are some rules and regulations to prevent the construction of gecekondu. However, these regulations were not applied properly and resulted today's gecekondu. It is inevitable to be unable to prevent the construction of gecekondu when only the regulations are produced but parallel steps are not taken (Gençay, 1962).

Particularly between 1945-1960 and 1980-1990, the politicians in the parliament and local authorities indicated a protecting and encouraging manner for the gecekondu fact. This manner resulted in granting title deeds of real estate's for licensing these gecekondu, which were constructed on the lands owned by the treasure, municipalities, public, and some other public foundations. Such title deed granting ceremonies created the belief that when a gecekondu is built, the title deed is eventually granted. This belief speeded the migration from villages to cities (Keleş, 1972).

The role of the politicians to carry on the gecekondu issue is not only showing "green light" to the gecekondu constructor. As the urbanization services such as water, electricity, education, transportation etc. are given to the gecekondu regions, some differentiation is made in accordance with the political views of the gecekondu people live there. With this point of view, gecekondu, which is known to be an urbanization issue, could also be seen as a political issue.

3.1.4. The Improvement of the Gecekondu Policy in Turkey

3.1.4.1. The Gecekondu Policy Before The Planned Period (Before 1960)

Following the years when the World War II was over, the gecekondu issue had been tried to be solved by the help of some acts enacted. The first legal response to squatter housing was enacted in 1948, Law No.5218[5]. This law aimed at improving the existing squatter dwellings and preventing the construction of new squatter houses through land allocation by the municipality within Ankara boundaries (Heper, 1978). Municipality sold some lands to those families who;

-have many children,

-do not own a house in Ankara,

-have a stable job,

-are long-term dwellers,

-are in need of government aid with equal installments to be paid back in 10 years. The Act 5228 enacted the same year to enable the families benefiting from the land aid to get house loans, granted the right to Türkiye Emlak Kredi Bankası to credit the 75 % of the price of the house those in need with 5 % interest. This second act was not only valid in Ankara but in whole Turkey.

The families, which were granted lands, were obliged to build their houses on the granted lands in two years. Today, Yenimahalle with over a 500 thousand population was formed with the opportunities by that act (Keleş, 2008).

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[5] *Law 5218, in 1948, Law Enabling the Ankara Municipality to allocate and Transfer Part of its land Under Special Circumstances and Without Having to Comply with provisions of Law 2490.*

“Reflecting widespread concerns of property owners in the major cities, the law dealt severally with squatters who occupied private property. Gecekondu built on private land were subject to immediate demolition, squatters on private property could be sent to prison.” (Danielson and Keleş, 1985). The failure of legislative actions in practice was seen immediately with the continuous increase of squatters in quantity.

Upon fast improvement in building gecekondu, the Act 5431 enacted in 1949 anticipating to prevent building gecekondu and to collapse those which were already built since they were unjust to ownership could not reach its target.

The Act 6188 enacted in 1953, as well, tried to solve the squatter housing problem by "allocating" or "transferring" the lands owned or to be owned via various ways by municipalities to the families in need of building houses. This act "legalized" all of the gecekondu that had been built before 1953 and prohibited to build new gecekondu after the said date. During the 15-year period of validity (1953-1966), it neither helped much to prevent building new gecekondu nor to increase the number of legal houses.

The Act 7367 enacted in 1959 anticipated the Treasury lands within the borders of municipalities with or without public works plans to be granted to the municipalities, and reserved those said lands for preventing squatter housing, yet no success was gained.

This policy, which was valid until the planned period, had three main features:

1. Municipalities trying to prevent gecekondu building by transferring the lands which were granted by the Treasury, or gained via public administrations, or purchased cheaply or gained free of charge,

2. Forbidding building gecekondu via laws,

3. The gecekondu, which had been built before, were considered "fait accompli" and legalized this way. These features make the fundamental features of the current gecekondu policy that applies today.

3.1.4.2. The Gecekondu Policy During The Planned Period (After 1960)

Just as in the housing term, the planned period, created a larger point of view for gecekondu issue. The policy proposed in the First Five-Year Plan, as a rule, assumed the principle that gecekondu cannot be pulled down before a place to live for the dwellers is found and had three main aims as follows:

1. Improvement (Upgrading): To solve ownership problems and to improve the gecekondu built so far via providing the public services for them.
2. Removal (Purification): To clear off the gecekondu those are in very bad conditions.
3. Prevention: To prevent new gecekondu from building.

As to the prevention of new gecekondu from building, The First Plan indicated two ways of solution as follows:

a) To take necessary economical and social precautions to provide the equality for the migration rate and occupation opportunities rate, and

b) To indirectly prevent the demand for the gecekondu by building/presenting more social housing.

The Second Five-Year Plan is not very much different from the First Plan in aims at gecekondu issue. The aims of the Second Plan are as follows:

-Priority to prevention,

-Benefiting the efforts of those trying to build their own houses,

-Trying to ease the future improvements of cities by solving ownership issues of gecekondu.

For a while in the early terms of planned development strategy, the Ministry of Development and Housing considered the gecekondu issue as the problems of

local administrations and did not choose to take any responsibility, yet through the end of the First Plan, the opinion that the government should help solve the problem and the municipalities should not be left alone in trying to solve the gecekondu issue gained power in time.

Besides the aims about the gecekondu issue of the Second Plan are not very much different from those of the First Plan, the tools to realize these are not seen in the Second Plan. In the plan, the solution includes "benefiting from the efforts of building your own house". The experiences of the First Plan indicated that this plan could only be successful in areas destroyed by the act of God.

In the Third Five-Year Improvement Plan, no special attention is paid on the gecekondu issue. Rather than a planned approach to solve the gecekondu issue, planning manner to monitor the progression of the gecekondu issue was chosen. The opinion that the Third Plan bases on is the consideration that the social issue shall be solved on its own parallel to the economical improvement.

In the Fourth Plan, utilities services such as roads, water lines, electricity in the gecekondu areas shall be accelerated and "a long term usage right" shall be granted to the owner of the gecekondu on the public lands in the gecekondu improvement areas. Nevertheless, no such applications are seen during the plan period.

The gecekondu fact continued to exist in the planned period as well. The gecekondu number, which was 240 thousand in 1960, increased over 1 million in 20 years. In the early terms of the planned period, in the year of 1963, the law 327 anticipated that utilities services should be provided to the houses with no usage permission that is gecekondu, for the first and the last time. The mentioned law could be considered as a political step for the upcoming elections. Later on, in 1966, parallel to the principles of the First Plan, the Gecekondu Law 775 was enacted. Today, the fundamental principles of the current policy exist in that law. The law 775 had a minor amendment in 1976 with law 1990 but kept its wholeness.

The Fifth Five-Year Plan covering the years 1985-1989 no detailed principles took their places. By considering the principles of the Law of Gecekondu Amnesty 2981, "priority to the gecekondu and providing them with the utilities services" were mentioned in that plan. The result may be that the houses with no permission and their constructions could be made permitted by obtaining a permission letter so that the gecekondu construction may be prevented. The Fifth Five-Year Plan Period is such a period that the law 2981 was widely applied and the gecekondu that were built were tried to be legalized with a liberal manner of the government.

In the Sixth Five-Year Plan, with the aim of preventing the gecekondu, the designs for nucleus houses were declared a priority via the system of helping those who build their own houses.

In the Seventh Plan, the only mentioning is the updating the gecekondu law proper to the current improvements of the day.

The word gecekondu is barely mentioned in the Eighth Five-Year Improvement Plan, instead the word unlicensed building was used. It is mentioned that the deficit between the numbers of the houses built in the previous plan period and the demand was 1,3 million and the said deficit was closed by building new gecekondu and unlicensed buildings. Due to the insufficiency of the numeric data given about the houses and unlicensed buildings, there exists no satisfactory results written. The stock of unlicensed buildings is about 2 million, and this violates the quality of the structure and the environment, and makes it difficult to take precautions against the disasters like earthquakes and fires. In the Plan, it is emphasized that "the precautions to prevent gecekondu and unlicensed buildings shall be taken" but these precautions were not indicated there in (Keleş, 2008).

3.2. "Gecekondu" and "Slum" Facts in Turkey

Gecekondu fact, in accordance with the industrial growth, started to appear as of 1800s in West Europe, Latin America, and the United States. Actually, while the population in 1800s in London was 50 thousands, it reached 500 thousands in 1850. These rapid population increases were not seen in the long historical course in industrial regions where industry had its quick improvements like England. Mentioned rapid increases in population created misery houses in the surroundings of big cities (Türkdoğan, 2002).

Slums are neglected dwelling aggregation with low living standards where income and consumption rates are limited and usually seen in big cities in developed countries (Tatlıdil, 1989). The term slum defines the centers, which are neglected yet were formerly the most developed parts of the cities but lost the attraction since some other places got the attention of population in the cities in developed countries (Atay, 1996). Slums, when constructed, were multi-storey buildings which were planned, healthy, modern and with high standards but worn out in time and lost the reliability of being dwellings and became dilapidated in the city centers (Türkdoğan, 1982). Another remarkable feature of these regions known as "sefalet yuvası" "homes of misery" is that although they have high rates of accommodation, the dwellers constantly change their places (Gökçe, 1971).

Although they are not similar to each other, it is frequently assumed that slums in big cities of developed and industrialized western countries and gecekondu-like houses in developing countries are alike. Of course, some similarities exist between these two facts. Both types of dwellings make home for the poor and classes with low income. There are some other similarities also exist between gecekondu and slums such as occupations, education, social value systems and some social behaviors (Keleş, 2008). Shared points between slums and gecekondu can be lined as follows:

-Low income,

-Poor education,

-Unqualified labour force,

-High unemployment,

-Low living standards in dwellings,

-High numbers living in per room,

-Low services.

Nevertheless, there are some major differences between these two types of dwellings appear in developing and developed countries. Slums and gecekondu have dissimilar features like:

Table 3.3. Differences Between Slum and Gecekondu

Slum	Gecekondu
-Appear in developed countries	-Appear in developing countries
-Exist in city centers	-Exist in the transit passing areas in the cities (between the new and old dwelling regions of the cities, they make the sociological passing areas
-City-dwellers live in	-Village-dwellers live in
-Usually multi-storey	-One-storey
-High population per hectare	-Low population per hectare
-Low home owning rates (Temporary stays seen more than long stays)	-High home owning rates (Long stays to meet the accommodation needs for long times)
-They are old dwelling areas of the city	-They are new dwelling areas of the city
-No trees, blocks	-With gardens, trees and attachments; same type homes
-Gets worn out and unhealthy in time	-Gets better and healthy in time
-A slum, used in singular, means a street made up of bad dwellings and slums, used in plural, means a district made up of these streets	-No change in meaning when used in singular or plural for administration or urbanization

3.3. General Characteristics of İstanbul Population

This dissertation includes households within the metropolitan area of İstanbul. That is why it will be useful to explain the concept of metropolitan area and the structure of the population of İstanbul.

After the second half of the last century, the most important problem observed at the global scale has been the phenomenon of immigration from the rural to the urban. This movement resulting from the pushing factors at the rural, as well as pulling factors at the urban and starting the phenomenon of rapid urbanization has led to the emergence of metropolitan areas or cities centered at İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir and Adana. The metropolitan area or city, in short, can be explained as a unit where the population is concentrated, which includes some minor or major settlement areas within a geographical space interms of socio-economic, political and administrative aspects and which is the center of the region constituted by itself together with these minor or major settlement areas.

Metropolitan areas can be defined as meta-city spaces interms of diferrent criteria in the urban space they are located at; however there is no definition of it at an international character and thus there is no common aspects and indicators. (Concentration, responsibility zone, the extend of metropolitan, population limits, sectoral concentration etc.)

In accordance with her own peculiar urban structure, İstanbul, can be defined as a meta-city settlement within the urban settlement system of Turkey which includes common characteristics of both developed and developing countries. (Kalkan et al., 2004).

İstanbul, the biggest city of Turkey, keeps her leader city (metropolitan) status with a population over millions since 1950s. The population of İstanbul was 10.018.735 according to 2000 General Population Census and 12.573.836 in result of 2007 Population Census According to Address Base Registration System. It had grown continuously in last 60 years. This population change is shown at the below table.

Table 3.4. The Population Change of İstanbul, 1950-2007

Years	Population of İstanbul	Population of Turkey	İstanbul Pop./ Turkey Pop. (%)
1950	1.166.477	20.974.188	5,56
1955	1.533.822	24.064.763	6,37
1960	1.882.092	27.754.820	6,78
1965	2.293.823	31.391.421	7,31
1970	3.019.032	35.605.176	8,48
1975	3.904.588	40.347.279	9,68
1980	4.741.890	44.736.957	10,60
1985	5.842.985	50.664.458	11,53
1990	7.195.773	56.473.035	12,74
1995	9.198.809	62.810.111	14,65
2000	10.018.735	67.844.903	14,76
2007*	12.573.836	70.586.256	17,81

Source: SIS, 2000.

* 2007 data taken from Address Base Registration System

İstanbul is placed in the Marmara Region of Turkey. The surface area of the province with a size of 5.196 km^2, covers 0,7% of Turkey. The population of Turkey was detected to be 13.648.270 in 1927, the population of İstanbul was detected to be 806.863 and İstanbul was the first in size of population among 63 provinces (in that time there were 63 provinces in Turkey). And today, Turkey's population is 70.586.256 and İstanbul is still the biggest province in Turkey. The average size of households in İstanbul has decreased. While the average size of households was 4,9 in 1955, it was 3,9 in 2000.

The population of Turkey has grown approximately 5.2 times in the last 80 years. In the same period, the population of İstanbul has grown 15.6 times of its initial population and increased to 12.573.836 in 2007. The population of İstanbul continuously increased in 1927-2007 period. The annual population growth rate of İstanbul has shown its lowest value with 11,4‰ in 1927-1935 period, and has taken its highest value with 54,9‰ in 1965-1970 period. The annual population growth rate of İstanbul was 33,1‰ in 1990-2000 period and 32,5‰ in 2000-2007 period. While the population of İstanbul had a share of 5.9% in the population of the country in 1927, its share in the population of the country was approximately 17,8% in 2007.

Generally, it is seen that annual population growth rate of İstanbul has been above that of the country in this period.

The share of the population living in the city in İstanbul which was 87,4% in 1927, showed small fluctuations until 1950 and showed a tendency to decrease in 1950-1980 period. In 1950-1980 period, the growth rate of the population living in the village was higher than that of population living in the city due to higher migration to the rural areas in İstanbul. Thus, the share of the city population in the total population decreased in 1950-1980 period. While 85,9% of the total population was living in the city in 1950, this proportion decreased to 61,4% in 1980. The rapid increase in the proportion of population living in the city in 1980-1985 period is arised due to decrease in the areas that defined as the city as a result of change in the administrative borders of city and village. After year 1985, it was seen that the structure of the share of the population living in the city showed a tendency to decrease similar to that in 1950-1980 period. The share of the population living in the city in İstanbul has been quite above the average of that of the country. The share of the population living in the city in İstanbul was 90,7% in 2000 (SIS, 2000b) and 88.9% in 2007 (TÜİK, 2008).

According to United Nations data, İstanbul, being within world's biggest five city in A.D. 900s, was the biggest city of world with its 700.000 population in the 17. century. According to recent statistics, İstanbul takes part in the 20th row in the order of worlds biggest cities with its approximately 10 million population. Estimation of United Nations for population of İstanbul in 2015 is 12,5 million. But the 2007 population census result has shown that this estimation will be discarded.

3.4. The State of Dwelling and Settlement in İstanbul

The data of dwelling and settlement in İstanbul was examined, it was seen that the urban agglomeration had grown unplanned and uncontrolled. The information about settlement type according to 1/50.000 scale of İstanbul Metropolitan Area Subregion Master Plan Report is as follow.

Table 3.5. Settlement Type in İstanbul Metropolitan Area

	Area (Hectare)	Population of 1990	Dwelling Area (Hectare)	%
Early settlement	1029	205.427	284	0,7
Regularly formed housing areas	1184	2.099.915	5624	14,6
Irregularly formed housing areas	19057	1.725.711	8620	22,3
Gecekondu	51760	1.667.323	19006	49,2
Mass housing	10588	431.202	5108	13,2
Total	94626	6.167.696	38644	100

Source: 1/50.000 scale of İstanbul Metropolitan Area Subregion Master Plan Report, İstanbul, 1995.

The dominant form of urbanization in the major cities of Turkey is gecekondu, especially İstanbul. İstanbul is a laboratory for uncontrolled urban growth fostered by uncontrolled population growth. As in other metropolitan cities of the developing world, neither development plans nor various control mechanisms have been able to stop the construction of the informal housing that accompanies population growth. The only possible intervention, in the absence of financial mechanisms for formal housing, has been to follow growth carefully and improve areas experiencing informal growth as soon as possible. İstanbul receives an estimated 500,000 migrants each year from the rural areas of the country, most of whom become squatters.

The old city is surrounded by gecekondu settlements, which include sixty-five percent of all buildings in İstanbul. Gecekondu dwellings of İstanbul also appear and surround the factories in districts where industrial establishments exist. And some gecekondu appear in regions near the borderlines of the municipalities away from the control of police forces.

The first examples of gecekondu in İstanbul were observed at Zeytinburnu in the late 1940s. Zeytinburnu was at the time a manufacturing center on the periphery of the city. It was a very reasonable place for the newcomers to settle, as they were eager to work in the manufacturing sector as unskilled laborers. An early analysis of gecekondu in Zeytinburnu portrays housing constructed on someone else's land, without her or his consent, with very poor living conditions and very limited urban

infrastructure, consisting of primitive roads, wells, and illegal electricity. There was neither a sewage system nor any public transportation. The environment was unhealthy and hardly urban. It could be better characterized as a transition zone from rural to urban, with animals and small farming activities together with manufacturing nearby.

The 1980s were the turning point for the concept of gecekondu. As gecekondu spread throughout İstanbul, and as new generations arrived, commercialization of gecekondu also started. As the growth of the urban real estate industry increased the rent of land dramatically, gecekondu also became the subject of these speculative increases. Furthermore, the populist policies of both central and local politicians contributed to a substantial increase in the dimensions of this commercialization. At the time, there were separate rural towns on the outskirts of İstanbul constructed illegally, different from the former examples of individual illegal housing constructions in formal neighborhoods. The dramatic population growth in some of these settlements between 1990 and 1994, when migration was at a peak (Yalçıntan and Erbaş, 2003).

Gecekondu neighborhoods in İstanbul today have a big potential in metropolitan settling region with less healthy, multi-storey and stable buildings (Turgut, 2003).

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1 Data Source and Survey Design

The data used in this study have been taken from the "Turkey Demographic and Health Survey 2003" (TDHS-2003) which was conducted by Hacettepe University Institute of Population Studies, in collaboration with the General Directorate of Mother and Child Health/Family Planning, Ministry of Health.

TDHS-2003 is a nationally representative survey in which the results are presented at the national level by urban and rural residence, and for each of five regions in the country. And it is the third survey conducted as a part of the worldwide Demographic and Health Surveys program. A weighted, multi-stage, stratified cluster sampling method had been used for sampling of TDHS-2003. Interviews were completed with 10,836 households and with 8,075 ever-married women age 15-49. The sample of the survey is self-weighted, that is; the probability of selection at each stratum is constant. Two questionnaires were applied; one to the household and other to the ever-married women. (HUIPS, 2004).

İstanbul had an important position in the TDHS-2003. The survey was a part of the international slum survey of UN-HABITAT. So that it had influenced nearly all section of the survey such as stratification, sample allocation, sample selection, and questionnaire development.

The statistical region classification used by member countries of European Union (EU) is "NUTS[6]". The 81 provinces were grouped into 12 regions of "NUTS 1". One of the NUTS 1 regions is İstanbul and it was given special attention in the sample design. In The TDHS-2003, the İstanbul metropolitan area was designated by UN-HABITAT as one of the mega-cities in their International Slum Survey series. HUIPS collaborated with UN-HABITAT and the İstanbul's total sample size was kept comparatively big to be able to produce estimates for slum and non-slum

[6] The Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics.

areas within İstanbul. In the survey, the term “slum” is used to refer to irregularly formed/developed housing areas, irrespective of whether they are subsequently regularized or not. Slum is known primarily house for lower middle income and poor households. For the sample design of TDHS-2003, 40 separate strata were created, two of them within İstanbul metropolis as slum and non-slum.

The target sample size of TDHS-2003 was 30 percent larger than that of the TDHS-1998. One of the main causes related with the designation of new strata is the special attention given to İstanbul because of the international slum survey. The target sample size of the TDHS-2003 was set at 13.160 households intotal and 2080 of them was in İstanbul. Within the five major regions, every urban segment was decided to select 25 households under the assumption of each cluster consisting of 100 households. Nevertheless, for the two urban segments in İstanbul (slum and non-slum), this selection was of 12 households under the assumption of each cluster consisting of 50 households.

Firstly for the sample selection, a systematic random sample of settlements with probability proportional to size was selected from the list of grouped settlements as 40 strata based on the 2000 General Population Census. At the end of this selection, a list of the settlements included in the TDHS-2003 sample along with the number of clusters to be drawn from each settlement was to obtain. This selection process for getting the two strata of İstanbul metropolitan area was performed by using a more detailed settlement list. Because there is a need to stratification of the city into slum and non-slum strata. Before the sample selection process, personnel of the Institute of Population Studies was communicated with the municipalities of İstanbul metropolitan area for the information about the quarter’s settlement form in order to determine whether they are regular or irregular. The received list of the quarters of İstanbul that were sorted as regular or irregular reclassified as slum and non-slum with an expert assistance. The reclassification was done for creating probabilistic stratification and taking care of selection probabilities. After this stage, quarters were selected systematically from these two strata (Türkyılmaz, Hancıoğlu, and Koç, 2004).

In the TDHS-2003, two type questionnaires were used. These are Household Questionnaire and the Individual Questionnaire (forever married women of reproductive age).

In the household questionnaire, list of the household members were taken to determine the "de jure" population of the survey and to identify the eligible women for the individual interview. Basic socio-economic information about each member of the household including some properties and facilities of the house were also obtained with this questionnaire (Tezcan, 2004). In the first part of the questionnaire, included questions on household members with the objective of collecting basic information such as age, sex, educational attainment, recent migration and residental mobility, employment, marital status, and relationship to the head of household of each person listed as a household member or visitor. The second section was used to collect information on the basic background characteristics of never married women age 15-49. The third part of the questionnaire was collected on the welfare of the elderly people. Moreover, the last section, the information on housing characteristics was collected on the number of rooms, the material of floor, the source of water, and type of toilet facilities, and on the household's ownership of a variety of consumer goods. In addition, the third section was included "İstanbul Metropolitan Household Module" (This module can be seen in Appendix A). This module covers question about house ownership, tenure, and the availability of piped-water, electricity, and natural gas in the households located in the urban places of İstanbul Metropolitan Area.

The individual questionnaire was applied to ever-married women under age 50 and covered detailed information on birth history, fertility regulation, fertility preferences and marital history as well as some background characteristics like age, birthplace, level of education, etc (Tezcan, 2004).

Out of these basic, two types of questionnaires, İstanbul Households Observation Questionnaire (This questionnaire can be seen in Appendix B). was designed for the UN-HABITAT's international slum survey in order to collect data

for defining the slum attributes. These questionnaires were applied to households in İstanbul metropolitan area to get basic information about building and settlement area with an independent fieldwork from TDHS-2003. The variables in the İstanbul Households Observation Questionnaire were following that:

-Type of building,

-Building order,

-Number of floor,

-Kind of building,

-Material of building,

-Material of roof,

-Garden and usage of garden;

-Observation for condition of building; outside plaster, crack on the outside plaster,

-Observation for surroundings of residence; stack of garbage, open waste water, untidy cables, closed buildings, adjacent order, frontal road, slope, stream bed/torrent bed, energy translating line, railway, highway, polluted industrial establishment, pollution of noise-traffic, explosive-combustible material depot,

-Accessibility to facilities and open-space area; primary school, secondary school, university, health centre, private clinic, hospital, park/children's playground,

-Taking away garbage and frequency of collection garbage.

A total of 168 clusters were selected for the İstanbul Households Observation and target sample size of the İstanbul province was 1920. Nevertheless, 1461 household interviews were completed within the target number of 1920. The data was entered on microcomputer using the SPSS software. In this study, descriptive analyses were used as method of analysis. In addition to the frequency tables, the bivariate percentage tables were used in this study. The table is based on cross-tabulation; that is, the cases are organized in the table based on two variables at the same time. Bivariate tables usually contain percentages. Additionally, in this study, chi-square was used as a measure of association in descriptive statistics to test the relations. It can be used for nominal or ordinal data and has an upper limit of infinity and a lower limit of zero, meaning no association (Neuman, 1997).

4.2. Variables Used for Slum Definition

The main objective of this study, describe the households in the İstanbul metropolitan area as "slum" or "non-slum" according to UN-HABITAT's slum definition. UN-HABITAT's slum definition is that:

"A group of individuals living under the same roof lacking one or more of security of tenure, structural quality/durability of dwellings, access to Improved water, access to sanitation facilities and sufficient living area".

The definitions of attributes were done in Chapter 4 "UN-HABITAT's Slum definition". First of all, it is necessary to look at individually all the attributes in order to describe the households in the İstanbul metropolitan area as "slum" or "non-slum" within TDHS-2003 data. All variables used in this study are taken from the household questionnaire and İstanbul household observation questionnaire. In addition, the 1460 (unweighted) - 1893 households (weighted) in İstanbul metropolitan area were analyzed with the slum definition's five attributes. The variables used to find attributes and the frequencies of them are at the below:

Access to Improved water:

In order to define this attribute, the variables used in the data are:

-The source of drinking water for members of household, and

-The source of daily use water for hand washing, dishwashing, and laundry in the house,

A household was accepted as not have "access to Improved water":

1-If the source of drinking water is public well or spring/public fountain or river/stream/pond/lake/dam, or

2-If the source of drinking water is bottled water/demi john/pet water or water sanitation and the source of daily use water for hand washing, dishwashing, and laundry is public well or spring/public fountain or river/stream/pond/lake/dam.

The percent distributions of households in Table 4.1 shows the slum definition's attribution of "access Improved water". In İstanbul metropolitan area, 6,3 percent of the households had not access to Improved water. And according to this figure, 12,2% of the households in slum area had not access Improved water facilities.

Table 4.1. Percent Distribution of Households According to Access to Improved Water Attribution of Slum Definition, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum		Slum		İstanbul Metropolitan Area	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Yes	920	100.0	854	87.8	1774	93.7
No	0	0.0	119	12.2	119	6.3
Total	920	100.0	973	100.0	1893	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square	Value:120.066 (b)		Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000			

Access to Improved sanitation:

The variables, which were used to accept a household as "access to Improved sanitation", are:

-Place of toilet,

-Type of toilet system.

A household was accepted as not having "access to Improved sanitation" if there is no facility/bush/field/public toilet or the toilet system is open pit.

The descriptive results of the TDHS-2003 reveals that, as seen in Table 4.2., almost all households (99,4%) in İstanbul metropolitan area had "access Improved sanitation" attribution. On the other hand, 1,1% of the slum households had not acess to Improved sanitation facilities.

Table 4.2. Percent Distribution of Households According to Access to Improved Sanitation Attribution of Slum Definition, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum		Slum		İstanbul Metropolitan Area	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Yes	920	100.0	962	98.9	1882	99.4
No	0	0.0	11	1.1	11	0.6
Total	920	100.0	973	100.0	1893	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square	Value:10.462 (b)		Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .001			

Sufficient living area:

The variables to define this attribute are:

-The de jure population (persons who usually live in selected households),

-The number of rooms used for sleeping.

A household is not accepted as having "sufficient living area", if the number of persons per room used for sleeping is three or above three person.

According to the descriptive results, as seen in Table 4.3 the percent of households had not "sufficient living area" in İstanbul metropolitan area was 7,1% and 13,8% in the slum area.

Table 4.3. Percent Distribution of Households According to Sufficent Living Area Attribution of Slum Definition, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum		Slum		İstanbul Metropolitan Area	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Yes	920	100.0	839	86.2	1774	92.9
No	0	0.0	134	13.8	119	7.1
Total	920	100.0	973	100.0	1893	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square	Value:136.353 (b)		Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000			

Structural quality/durability of dwellings:

The attribute "structural quality/durability of dwellings" is defined by using these variables:

-Main material of floor,

-Main material of roof,

-Building formation (closed building),

-Frontal road,

-Slope of building place (more than %25),

-Stream/torrent bed,

-Energy translating line,

-Railway (near 50mt),

-Highway (near 50mt),

-Polluted industrial plant,

-Explosive/combustible material depot (near 50 mt),

In this study, a household accepted as "non-durable" if:

1-The house's main material of floor is earth or wood planks and the main roof material is earth or metal sheet or concrete.

2-The house's building patterns making it easier to pass from one house to the other one or the house's frontal road's width narrow than 5 meter,

3-The house's building place's slope is %25 and more or it is in the stream/torrent bed or it is below the energy translating line or there is a railway close than 50 meter or there is a highway close than 50mt or there is a polluted industrial establishment around the building or there is an explosive/combustible material depot close than 50 meter.

The percent distributions of households in Table 4.4 show the definition's "durability" attribution. In İstanbul metropolitan area, 31 percent of the households had not "durability". According to this figure, 60,2% of the households in slum had not durability.

Table 4.4. Percent Distribution of Households According to Durability Attribution of Slum Definition, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum		Slum		İstanbul Metropolitan Area	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Yes	920	100.0	387	39.8	1307	69.0
No	0	0.0	586	60.2	586	31.0
Total	920	100.0	973	100.0	1893	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square	Value:802.505 (b)		Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000			

Security of Tenure:

In order to define secure tenure attribute these variables are used:

-Allotment document for title deed,

-Probability of eviction from dwelling without due legal process.

The household has not "security of tenure" if:

1-The house has not allotment document for title deeds or

2-Eviction from the dwelling without due legal process is possible by house owner and government/municipality and other.

The percent distributions of households in Table 4.5 show the "security of tenure" attribution. 23.1 percent of the households had not "security of tenure" attribution in İstanbul metropolitan area and 44.9 percent of the households in slum.

Table 4.5. Percent Distribution of Households According to Security of Tenure Attribution of Slum Definition, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum		Slum		İstanbul Metropolitan Area	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Yes	920	100.0	536	55.1	1456	76.9
No	0	0.0	437	44.9	437	23.1
Total	920	100.0	973	100.0	1893	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square	Value:537.212 (b)		Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000			

In the İstanbul metropolitan area, there are a total number of 1893 households according to TDHS-2003. Each of the five indicators in the definition has been applied to all of the households and the ones having at least one of the characteristics of the indicators in the definition has been defined as slum, whereas the others has been defined as non-slum. After that the table frequency has been drawn. According to the frequency tables were inferred that 973 households (51.4%) were slum and 920 households (48.6%) were non-slum. The number of household members was 3894 in slum, and 3196 in non-slum (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6. Percent Distribution of Households According to Slum Definition of UN-HABITAT, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum		Slum		İstanbul Metropolitan Area	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Household	920	48.6	973	51.4	1893	100.0
Household Member	3196	45.1	3894	54.9	7090	100.0

If the five criteria of the UN-HABITAT's definition is analysed for the İstanbul metropolitan area, it is seen that Improved sanitation is the less important attribution in determining slum (according to this indicator only 0.6% of the

households are slum). Attributions of criteria of Improved water and sufficient living area are more determining than the criterion of sanitation (respectively 6.3% and 7.1%); however the most determining criteria are durability and secure tenure indicators (31% and 23.1% respectively).

It can be found different sources to find out the data on Improved water sanitation and sufficient living area in almost every country. However, the sources defining durability and secure tenure indicators are generally different from each other and may contain multiple variables. This is why the definition and analysis of these indicators are really important. It can be claimed that the questions in İstanbul Metropolitan Household Module and İstanbul Households Observation Questionnaire do not leave any gap and are sufficient to form indicators of durability and secure tenure in the İstanbul metropolitan area.

5. CONCEPT OF "SLUM" ACCORDING TO UN-HABITAT

5.1. UN-HABITAT and Millennium Development Goals

The United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT), is the United Nations agency for human settlements. It is mandated by the UN General Assembly to promote socially and environmentally sustainable towns and cities with the goal of providing adequate shelter for all. Since it is establishment in 1978, UN-HABITAT has continued to highlight the important role and contribution of cities in fostering economic and human development (UN-HABITAT, 2002b).

In the 90s, various UN global conferences set up a number of important global development goals and targets. The list of these goals and targets became known as the "International Development Targets" (IDTs). In September 2000, 147 Heads of State and Governments - and 191 nations intotal - adopted the Millennium Declaration. The Declaration outlines peace, security and development concerns, including environment, human rights and governance. The Declaration mainstreams a set of inter-connected and mutually reinforcing development goals into a global agenda. The International Development Targets (IDT) and the Development Goals contained in the Millennium Declaration are similar but also, in some respect, are different. Recently, the sets have been merged under the designation of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The MDGs, which incorporate the IDTs, synthesize the goals and targets for monitoring human development (UN-HABITAT, 2002b).

In order to assist, Member States realize the eight goals of the Millennium Declaration, the United Nations System has set numerical targets for each goal (Box 5.1). Furthermore, it has selected appropriate indicators to monitor progress on the goals and attain corresponding targets. A list of 18 targets and more than 40 indicators corresponding to these goals ensure a common assessment and appreciation of the status of MDGs at global, national and local levels (UN-HABITAT, 2003c).

The “Cities without Slums” is one of the three Targets of Goal 7, “Ensure Environmental Sustainability”. Target 11 aims:

> *“By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of 100 million slum dwellers”* (UN-HABITAT, 2002c).

The Expert Group Meeting, assembled 35 international professionals as weel as staff members of the Urban Secretariat and the Global Division of UN-HABITAT, held from 28-30 October 2002 in Nairobi to contribute to the development of indicators for the “Cities without Slums” or “Target 11”. Firstly, participants formulate an operational definition for security of tenure and for slums. And then they produced a series of sub-indicators to measure security of tenure and slums as defined, and establish composite indices and “meta-indicators”.

The EGM after this process accepted 5 indicators to calculate “improvement in the lives of 100 million slum dwellers by the year 2020”:

-Proportion of urban population with sustainable access to an Improved water source

-Proportion of urban population with access to Improved sanitation

-Proportion of urban population with access to secure tenure

-Proportion of urban population with durable housing units

-Proportion of urban population with adequate living area (UN-HABITAT, 2002b).

Box 5.1. Millennium Development Goals and Targets

Scope of Millennium Development Goals and Targets

Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- Target 1. Reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day
- Target 2. Reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger

Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education
- Target 3. Ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling

Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women
- Target 4. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015

Goal 4. Reduce child mortality
- Target 5. Reduce by two thirds the mortality rate among children under five

Goal 5. Improve maternal health
- Target 6. Reduce by three quarters the maternal mortality ratio

Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- Target 7. Halt and beginto reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS
- Target 8. Halt and beginto reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

Goal 7. Ensure environmental sustainability
- Target 9. Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes; reverse loss of environmental resources
- Target 10. Reduce by half the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water
- Target 11. Achieve significant improvement in lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers, by 2020

Goal 8. Develop a global partnership for development
- Target 12. Develop further an open trading and financial system that is rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory. Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction - nationally and internationally
- Target 13. Address the least developed countries' special needs. This includes tariff- and quota-free access for their exports; enhanced debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries; cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous official development assistance for countries committed to poverty reduction
- Target 14. Address the special needs of landlocked and small island developing States
- Target 15. Deal comprehensively with developing countries' debt problems through national and international measures to make debt sustainable in the long term
- Target 16. In cooperation with the developing countries, develop decent and productive work for youth
- Target 17. In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries
- Target 18. In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies - especially information and communications technologies.

Source: UN, 2005.

5.2. UN-HABITAT's "Slum" Definition and A General Overview of Slum Fact According to UN-HABITAT's Definition

A first step to be able to quantify and locate the slum population is to develop an operational definition of the term "slum". Experts at a UN-HABITAT meeting held in 2002 agreed on the following definition: "A slum is a contiguous settlement where the inhabitants are characterized as having inadequate housing and basic services. A slum is often not recognized and addressed by the public authorities as an integral part of the city". That is one of the reasons why little data on slum dwellers can be found. UN-HABITAT therefore developed a household level definition in order to be able to use existing household level surveys and censuses to identify slum dwellers among the urban population (Turkstra and Raithelhuber, 2004). A slum household is defined as:

"**A group individuals living under the same roof lacking *one or more* of the following attributes:**

-Security of tenure.

-Structural quality/durability of dwellings.

-Access to Improved water.

-Access to sanitation facilities.

-Sufficient-living area "(UN-HABITAT, 2003c)

This operational definition reflects conditions that characterize slums in the world. Through this definition, the concept of slum dweller has been explicitly reduced excepting their social and economic conditions such as standards of living among different groups of informal settlers, cultural aspects, employment, income and other individual and household characteristics. Based on the definition it was possible to set up operational measurement of slums, using data that is routinely collected by national and sub-national levels in most countries through censuses and surveys (UN-HABITAT, 2003a).

The five basic indicators stated above, lack the precision of definition necessary to classify a household as slum or non-slum. The precise definitions

presented below are the result of comparing UN-HABITAT, UNICEF, and WHO standards that are widely accepted. UN-HABITAT has modified some of the classifiers in consultation with its partners represented in the Expert Group Meeting so that the definitions depict conditions that are deemed satisfactory in the urban environment. Definitions of the attributes are as follows parts.

5.2.1. Access to Improved Water

A household is considered to have access to Improved drinking water if it has sufficient amount of water (20 liters/person/day) for family use, at an affordable price (less than 10% of the total household income), available to household members without being subject to extreme effort (less than one hour a day for the minimum sufficient quantity), especially to women and children.

-Piped connection to house or plot
-Public standpipe serving no more than 5 households
-Bore hole
-Protected dug well
-Protected spring
-Rain water collection

One of the great necessities of human life is water, which is taken for granted in the developed world. Urbanization can dramatically increase per capita use of freshwater. Fast population growth with accelerated urbanization, combined with scarce water supplies and poor sanitation, means that governments often cannot supply enough water to meet demand (WHO & UNICEF, 2001). A supply of clean water is necessary for life and health, yet almost 2 billion people lack access to adequate water supply or can only obtain it at high prices. In many cities, households in informal settlements are rarely connected to the network and can only rely on water from vendors at up to 200 times the tap price. Improving access to Improved water implies less burden on people, mostly women, to collect water from available sources. It also means reducing the global burden of water related diseases and the improvement in the quality of life. This indicator monitors access to Improved water

sources based on the assumption that Improved sources are likely to provide Improved water. Unsafe water is the direct cause of many diseases in developing countries (UN-HABITAT, 2003c).

Various surveys show that in many cities, the quantity, quality and affordability of water in low-income urban settlements falls short of acceptable standards. Improved water provision in the world's urban areas was reported to be as high as 95 percent in 2002. This statistics, however, presents an overly optimistic picture since "Improved" provision of water does not always mean that the provision is safe, sufficient, affordable, or easily accessible. For example, further analysis reveals that getting water from a tap is a luxury enjoyed by only two-third of the world's urban population; less than half of this group (46 percent) have piped water within their dwelling; 10 percent rely on public taps, while 8 percent have access only to manually pumped water or protected wells.

Inter regional differences indicate that Africa has the lowest proportion (38.3 percent) of urban households with access to piped water, while the Latin America and Caribbean region has the highest (89.3 percent).

Poor access to water in urban areas has a direct bearing on rates of water borne or water related disease in urban areas.

5.2.2. Access to Improved Sanitation

A household is considered to have access to Improved sanitation, if an excreta disposal system, either in the form of a private toilet or a public toilet shared with a reasonable number of people, is available to household members.

-Direct connection to public sewer

-Direct connection to septic tank

-Pour flush latrine

-Ventilated Improved pit latrine.

Lack of sanitation is a major public health problem that causes disease, sickness and death. Highly infectious, excreta-related diseases such as cholera still affect whole communities in developing countries. Diarrhea, which is spread easily in an environment of poor hygiene and inadequate sanitation, kills about 2.2 million people each year, most of them children under five. Inadequate sanitation, through its impact on health and environment, has considerable implications for economic development. People miss days at work due to sickness resulting from excreta-related diseases. Moreover, lack of excreta management poses a fundamental threat to global water resources. Good sanitation is important for urban and rural populations, but the risks are greater in slum areas where it is more difficult to avoid contact with waste (UN-HABITAT, 2002a).

Over the 25 percent of the developing world's urban population, 560 million city residents, lack adequate sanitation. Asia alone accounts for over 70 percent of this group, mainly because of the large populations of China and India; in 2000, lack of sanitation coverage in Chinese cities was reported to be approximately 33 percent. Cities in South Africa and Eastern Asia, where 45 percent and 31 percent of the urban population still lacks access to Improved sanitation. However, some countries in Southern Asia have extremely low coverage, notably Afghanistan, where only 16 percent of the urban population has access to a proper toilet. Lack of access to an adequate toilet not only violates the dignity of the urban poor, but also affects their health.

5.2.3. Sufficient Living Area

A dwelling unit is considered to provide a sufficient living area for the household members if there are fewer than three people per habitable room. Additional indicators of overcrowding have been proposed: area level indicators such as average in-house living area per person or the number of households per area; housing-unit level indicators such as the number of persons per bed or the number of children under five per room may also be viable. However, the number of

persons per room has been shown to correlate with adverse health risks and is more commonly collected through household surveys (UN-HABITAT,1998).

-Fewer than 3 persons per room (minimum of four square meter)

This is a key indicator measuring the adequacy of the basic human need for shelter. Reduced space per person is often associated with certain categories of health risks and therefore considered as a key criteria to define the slum. Overcrowding is associated with a low number of square meters per person, high occupancy rates - number of persons sharing one room - and a high number of single room units. Examples of slums worldwide show that dwelling units are often overcrowded with five and more persons sharing a one room unit used for cooking, sleeping, and other households activities. Several local definitions of slums include minimum thresholds concerning the size of the area, the number of structures in a settlement cluster, the number of households or people or the density of dwellings units in an area. Examples are the municipal slum definition of Kolkata with a minimum of 700 sq. m. occupied by huts, Bangkok with a minimum of 15 dwelling units per rai (1600 sq. m.) or the Indian Census definition with at least 300 people or 60 households living in a settlement cluster. This key indicator is part of the five key components of the agreed definition of slum (UN-HABITAT, 2002a).

In 2003, approximately 20 percent of the developing world's urban population, 401 million people, lived in houses that lacked sufficient living area (with three or more people sharing a bedroom). Two-thirds of the developing world's urban population living in overcrowded conditions resides in Asia, half of this group, 156 million people, reside in Southern Asia.

Living conditions, including overcrowding and poor ventilation, are related to rates of illness, child mortality and increase in negative social behaviors. It stresses that the risk of disease transmission and multiple infections becomes substantially higher as the number of people crowded into small, poorly ventilated spaces increases.

5.2.4. Structural Quality/Durability of Dwellings

A house is considered as “durable” if it is built on a non-hazardous location and has a structure permanent and adequate enough to protect its inhabitants from the extremes of climatic conditions such as rain, heat, cold, humidity

-Permanency of structure

-Permanent building material for the walls, roof and floor

-Compliance of building codes

-The dwelling is not in a dilapidated state

-The dwelling is not in need of major repair

-Location of house (hazardous)

-The dwelling is not located on or near toxic waste

-The dwelling is not located in a flood plain

-The dwelling is not located on a steep slope

-The dwelling is not located in a dangerous right of way (rail, highway, airport, power lines).

Durability of building materials is, to a very large extent, subject to local conditions as well as to local construction and maintenance traditions and skills. Which materials are considered durable under local conditions has to be determined by local experts. This is also true for the common problem that dwellings in the semi-urban outskirts of cities of developing countries often follow rural construction patterns by using materials that can be considered non-durable under urban conditions. In addition, compliance with local regulations and the quality of the location form part of the definition. These two indicators cannot be easily observed as they require specific knowledge about the legal condition and the land-use plan, as well as skills to determine hazardous areas (UN-HABITAT,2003b).

Households that live in slums usually occupy non-durable dwelling units that expose them to high morbidity and then mortality risks. Durable structures are part of the five key components of the agreed definition of slum (UN-HABITAT, 2002a). Generally, a housing structure is considered durable when certain strong building

materials are used for roof, walls and floor. Even though some houses may be built with materials classified as durable, the dwellers may still not enjoy adequate protection against weather and climate due to the overall state of a dwelling. Alternatively, a material may not look durable, in the modern sense, but is, in the traditional sense, when combined with skills of repair. Such cases are vernacular housing made of natural materials in villages, maintained by its residents annually (UN-HABITAT, 2003c).

Data on houses built on hazardous locations is difficult to collect and is not available for most countries. Therefore, results for this indicator is mostly based on the permanency of structures, looking at the quality of materials used for dwellings (UN-HABITAT, 2004c). Durability of building materials is largely subject to local conditions as well as to local construction and maintenance traditions and skills. Which materials are considered durable under local conditions has to be determined by local experts. This is also true for the common problem that dwellings in the semi-urban outskirts of cities of developing countries often follow rural construction patterns by using materials, which can be considered non-durable under urban conditions. In addition, compliance with local regulations and the quality of the location form part of the definition. These two indicators cannot be easily observed as they require specific knowledge about the legal condition and the land use plan as well as skills to determine hazardous areas (UN-HABITAT, 2003c).

It is estimated that 133 million people living in cities of the developing world lack durable housing. Non-durable or non-permanent housing is more prevalent in some regions than in others. Over half the urban population living in non-permanent houses resides in Asia, while Northern Africa has the least numbers of people living in this kind of housing. However, UN-HABITAT analysis shows that global figures on housing durability are highly underestimated due to fact that durability is based primarily or compliance with building codes. Moreover, estimates are made taking into account only the nature of the floor material, since information on roof and wall materials is collected in very few countries. For instance, figures indicate that over 90 percent of the world's urban dwellings have permanent floors, but when

estimates are made combining floor, roof and wall materials, this figure drops dramatically in several countries. In Bolivia, for instance, when only floor material is considered, 83.8 percent of the urban population is counted as having durable housing, but when wall and roof materials are taken into account; this figure drops to 27.7 percent. Statistical analyses show that when more physical structure variables are combined, the results provide a more realistic image of housing durability.

5.2.5. Security of Tenure

Secure Tenure is the right of all individuals and groups to effective protection by the State against arbitrary unlawful evictions (Secure tenure can be made evident through formal or informal mechanisms in codified law and in customary law. In its most formal presentation, secure tenure is based on a land registration system where title deeds or lease agreements are registered with the authorities. Less formal security of tenure is more commonly found. It is recognized that informal customary secure tenure practice may also offer effective protection against arbitrary eviction).

-Evidence of documentation that can be used as proof of secure tenure status

-Either de facto or perceived/protection from forced evictions (UN-HABITAT, 2003a).

Applications of these definitions to specific data surveys, such as the data from the DHSs, were considered on a country-by-country basis. The application of the definition depends upon the type of questions and categories of response that are available from the household survey data.

The EGM slum definition counts a household as a slum household if there are one or more of the five attributes. The methodology ensured that households were not counted more than once.

Secure Tenure is “the right of all individuals and groups to effective protection by the State against unlawful evictions”(UN-HABITAT, 2002a). Secure

tenure can be considered as the first component of the progressive realization of the right to housing. The granting of secure tenure will not, in and of itself, solve the problem of homelessness, poverty, unsafe living environments and inadequate housing. However, secure tenure is one of the most essential elements of a successful shelter strategy (UN-HABITAT, 2002b). A high risk of eviction in many circumstances constitutes an indicator of poor tenure security. Eviction should be enshrined in the law. In addition, the law shall be enforced. The incidence of evictions can only be verified by checking the number of unlawful evictions.

A global survey in 60 countries found that 6.7 million people had been evicted from their homes between 2000 and 2002, compared with 4.2 million in the previous two years. At present, it is neither possible to obtain household level data on secure tenure in most countries, nor to produce global comparative data on various institutional aspects of secure tenure, as data on secure tenure is not regularly collected by censuses or household surveys. However, non-empirical information suggests that between 30 percent and 50 percent of urban residents in the developing world lack security of tenure. Although home ownership is regarded as the most secure form of tenure, evidence from around the world also suggest that ownership is not the norm in both the developed and developing world, and is not the only means to achieve tenure security. In fact, informal or illegal growth has become the most common form of housing production in the developing world, where gaining access to housing through legal channels is the exception rather than the rule for the majority of urban poor households.

The vast majority of slums, more than 90 percent, are located in cities of the developing world, where urbanization has become virtually synonymous with slum formation. This is especially so in sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia and Western Asia, where urban growth over the last 15 years has been accompanied by a commensurate growth in slums.

In 1990, there were nearly 715 million slum dwellers in the world. By 2000, when world leaders set the target of improving the lives of at least 100 million slum

dwellers by 2020, the slum population had increased to 912 million (Table 5.1). Today, there are approximately 998 million slum dwellers in the world. UN-HABITAT estimates that, if current trends continue, the slum population will reach 1.4 billion by 2020 (UN-HABITAT, 2006).

Table 5.1. Population of Slums Areas at Mid-Year, By Region; 1990, 2001, 2005 and Annual Slum Growth Rate

	% slum 1990	Slum population (thousand) 1990	% slum 2001	Slum population (thousand) 2001	% slum 2005	Slum population (thousand) 2005	Slum annual growth rate (%)
WORLD	31.3	714,972	31.2	912,918	31.2	997,767	2.22
Developed Regions	6.0	41,750	6.0	45,191	6.0	46,511	0.72
EURASIA, CIS	10.3	18,929	10.3	18,714	10.3	18,637	-0.10
Europe	6.0	9,208	6.0	9,878	6.0	8,761	-0.33
Asia	30.3	9,721	29.4	9,836	29.0	9,879	0.11
Developing Regions	46.5	654,294	42.7	849,013	41.1	933,376	2.37
Northern Africa	37.7	21,719	28.2	21,355	25.4	21,224	-0.15
Sub-Saharan Africa	72.3	100,973	71.9	166,208	71.8	199,231	4.53
Latin America and the Caribbean	35.4	110,837	31.9	127,566	30.8	134,257	1.28
Eastern Asia	41.1	150,761	36.4	193,824	34.8	212,368	2.28
Eastern Asia excluding China	25.3	12,831	25.4	15,568	25.4	16,702	1.76
Southern Asia	63.7	198,663	59.0	253,122	57.4	276,432	2.20
South-Eastern Asia	36.8	48,986	28.0	56,781	25.3	59,913	1.34
Western Asia	26.4	22,006	25.7	29,658	25.5	33,057	2.71
Oceania	24.5	350	24.1	499	24.0	568	3.24

Source: UN-HABITAT, 2005b

The *State of the World's Cities Report 2006/7* provide an overview of the state of the world's slum concerning the UN-HABITAT's five indicators. The following provides a summary of the main findings.

5.3. The Necessity For An International Slum Survey

One of the most serious challenges that human settlements face today especially in the large cities of developing countries is the spread of urban slums and squatter areas. Before a viable solution can be found, there is a need to analyze the present situation to examine government responses to the problem, identify major

trends in the policies of dealing with these settlements, and to pin point the main issues that have to be considered (UN-HABITAT, 2004a).

The typically poor quality and insufficient quantity of the existing data on housing, urbanization and related variables in developing countries, sets limits to the depth of the analysis and the comparability of the information available from different countries. This is particularly true with a subject like slums and squatter settlements. Frequently the available data are either incomplete, and/or in rudimentary or preliminary form. Further, the reliability of the data, which are available, is open to question. Differences in the ways in which various countries collect and aggregate their housing and urban data also impede efforts to discuss housing and urban development policies systematically and on a comparative basis. Lastly, specific information about slum and squatter settlements is often hard to obtain or is not available at all, since governments have only recently began the separate collection of data about the characteristics of these areas (UN-HABITAT, 2004a).

6. FINDINGS

6.1 Households Members and Housing Characteristics

This chapter's objective is to provide demographic and socioeconomic profile of the slum and non-slum in İstanbul metropolitan area with TDHS-2003 data. The general characteristics of households in sample are examined and the information is presented on the age, sex and education of the household population, as well as housing facilities and household possessions. The profile of slum and non-slum of the İstanbul metropolitan area provided in this chapter will help in understanding the differences between them and the results will be presented in the following parts of chapter.

In the TDHS-2003 sampling probabilities were based on the de facto population information so that tabulation for the slum and non-slum household data presented in this chapter are based on the de facto definition, unless otherwise stated. And in this study, the number of observations given in all tables is obtained from weighted data.

The percent distribution of the de facto population by age, according to slum, non-slum and İstanbul Metropolitan area and sex is presented in the Table 6.1. The total de facto population in the selected households was 7,090 in the İstanbul Metropolitan area, 3894 (54.9%) of this population is in the slum area and 3196 (45.1%) in the non-slum area. In general, the result of this figure shows that the proportion of both sex's age distribution between 0-35 age is higher in slum. The difference between the proportions of the children under age 5 in slum and non-slum stands out. And also the proportions of age group under 20 in slum are slightly higher than those in non-slum. This figure shows that slum areas has a young population according to non-slum areas.

Table 6.1. Household Population by Age, Sex in Non-Slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Area's, 2003

	Non-Slum			Slum			İstanbul Metropolitan Area		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
0-4	7.2	6.2	6.7	10.6	9.8	10.2	9.1	8.1	8.6
5-9	7.9	8.7	8.4	8.8	10.1	9.5	8.4	9.5	9.0
10-14	8.3	8.1	8.2	8.7	10.5	9.6	8.5	9.4	9.0
15-19	9.6	7.5	8.5	10.6	8.7	9.7	10.1	8.2	9.2
20-24	9.4	10.1	9.8	9.6	11.1	10.3	9.5	10.6	10.1
25-29	9.3	10.4	9.9	10.7	10.4	10.6	10.1	10.4	10.2
30-34	9.1	7.9	8.5	9.5	8.5	9.0	9.3	8.2	8.8
35-39	8.5	8.1	8.3	7.8	6.5	7.2	8.1	7.3	7.7
40-44	7.7	7.3	7.5	6.1	5.6	5.9	6.8	6.4	6.6
45-49	5.6	5.7	5.7	4.5	5.3	4.9	5.0	5.5	5.3
50-54	4.7	5.8	5.3	4.1	3.4	3.7	4.4	4.5	4.4
55-59	4.2	4.0	4.1	2.8	2.8	2.8	3.4	3.4	3.4
60-64	2.2	3.0	2.6	1.6	2.2	1.9	1.9	2.6	2.2
65-69	2.4	2.3	2.3	1.4	2.2	1.8	1.8	2.2	2.0
70-74	1.7	2.0	1.8	1.7	0.9	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.6
75-79	1.5	1.4	1.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1
80+	0.6	1.3	1.0	0.6	1.0	0.8	0.6	1.2	0.9
DK	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	1560	1636	3196	1962	1932	3894	3522	3568	7090

The slum, non-slum and İstanbul metropolitan area's population pyramids are constructed with the information on sex and age distributions. The slum areas's population pyramid's base is wider than the non-slum areas's base indicating that the population under 35 years of age has a large concentration on the slum areas's population pyramid. The proportion under age 5 is greater in the slum areas's population than in the non-slum areas's population. The differences in the slum, non-slum age distribution can be explain with the lower recent fertiliy in non-slum areas compared with slum areas.

Figure 6.1. Population Pyramid of Non-Slum Area in İstanbul, 2003

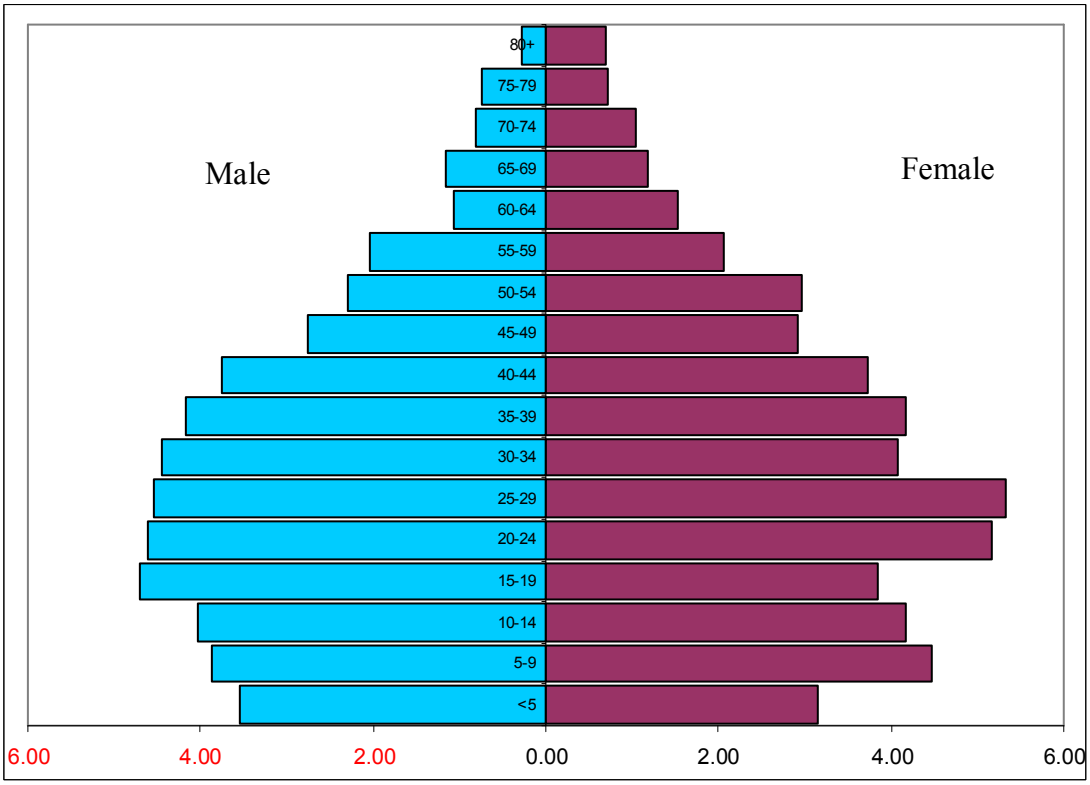


Figure 6.2. Population Pyramid of Slum Area in İstanbul, 2003

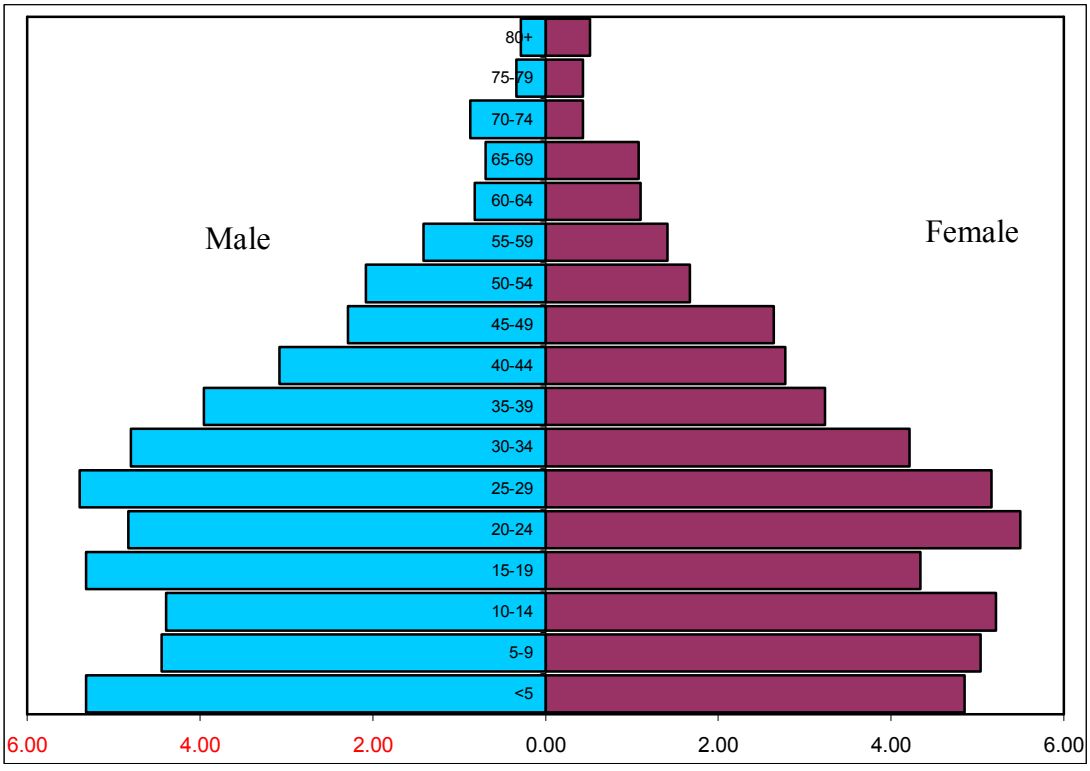
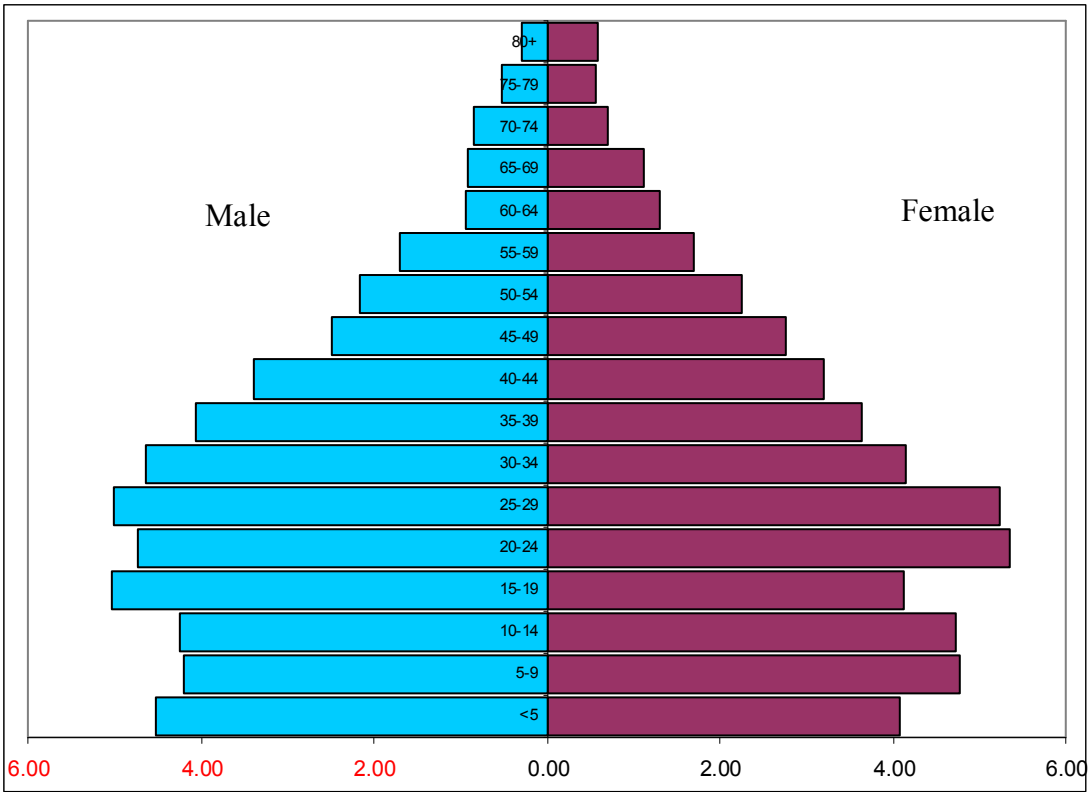


Figure 6.3. Population Pyramid: İstanbul Metropolitan Area, 2003



The sex of the household head and the number of household members are important characteristics because they are often linked with socioeconomic differences between households. For instance, if the head of household is female, this household is poorer than the male-headed households are.

According to UN-HABITAT source, for women (more than for men), housing-beyond basic shelter-also often functions as an important place of employment, social interaction, and a place to care for children. It may offer respite from social instability and violence. Discriminatory social and economic practices within and outside the household may result in women being excluded from many aspects of housing, including policy development, control over housing resources, rights of inheritance and ownership, community organizing or the construction of housing. This exclusion can threaten women's security of tenure by preventing women from owning, inheriting, leasing, renting or remaining in housing and land (Mboup, 2004).

Household size is connected with crowding in the dwelling. Crowding can cause to disapproving health conditions. In addition, the allocation of financial and other resources among household members is influenced by the size and composition of the household. In the Table 6.1.2. is presented the distribution of the İstanbul metropolitan areas with slum and non-slum differentiation samples by the sex of the household head and the number of household members. In this table households members are usual residents (de jure members).

The proportion of female headed households are more common in non-slum (14.7) than in slum (10.2) in the İstanbul metropolitan area. The households in slum are larger than those in non-slum. For example, approximately four percent of non-slum households have seven and more members, compared with nine percent of slum households. And also the non-slum households's percentage is more than 49 which having three and less members, while the slum household's percentage is 37. The average household size is 4.2 in slum, 3.6 in non-slum and 3.9 in İstanbul metropolitan area (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2. Household Composition in Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

	Non-Slum (%)	Slum (%)	İstanbul (%)
Sex of head of Household			
Male	85.3	89.8	87.6
Female	14.7	10.2	12.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	920	973	1893
Pearson Chi-Square Value: 8.836(b) Asymp. Sig. (2-sided): .003			
Number of usual members			
1	7.8	4.9	6.3
2	16.9	13.2	15.0
3	24.6	18.8	21.6
4	24.8	26.4	25.6
5	14.8	19.2	17.1
6	7.1	8.5	7.8
7	2.2	4.2	3.2
8	1.2	1.4	1.3
9+	0.7	3.2	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	919	972	1891
Mean size	3.6	4.2	3.9
Pearson Chi-Square Value: 46.905(a) Asymp. Sig. (2-sided): .000			

The descriptive analysis about the number of the usual members by slum and non-slum in İstanbul metropolitan area, the results of chi-square[7] tests show that, the p-value is significant ($p<0.01$). That is, there is a significant relationship between number of usual members in households and being slum or non-slum. According to this result, it is possible to infer that being in slum or non-slum has a significant effect on the number of usual members in a household. That is to say, number of usual members in a household is large in slum than those in non-slum.

One of the most important characteristics of the household is the educational level of household members. Because it is associated with many occurrences such as reproductive behavior, use of contraception, and the health of children. Primary education in Turkey starts at age 6 and continues for 8 years. Eight years of education stands for basic education and has been compulsory since 1997.

Overall, the tables at the below show that the educational attainment of males is higher than females. The educational attainment about 82 percent of males in the İstanbul metropolitan households have completed at first level primary school, compared with 69 percent of females. In addition, the same figure is 85 percent of males and 74 percent of females in the non-slum households; while it is 80 percent of males and 65 percent of females in the slum households. The educational attainments of household population tables' results confirm that there is a significant gap between males and females in slum and non-slum. In addition, the difference between male and female's educational attainment in slum is higher than the difference in non-slum.

When the changes in educational indicators over successive cohorts are examined, a substantial increase in the educational attainment of men and women is drawn attention. The differentials in educational attainment between males and females have narrowed among younger cohorts. However, the gap in the differentials in educational attainment between slum and non-slum households is

[7] Chi-square is more likely to establish significance to the extent that the relationship is strong, the sample size is large, and/or the number of values of the two associated variables is large. A chi-square probability of 0.05 or less is commonly interpreted by social scientists as justification for rejecting the null hypothesis that the row variable is unrelated to the column variable.

comparatively marked. The residents of non-slum households are more likely to have attended school and to have remained in school for a longer period than slum households residents. In addition, gender differences in education attainment are less evident in non-slum than in slum.

slum, it will be useful to apply chi-square tests to the descriptive analyses of the educational attainment by slum and non-to be able to make inferences about the relationship between educational attainment and being in slum or non-slum. The result of the chi-square test for educational attainment of household population for male by slum/non-slum shows that the p-values ($p<0.01$) are significant (Asymp. Sig. value: .000). In other words, educational attainment was effective on whether a household was slum or not. Households, which are in slum, tended to have less educational attainment.

Table 6.3. Educational Attainment of Household Population: Males in İstanbul Metropolitan Area, Slum and Non-Slum, 2003

Age	No education/ primary incomplete	First level primary	Second level primary	High School and higher	Missing	Total
6-9	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
10-14	31.4	15.7	52.7	0.0	0.3	100.0
15-19	6.2	14.5	73.8	5.6	0.0	100.0
20-24	3.3	26.3	40.6	29.9	0.0	100.0
25-29	2.3	31.0	49.0	17.5	0.3	100.0
30-34	4.0	40.2	40.2	15.5	0.3	100.0
35-39	4.2	39.4	36.9	19.2	0.3	100.0
40-44	6.3	47.1	33.8	11.7	1.3	100.0
45-49	6.2	41.9	33.4	18.1	0.6	100.0
50-54	11.6	47.2	25.2	14.9	1.3	100.0
55-59	19.2	51.8	20.0	7.5	1.7	100.0
60-64	24.2	37.8	25.7	9.1	3.0	100.0
65+	36.8	28.6	20.3	9.9	4.4	100.0
Total %	17.6	30.0	39.0	12.8	0.6	100.0
Total N	554	943	1227	404	15	3143
Non-Slum						
6-9	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
10-14	25.6	17.8	56.6	0.0	0.0	100.0
15-19	2.6	7.3	80.8	9.3	0.0	100.0
20-24	2.0	21.1	42.9	34.0	0.0	100.0
25-29	0.7	24.0	54.1	21.2	0.0	100.0
30-34	5.6	32.9	33.6	28.0	0.0	100.0
35-39	3.0	34.8	31.8	30.3	0.0	100.0
40-44	5.0	37.5	40.0	17.5	0.0	100.0
45-49	3.4	38.6	31.8	26.1	0.0	100.0
50-54	4.1	50.0	24.3	21.6	0.0	100.0
55-59	16.9	46.2	26.2	9.2	1.5	100.0
60-64	14.7	29.4	35.3	14.7	5.9	100.0
65+	32.3	27.1	22.9	14.6	3.1	100.0
Total %	15.0	26.3	40.1	18.2	0.5	100.0
Total N	214	375	572	260	7	1428
Slum						
6-9	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
10-14	35.7	14.0	49.7	0.0	0.0	100.0
15-19	8.7	19.8	68.6	2.9	0.0	100.0
20-24	4.3	30.9	38.3	26.6	0.0	100.0
25-29	3.3	35.7	45.2	14.8	1.0	100.0
30-34	2.7	45.5	45.5	6.4	0.0	100.0
35-39	5.2	43.5	40.9	9.7	0.6	100.0
40-44	7.5	56.7	28.3	5.0	2.5	100.0
45-49	9.0	46.1	34.8	10.1	0.0	100.0
50-54	18.5	45.7	25.9	8.6	1.2	100.0
55-59	23.6	58.2	10.9	5.5	1.8	100.0
60-64	33.3	45.5	15.2	6.1	0.0	100.0
65+	42.4	30.6	17.6	4.7	4.7	100.0
Total %	19.8	33.1	38.0	8.4	0.7	100.0
Total N	341	571	654	145	8	1719

Table 6.4 Educational Attainment of Household Population: Females in İstanbul Metropolitan Area, Slum and Non-Slum, 2003

Age	No education/ primary incomplete	First level primary	Second level primary	High School and higher	Missing	Total
6-9	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
10-14	38.4	18.8	42.6	0.0	0.3	100.0
15-19	10.3	25.3	57.9	6.2	0.3	100.0
20-24	5.5	40.1	30.4	23.8	0.3	100.0
25-29	9.7	42.3	28.0	20.2	0.0	100.0
30-34	10.2	48.6	30.6	10.5	0.0	100.0
35-39	16.6	52.4	20.4	10.8	0.0	100.0
40-44	23.3	47.5	20.7	8.4	0.0	100.0
45-49	24.5	47.5	18.4	9.7	0.0	100.0
50-54	51.4	26.3	15.0	6.9	0.6	100.0
55-59	52.2	29.8	13.3	4.1	0.8	100.0
60-64	44.5	30.4	19.5	3.3	1.1	100.0
65+	67.4	15.1	12.2	1.4	3.3	100.0
Total %	30.7	33.2	26.3	9.4	0.4	100.0
Total N	982	1064	841	302	7	3196
Non-Slum						
6-9	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
10-14	32.33	24.06	42.86	0.00	0.75	100.00
15-19	3.25	25.20	61.79	9.76	0.00	100.00
20-24	4.24	33.33	30.91	31.52	0.00	100.00
25-29	4.12	39.41	30.59	25.88	0.00	100.00
30-34	6.92	40.77	35.38	16.92	0.00	100.00
35-39	9.02	44.36	27.07	19.55	0.00	100.00
40-44	20.17	42.86	25.21	11.76	0.00	100.00
45-49	13.98	45.16	22.58	17.20	1.08	100.00
50-54	38.95	32.63	20.00	8.42	0.00	100.00
55-59	39.39	36.36	19.70	4.55	0.00	100.00
60-64	38.78	28.57	26.53	6.12	0.00	100.00
65+	65.52	14.66	13.79	2.59	3.45	100.00
Total %	25.86	31.65	28.59	13.50	0.40	100.00
Total N	389	476	430	203	3	1501
Slum						
6-9	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
10-14	42.36	15.27	41.87	0.00	0.00	100.00
15-19	15.38	25.44	55.62	3.55	0.00	100.00
20-24	6.54	45.33	30.37	17.76	0.00	100.00
25-29	14.43	44.78	25.87	15.42	0.00	100.00
30-34	12.80	55.49	26.83	4.88	0.00	100.00
35-39	24.60	61.11	13.49	1.59	0.00	100.00
40-44	27.78	52.78	15.74	4.63	0.00	100.00
45-49	33.01	49.51	14.56	2.91	0.00	100.00
50-54	69.23	18.46	7.69	4.62	0.00	100.00
55-59	69.09	23.64	5.45	3.64	0.00	100.00
60-64	51.16	34.88	11.63	0.00	0.00	100.00
65+	69.79	15.63	10.42	0.00	2.08	100.00
Total %	34.98	34.86	24.26	5.77	0.12	100.00
Total N	594	592	412	98	4	1700

The information on housing characteristics, such as source of drinking water and time to the nearest water source, type of toilet facilities, main material of the floor, and the number of sleeping rooms in the house, are congregated in the TDHS-2003. These characteristics are used to define the slum and also non-slum households. These features are highly correlated with health and are also indicative of socioeconomic status. Some variables have no percentage for slum or non-slum in the Table 6.5 because these variables used in the determination of slum households.

The source for drinking water differs considerably by slum and non-slum. Overall, more than half of the households in İstanbul metropolitan area get their drinking water from bottled water. The same figure is about 65 percentages in non-slum area and 40 percentages in slum. That is a definite mark of the poor economic positions of slum households. One of the most meaningful variables to determine slum households is time to water source. In slum, 101 households have access to water without 15 minutes but the same figure is only three households in non-slum.

The open pit and no facility/bush/field/public toilet variables within the sanitation facilities were used to determine of slum households so that these variables have no percent in non-slum households. In slum, 6 households have no facility/bush/field/ public toilet, and 4 households have open pit. The percentage of flush toilet is 94.3 in slum and 98.2 in non-slum. In slum 39 households and in non-slum 17 households have closed pit.

With regard to flooring, more than 10 percent of the slum households with cement floors. And there are substantial differences in the flooring materials in slum and non-slum dwellings. Among non-slum households, 33 percent have parguet/polished wood, compared with about 20 percent of slum households. And about 18 percent of non-slum households have carpet floor but this figure is 12 percent in slum households. Wood and marley are common as a flooring material in slum households, more than half of the households live in dwellings with wood or marley floors.

Table 6.5 shows that approximately 81 percent of households in İstanbul metropolitan area have one or two persons per sleeping room, compared with about 89 percent of non-slum and 74 percent of slum households. And the percentage of three to four persons per sleeping room is 21.2 in slum households but it is about 11 in non-slum households. On overage, there are 1.2 persons per sleeping room in İstanbul metropolitan area. Slum households have 1.3 and non-slum households have 1.1 persons per sleeping room.

Table 6.5. Housing Characteristics, İstanbul, 2003

Housing Characteristic	Non-Slum (%)	Slum (%)	İstanbul Metrpl.Ar. (%)
Source of drinking water			
Piped water in house/garden	32.5	45.9	39.4
Public piped water outside house/garden	0.0	0.3	0.2
Public well	0.0	0.7	0.4
Well in house/garden	0.7	0.5	0.6
Piped surface water in house/garden	0.4	0.1	0.3
Spring/public fountain	0.0	10.9	5.6
River/stream/pond/lake/dam	0.0	0.3	0.2
Bottled water	66.1	40.1	52.8
Water station	0.3	0.7	0.5
Other	0.0	0.2	0.1
Missing	0.0	0.2	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Time to Water Source			
Percentage≤15 minutes	0.0	20.5	20.0
Percentage>15 minutes	100.0	79.5	80.0
Number	3	101	104
Sanitation Facility			
Flush toilet	98.2	94.3	96.2
Open pit	0.0	0.4	0.2
Closed pit	1.8	4.0	3.0
No facility, bush/field/public toilet	0.0	0.6	0.3
Other	0.0	0.6	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Flooring Material			
Earth	0.2	0.0	0.1
Wood planks	3.3	8.3	5.9
Parquet/polished wood	33.4	19.5	26.3
Karo	1.7	2.5	2.1
Cement	3.8	10.6	7.3
Carpet	17.8	12.2	14.9
Marley	37.6	44.9	41.3
Mosaic	0.3	0.7	0.5
Other	1.5	1.0	1.3
Missing	0.3	0.2	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Person per Sleeping Room			
1-2	88.6	74.3	81.2
3-4	10.5	21.2	16.0
5-6	0.0	3.7	1.9
7+	0.1	0.3	0.2
Missing	0.8	0.5	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mean number of person per sleeping room	1.1	1.3	1.2
Number of Households	921	972	1893

One of the good indicators of household socio-economic level is the availability of durable consumer goods. Table 6.6 presents the availability of selected consumer goods by slum, non-slum and İstanbul metropolitan area.

Most of the population in İstanbul enjoy the convenience of electrical appliances. But in general ownership of various durable goods varies by slum and non-slum. With higher proportions of ownership for generally lots of items reported among households in non-slum as compared to slum. For example, more than 13 percent households in non-slum own microwave oven wheras this indicator is 6 percent in slum households. The proportion of ownership especially for air condition, video camera, cable tv, internet, camera, dishwasher and computer is about two times higher in non-slum, compared to slum.

Table 6.6. Ownership of Household Durable Goods, İstanbul, 2003

Durable Consumer Goods	Non-slum	Slum	İstanbul
	%	%	%
Gas or electric oven	85.7	75.0	80.2
Washing machine	96.4	88.0	92.1
Iron	97.1	91.9	94.4
Vacuum cleaner	95.5	86.9	91.9
Television	98.7	97.1	97.9
Cellular phone	83.1	76.9	79.9
None of the above	0.1	0.5	0.3
Microwave oven	13.7	6.0	9.7
Dishwasher	46.9	27.0	36.7
Blender/mixer	55.0	41.5	48.1
DVD/VCD player	48.6	42.3	45.3
Video camera	8.4	3.4	5.8
Digiturk/CINE 5/satalite	14.9	9.2	12.0
Air conditioner	5.9	2.1	3.9
Video	13.6	6.4	9.9
Cable TV	20.0	7.3	13.5
Camera	51.8	39.5	45.5
CD player	29.5	20.7	24.9
Computer	25.6	14.4	19.9
Internet	15.9	7.1	11.4
Car	32.8	21.2	26.8
Taxi/minibus/commercial vehicles	4.5	5.1	4.8
Total Number	920	973	1893

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 96.045(a) Asymp Sig. (2-sided): .000

6.2 Women's Characteristics and Status

This section's purpose is that to provide a description of the situation of women within slum and non-slum difference. The table at the below shows the interviewed women's various demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. For understanding the context of reproduction and health and as indicators of the status of women and women's emprowerment, this informaton is helpful.

In general, households headed by women tend to have lower incomes and are therefore more likely to lack durable dwellings to accommodate all the members. Divorced, separated or widowed women are more likely to head household with their children with limited resources for home improvement. In certain situation, they become homeless.

The basic characteristics of women interviewed in the TDHS-2003 such as age, marital status and education are provided in Table 6.2.1. The data on age indicate that 12 percent of women interviewed in non-slum and 18 percent of women interviewed in slum are less than 25 years old. This figure shows that the population in slum are younger than the population in non-slum.

Table 6.7. Percent Distribution of Background Characteristics of Respondents, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum			Slum			İstanbul		
	W Percent	Number of Women W	UW	W Percent	Number of Women W	UW	W Percent	Number of Women W	UW
Age									
15-19	2.0	12	11	3.8	30	22	2.9	42	33
20-24	10.0	64	51	14.1	111	87	12.3	175	138
25-29	19.6	125	96	20.7	163	131	20.2	288	227
30-34	17.7	113	84	19.8	156	118	18.9	269	202
35-39	19.4	124	92	15.9	125	94	17.5	249	186
40-44	17.4	111	79	13.3	104	78	15.1	215	157
45-49	13.9	89	64	12.4	98	72	13.1	187	136
Marital Status									
Married	95.8	610	456	95.2	749	575	95.4	1359	1031
Widowed	1.6	10	8	1.3	10	7	1.4	20	15
Divorced/ Separated	2.7	17	13	3.6	28	20	3.2	45	33
Education									
No education/ Primary incomplete	9.4	60	48	18.1	142	111	14.2	202	159
First level primary	50.1	319	248	59.4	467	360	55.2	786	608
Second level primary	10.7	68	47	8.0	62	48	9.1	131	95
High school and higher	29.8	190	134	14.6	115	83	21.4	305	217
Total	100.0	637	477	100.0	787	602	100.0	1424	1079

W:Weighted UW:Unweighted

Approximately 95 percent of women were married in slum and non-slum at the time of interview. The rest were divorced/separated (2.7 percent in non-slum and 3.6 percent in slum) or widowed (1.6 percent in non-slum and 1.3 percent in slum).

The distribution of women by levels of education is striking and provides the difference between slum and non-slum in educational attainmant. While about 18 percent women in slum have no education or not completed first level primary

school, compared with 9 percent in non-slum. On the other hand, the percent of completed high school and higher in non-slum is about 30 but in slum is 15.

Employment of women is an important fact to understand of empowerment of women, if it is accompanied with control over income. Tables 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10 indicate the association between age, marital status, education and employmet status. In general, the tables about employment status show the definite differences among slum and non-slum. The 33 percent of women in İstanbul metropolitan area report being employed during the 12 month period before the interview. This figure was 35.5 in non-slum and 31.2 in slum. Younger women in slum tend to be employed less than their older counterparts.

Table 6.8. Employment Status of İstanbul Metopolitan Area, 2003

Background Characteristic	Employed in the 12 months preceding the survey		Not employed in 12 months preceding survey	Total	Number of women
	Currently employed	Not currently employed			
Age					
15-19	13.0	20.7	66.2	100.0	42
20-24	14.7	15.0	70.4	100.0	175
25-29	21.2	9.2	69.6	100.0	288
30-34	26.0	10.0	64.0	100.0	269
35-39	32.1	5.0	62.8	100.0	249
40-44	30.8	6.4	62.8	100.0	215
45-49	18.2	8.5	73.3	100.0	187
Marital Status					
Married	22.5	9.0	68.5	100.0	1358
Widowed/Divorced/Separated	55.7	12.5	31.8	100.0	65
Education					
No education/Primary incomplete	19.2	5.9	74.9	100.0	202
First level primary	19.2	9.9	70.9	100.0	786
Second level primary	18.5	13.2	68.3	100.0	130
High school and higher	42.0	7.7	50.2	100.0	305
Total	24.0	9.1	66.8	100.0	1424

Table 6.9. Employment Status of Non-slum Area, İstanbul, 2003

Background Characteristic	Employed in the 12 months preceding the survey: Currently employed	Employed in the 12 months preceding the survey: Not currently employed	Not employed in 12 months preceding survey	Total	Number of women
Age					
15-19	13.4	43.3	43.3	100.0	12
20-24	20.6	18.0	61.5	100.0	64
25-29	22.3	12.7	65.0	100.0	125
30-34	22.8	9.7	67.4	100.0	113
35-39	34.1	3.5	62.4	100.0	124
40-44	33.2	4.9	61.9	100.0	111
45-49	17.3	11.7	71.0	100.0	89
Marital Status					
Married	24.6	9.6	65.8	100.0	610
Widowed/Divorced/Separated	47.2	20.2	32.6	100.0	27
Education					
No education/Primary incomplete	14.5	7.2	78.3	100.0	60
First level primary	17.2	12.7	70.1	100.0	319
Second level primary	22.0	10.6	67.4	100.0	68
High school and higher	44.1	6.3	49.5	100.0	190
Total	25.5	10.0	64.4	100.0	637

Table 6.10. Employment Status of Slum Area, İstanbul, 2003

Background Characteristic	Employed in the 12 months preceding the survey: Currently employed	Employed in the 12 months preceding the survey: Not currently employed	Not employed in 12 months preceding survey	Total	Number of women
Age					
15-19	12.9	11.2	75.8	100.0	30
20-24	11.3	13.3	75.5	100.0	111
25-29	20.4	6.4	73.2	100.0	163
30-34	28.3	10.1	61.6	100.0	156
35-39	30.2	6.6	63.2	100.0	125
40-44	28.4	7.9	63.8	100.0	104
45-49	19.1	5.6	75.4	100.0	98
Marital Status					
Married	20.9	8.5	70.7	100.0	749
Widowed/Divorced/Separated	61.6	7.1	31.3	100.0	38
Education					
No education/Primary incomplete	21.2	5.4	73.5	100.0	142
First level primary	20.6	7.9	71.5	100.0	467
Second level primary	14.8	16.0	69.2	100.0	62
High school and higher	38.6	10.0	51.4	100.0	115
Total	22.8	8.4	68.7	100.0	787

There is an expressive difference among the proportion of women not employed during the 12 months preeceding the survey in slum and non-slum. The proportion of all ages of non-employed women in last one year in slum are more than in non slum.

Also, there is strong association between employment and marital status. Especially currently employment status among women who are not currently married is substantially higher in slum than in non-slum. It seems that more women in slum according to non slum are assumed to have the role of breadwinner as their husbands are absent.

The relation between education and currently employment attracts attention because the proportion of currently employed women who have no education or completed first level primary school is more in slum (42 percent) (32 percent in non-slum). But on the other hand the proportion of currently employed women who have completed second level primary and high school and higher education level is more in non-slum (66%) (53% in slum). In the light of this figures, we can make interpretation like that the educated women in slum according to non-slum are employed less.

6.3 Fertility and Family Planning

The level of current fertility is one of the most important topics in the TDHS-2003 survey report. In this part, measures of current fertility presented include age specific fertility rates and total fertility rate. These rates are presented for the three year period preeceding the survey for providing the most current information, reducing sampling error and avoiding problems of the displacement of births as like TDHS-2003.

The age pattern of fertility can be understood by using age specific fertility rates. The live births occurred in the 1 to 36 months preceeding the survey are classified by the five-year aged groups of mother. And the age specific fertility rates

are calculated by these numbers used as numerator. And the number of women years lived in each of the specified five year age groups during the 1 to 36 months preceding the survey is used as denominator of these rates. The age specific rates are presented for all women regardless of marital status although the other information on fertility was obtained only for ever married women. Never married women's age structure taken from household questionnaire were used to calculated the all-women rates. In this method have been assumed that these women have had no children. The total fertility rate (TFR) is used to examine the overall level of current fertility. TFR is a construct of the age specific rates computed by summing the age specific rates and multipliying by five. It can be interpreted as the number of children a women would have by the end of her chilbearing years if she were to pass through those years bearing children at the currently observed age specific rates.

Table 6.11 presented the current estimates of fertility levels by slum, non-slum and İstanbul metropolitan area. The total fertility rates indicate that if fertility rates were to remain constant at the level prevailing during the three year period before the TDHS-2003, a women would bear 2.2 children in slum, 1.4 children in non-slum and 1.8 children in İstanbul metropolitan area during her lifetime.

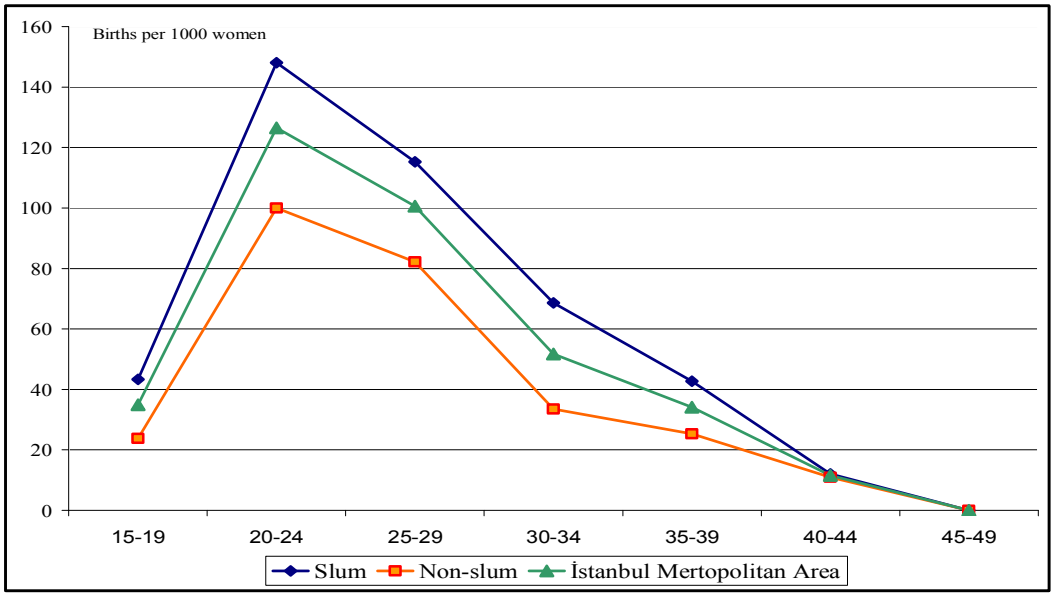
Table 6.11. Current Fertility Levels by Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

	Slum		Non-slum		İstanbul	
Age group	Fertility Rate	Number of Women	Fertility Rate	Number of Women	Fertility Rate	Number of Women
15-19	43	23	24	10	35	33
20-24	148	93	100	51	127	143
25-29	115	65	82	37	101	102
30-34	69	28	33	13	52	40
35-39	43	16	25	9	34	25
40-44	12	4	11	3	12	7
45-49	0	23	0	10	0	33
TFR 15-49		2.2		1.4		1.8

Table 6.11 and Figure 6.4 show that women in slum, non-slum and İstanbul metropolitan area experience their prime reproductive years during their twenties. The slum age specific fertility rates rise sharply from age 15-19 to the peak at age

20-24, and then gradually decline. But the non-slum age specific fertility rates assume a more gradual pattern. The delayed marriage, some delibrate attempt to postpone or terminate births by non-slum women indicate this figure.

Figure 6.4. Age Specific Fertility Rates by Slum, Non-Slum and İstanbul, 2003



Almost all currently married women in slum and non-slum have heard a method of contraception and a modern method. The proportions of both of them are 99.9.

The current use of contraceptive methods is shown in the Table 6.12. Overall, currently married women living in slum and non-slum have the same figure at using of modern and traditional methods. The significant differences in the current used method between slum and non-slum are seen in female sterilization (3.8% in non-slum and 7.6% in slum), periodic abstinence (2% in non-slum and 0.9% in slum) methods.

Table 6.12. Current Use of Contraception in Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

			Modern method							Traditional method						
	Any	**Any mod-ern**	Fe-male Ster.	Pill	IUD	In-ject-ables	Male Con-dom	Dia-phrag m	**Any Tradi-tional**	Period ic Absti nence	Withd rawal	LAM	Other	**Not curre ntly using**	Total	Num-ber of wo-men
Non-Slum	76.2	45.7	3.8	5.9	22.3	0.3	12.5	0.8	30.6	2.0	27.7	0.2	0.7	23.8	100.0	610
Slum	76.2	46.4	7.6	5.3	21.1	0.1	11.8	0.5	29.7	0.9	27.7	0.4	0.7	23.8	100.0	748
İst	**76.2**	**46.1**	5.9	5.6	21.6	0.2	12.1	0.7	**30.1**	1.4	27.7	0.3	0.7	**23.8**	100.0	1358

The main source of contraception for current users is documented in Table 6.13 for İstanbul metropolitan area, in Table 6.14 for non-slum and in Table 6.15 for slum. The information about source of modern methods is important for family planning program managers and implementers. In Turkey, the major source of contraceptive methods is the public sector providing methods to 58 percent of current users. The private sector provides contraception to approximately 40 percent, and 2 percent of modern method users are served by non-medical shops and markets. The percentage of public sector providing methods is 41 in İstanbul metropolitan area, 32 in non-slum and 48 in slum. And the private sector provide contraception to 63 percent in non-slum and 48 percent in slum. The numbers show that the women in non-slum provide the modern contraception from private sector rather than women in slum.

Table 6.13. Source of Supply for Modern Contraceptive Methods in İstanbul Metropolitan Area, 2003

Source of supply	Pill	IUD	Condom	Female Sterilization	All Modern Methods
Public Sector					
Government/hospital	0.0	10.6	0.0	39.5	10.3
Maternity house	0.0	1.7	0.0	3.5	1.3
MCHFP Centre	2.6	7.9	1.2	1.2	4.4
Health Centre	5.3	27.1	12.8	0.0	16.7
SSK Hospital/Dispensary	0.0	8.9	0.0	17.4	6.5
University Hospital	0.0	1.4	0.6	5.8	1.6
Other Public	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.2
Private Medical					
Private hospital	0.0	13.4	0.0	32.6	10.6
Private Polyclinic	0.0	7.2	0.0	0.0	3.3
Private Doctor	1.3	18.2	0.0	0.0	8.6
Pharmacy/Medical Store	88.2	1.4	73.2	0.0	32.1
Other private	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.2
Other Private					
Market/Shop	0.0	0.0	8.5	0.0	2.2
Friends, relatives	2.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
NGO/CSO	0.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.6
Other	0.0	0.7	1.8	0.0	0.8
Don't know/Missing	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	76	292	164	86	630

In non-slum, 16 percent of the users obtained their modern contraceptive methods from health centers or MCHFP centers, 7 percent from government hospitals, and 5 percent from SSK hospitals in public sectors. In the private medical sector, the pharmacy is the most commonly used source, providing contraceptive methods to one-thirth of all users of modern methods. Female sterilizations were conducted most commonly in private hospitals (48 percent), followed by government hospitals (30 percent), SSK hospitals (11 percent), and university hospital (11 percent). Pills and condoms are obtained primarily from pharmacies (89 and 72 percent, respectively) and health centers (3 and 9 percent, respectively). In the case of the IUD, users obtained the IUD from the private institutions (50 percent) and public institutions (49) nearly at the same proportion.

Table 6.14. Source of Supply for Modern Contraceptive Methods in Non-Slum Area, İstanbul, 2003

Source of supply	Pill	IUD	Condom	Female Sterilization	All Modern Methods
Public Sector					
Government/hospital	0.0	8.7	0.0	29.6	7.0
Maternity house	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	1.1
MCHFP Centre	0.0	8.0	0.0	0.0	3.9
Health Centre	2.8	19.6	9.2	0.0	12.3
SSK Hospital/Dispensary	0.0	8.7	0.0	11.1	5.3
University Hospital	0.0	1.4	1.3	11.1	2.1
Private Medical					
Private hospital	0.0	21.7	0.0	48.1	15.1
Private Polyclinic	0	5.1	0.0	0.0	2.5
Private Doctor	2.8	21.0	0.0	0.0	10.6
Pharmacy/Medical Store	88.9	2.2	72.4	0.0	34.2
Other private	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.4
Other Private					
Market/Shop	0	0	9.2	0.0	2.5
Friends, relatives	5.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7
NGO/CSO	0.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.7
Other	0.0	0.0	3.9	0.0	1.1
Don't know/Missing	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	35	129	76	25	282

Table 6.15. Source of Supply for Modern Contraceptive Methods in Slum Area, İstanbul, 2003

Source of supply	Pill	IUD	Condom	Female Sterilization	All Modern Methods
Public Sector					
Government/hospital	0.0	11.9	0.0	44.8	12.9
Maternity house	0.0	1.9	0.0	5.2	1.7
MCHFP Centre	5.0	8.2	2.3	1.7	5.1
Health Centre	7.5	32.7	15.9	0.0	20.0
SSK Hospital/Dispensary	0.0	8.8	0.0	19.0	7.1
University Hospital	0.0	1.3	0.0	3.4	1.1
Other Public	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.3
Private Medical					
Private hospital	0.0	5.7	0.0	25.9	6.9
Private Polyclinic	0.0	9.4	0.0	0.0	4.3
Private Doctor	0.0	15.1	0.0	0.0	6.9
Pharmacy/Medical Store	87.5	1.3	73.9	0.0	30.3
Other Private					
Market/Shop	0	0	8.0	0.0	2.0
NGO/CSO	0.0	1.9	0.0	0.0	0.9
Other	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	40	157	83	56	351

The following figures show the differentiation in the source of modern contraceptive methods between slum, non-slum and İstanbul metropolitan. While the 48 percent of the households in slum are used public sector, it is 32 percent in non-slum. In addition, the private medical establishments are used much more in non-slum (63 percent) according to slum (48 percent). This figure can be expounded with economic differentiation among slum and non-slum.

Figure 6.5. Percent Distribution of Source for Modern Contraceptive Methods in İstanbul Metropolitan Area, 2003

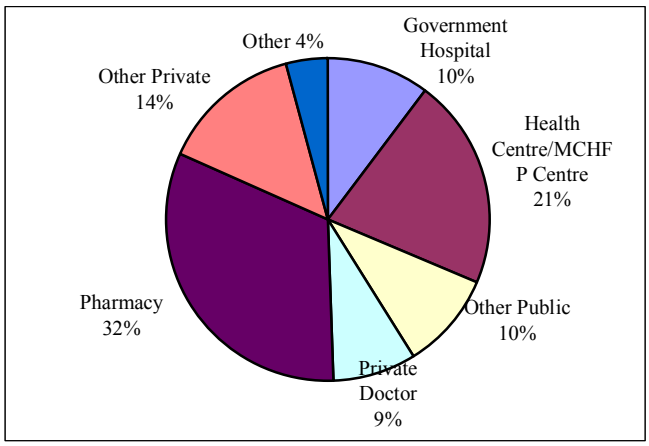


Figure 6.6. Percent Distribution of Source for Modern Contraceptive Methods in Non-Slum Area, İstanbul, 2003

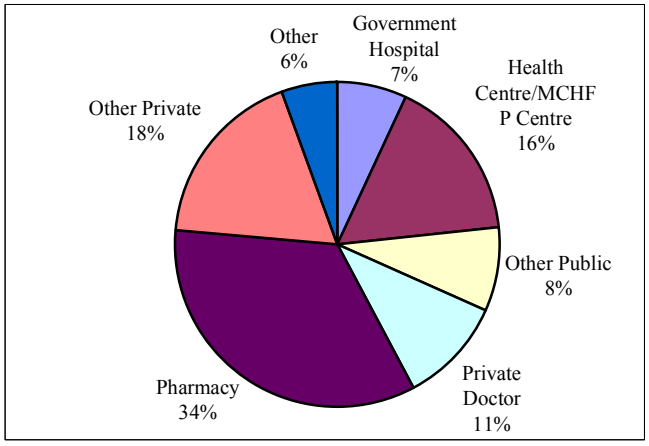
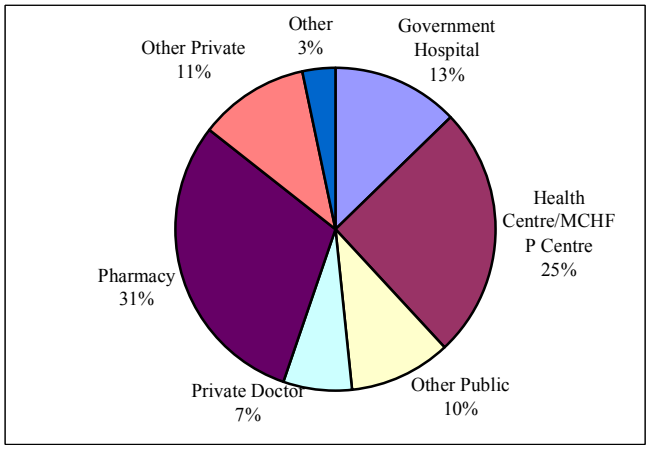


Figure 6.7. Percent Distribution of Source for Modern Contraceptive Methods in Slum Area, İstanbul, 2003



The proportion of the users in slum obtained their modern contraceptive methods from health centers or MCHFP centers is 25, from government hospitals is 13 and from SSK hospitals is 7. And in the private medical sector pharmacy is the most used source (30 percent). Within the contraception, female sterilization were conducted most commonly in government hospitals (45 percent), followed by private hospitals (26 percent) and SSK hospitals (19 percent). Condoms and pills are obtained from pharmacies (74 percent and 88 percent) and health centres (16 percent and 8 percent). And most IUD users obtained it from public sectors (65 percent) and 15 percent of the IUD users obtained the method from private doctor.

The rates of abortions (spontaneous and induced) are the same for slum, non-slum and İstanbul metropolitan area (28.5 percent).

The distribution of all women age 15-49 by their marital status at the time of the survey is shown in the Tables 6.16, 6.17, 6.18 and Figures 6.8, 6.9, 6.10. The 67 percent of all women are currently married[8] and 67 percent are never married in İstanbul metropolitan area. These numbers are nearly same in slum and non-slum (Figures 6.3.5, 6.3.6, 6.3.7). However looking at the age patterns, meaningful differences have seen clearly between slum and non-slum.

The proportion of never married women among teenagers in non-slum is 89 percent but this proportion in slum is 79 percent. Also the proportion of married women among teenagers in non-slum is 10 percent while this figure in slum is 21 percent. This numbers show that marriage in early ages is more universal in slum rather than in non-slum.

The proportion of women widowed increases with age. The percentage of women who are divorced is higher among women age 40-49 in slum than in non-slum. In addition, the percentage of the women separated is markedly higher in slum.

[8] The term married refers both to “currently married” and “currently in union”.

Table 6.16. Current Marital Status of Women in İstanbul Metropolitan Area, 2003

Current age	Never married	Marital status: Married	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Total	Number of Women
İstanbul Metropolitan Area							
15-19	83.3	16.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	100.0	317
20-24	53.6	44.9	0.0	0.8	0.8	100.0	393
25-29	22.9	76.6	0.0	0.5	0.0	100.0	385
30-34	8.3	87.7	0.7	2.3	1.0	100.0	300
35-39	3.8	87.5	1.5	6.0	1.1	100.0	265
40-44	1.7	91.7	3.5	2.6	0.4	100.0	230
45-49	1.5	90.6	4.0	2.0	2.0	100.0	201
Total	28.9	67.4	1.1	1.8	0.8	100.0	2092
Non-Slum							
15-19	88.9	9.6	0.0	0.0	1.5	100.0	134
20-24	60.4	39.1	0.0	0.6	0.0	100.0	170
25-29	27.4	72.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	179
30-34	10.7	82.4	1.5	4.6	0.8	100.0	131
35-39	4.4	86.8	2.2	6.6	0.0	100.0	135
40-44	2.5	93.4	2.5	1.6	0.0	100.0	122
45-49	3.1	90.8	4.1	1.0	1.0	100.0	98
Total	30.6	65.8	1.2	2.0	0.4	100.0	970
Slum							
15-19	79.2	20.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	183
20-24	48.4	49.3	0.0	0.9	1.3	100.0	223
25-29	18.4	80.6	0.0	1.0	0.0	100.0	206
30-34	6.5	91.7	0.0	0.6	1.2	100.0	168
35-39	3.1	88.5	1.5	4.6	2.3	100.0	130
40-44	0.9	89.8	4.6	3.7	0.9	100.0	108
45-49	0.0	90.4	3.8	2.9	2.9	100.0	104
Total	27.3	69.0	1.0	1.6	1.1	100.0	1122

Figure 6.8. Percent Distribution of Marital Status of Women Age 15-49 in İstanbul Metropolitan Area, 2003

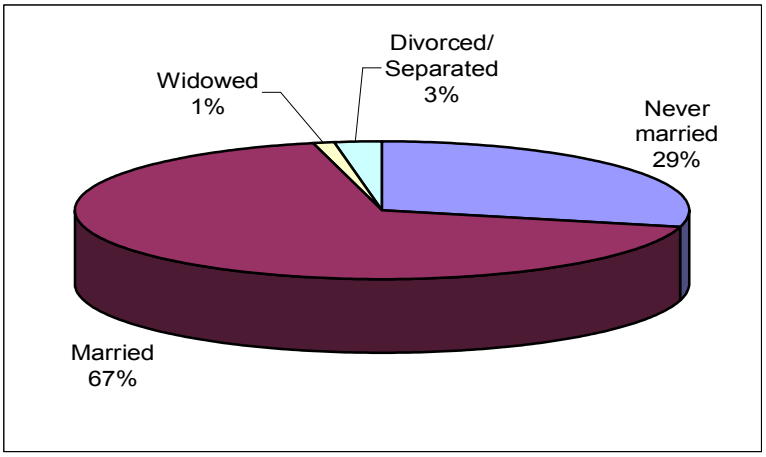


Figure 6.9. Percent Distribution of Marital Status of Women Age 15-49 in Non-Slum, İstanbul, 2003

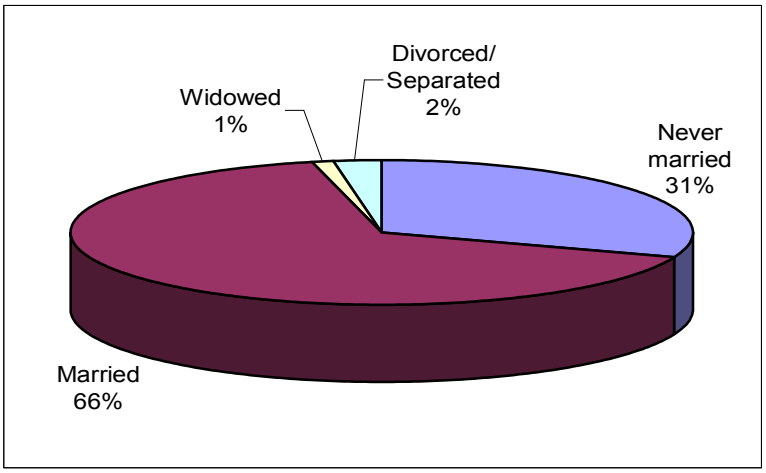
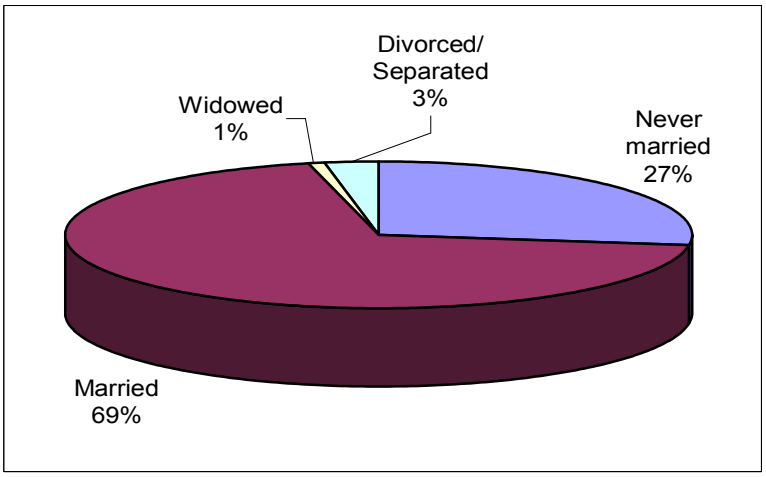


Figure 6.10. Percent Distribution of Marital Status of Women Age 15-49 in Slum, İstanbul, 2003



While the findings of the mortality during infancy and early childhood are included in the TDHS-2003, this study is not contained these rates. The early childhood mortality rates in the İstanbul metropolitan area were computed. But the results reliability are low because of the deficient sampling size. So that the infant and child mortality rates are not revealed in the study.

6.4.Antenatal Care and Delivery Assistance

In this part antenatal care and delivery assistance which are the important areas of maternal and child health are presented. The data used in this part collected from mothers on all live births that occurred in the five years preceding the survey.

The percent distribution and numbers of women in Table 6.17 show the ANC provider during the pregnancy for the most recent birth. In İstanbul metropolitan area, 91 percent of the mothers had at least one ANC visit from trained health personnel during the pregnancy of their most recent birth in five years preceding the survey. 89 percent of them received care from the doctor. On the other hand, about 9 percent of the mothers did not receive any ANC.

Table 6.17. Antenatal Care Provider During the Pregnancy in Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

	Doctor (%)	Nurse/ midwife (%)	Traditional birth attendant/ other (%)	No one (%)	Total Number of women (%)	Total Number of women
Non-Slum	94,8	0,5	0,5	4,1	100,0	194
Slum	86,2	2,1	0,3	11,3	100,0	326
İstanbul	89,4	1,5	0,4	8,7	100,0	521

There are substantial variations in ANC between slum and non-slum. Mothers living in non-slum are more likely to have ANC from a doctor than those living in slum (95 percent and 86 percent, respectively). And for one-tenth of slum births in the five years preceding the survey, the mother did not receive any ANC at the most recent birth.

ANC is effectual with test and measurements in order to ensure safe motherhood. The components of the ANC among women was collected in TDHS-2003. Among the most recent births in the last five years that involved some type of antenatal care, 76 percent of women in slum and 84 percent of women in non-slum reported that they had their weight measured, while approximately 26 percent in both slum and non-slum had their height measured as a part of the ANC checkup (Table 6.18).

Ninety-two percent of the mothers in non-slum had their blood pressure measured which is one of the most important that a woman receives during the ANC. But in slum eighty-seven percent of the mothers had their blood pressure measured. Urine and blood sample were taken for 73 and 76 percent of women respectively in slum and for 89 and 95 percent of women respectively in non-slum. More than 95 percent of women in both slum and non-slum reported that ultrasound was performed. The heartbeat of the baby was listened for 91 percent of women in slum and for 97 percent of women in non-slum. Women who had an internal examination and had their abdomen measured are 38 and 49 percent respectively in slum, 44 and 55 percent respectively in non-slum. With the indicators of Table 6.18, it was clear that the women in slum had benefit from ANC components less rather than women in non-slum.

Table 6.18. Components of Antenatal Care by Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

	Weight measured	Height measured	Blood pressure measured	Blood sample taken	Urine sample taken	Abdomen measured	Baby's hearth-beat	Ultra-sound	Internal exam-ination	number of women receiving ANC	Received iron tablets or syrup	Number of women
Non-Slum	84,4	25,9	95,2	91,9	88,7	55,4	97,3	98,9	44,1	186	83,5	194
Slum	76,1	25,5	87,2	76,1	73,4	49,0	90,7	97,2	37,7	289	70,5	326
İstanbul	79,4	25,7	90,3	82,3	79,4	51,5	93,3	97,9	40,2	475	75,3	521

On the whole, 92 percent of all births in İstanbul metropolitan area were delivered at a health facility (Table 6.19). Private sector health facilities were preferred for delivery to a much greater extent (62 percent), than publicly run health facilities (36 percent) in non-slum. Home deliveries constitute one fifth of the births in the five years preceding the survey. However in slum public sector healt facilities

were perfered for delivery more than private sector facilities (48 percent and 40 percent respectively).

Table 6.19. Place of Delivery by Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

	Health facility (%)			Total births	
	Public sector	Private sector	Home	%	N
Non-Slum	35,6	61,7	2,7	100,0	222
Slum	48,1	40,4	11,4	100,0	403
İstanbul	43,7	48,0	8,3	100,0	625

The type of assistance during the birth changes according to the place of delivery. The assistance of a doctor or other trained health professional should be expected to much less in the births delivered outside the health facillity.

The proportion of all births delivered with the assistance of a doctor or trained health personnel is 98 percent in non-slum and 93 percent in slum (Table 6.20). The proportions of all births delivered with the assistance of traditional birth attendant and relative/other are more in slum (2,5 percent and 3,5 percent respectively) than in non-slum (0,5 percent and 0,9 percent respectively).

Table 6.20. Assistance During Delivery by Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

	Doctor (%)	Nurse/ midwife (%)	Traditional birth attendant (%)	Relative/ Other (%)	No one (%)	Don't know/ missing (%)	Total Births	
							%	N
Non-Slum	90,5	7,7	0,5	0,9	0,0	0,5	100	222
Slum	78,4	14,9	2,5	3,5	0,5	0,2	100	403
İstanbul	82,7	12,3	1,8	2,6	0,3	0,3	100	625

6.5. Vaccination and Child Health

The data about the state of vaccination was collected for all children born in the five years preceding the TDHS-2003. But the information presented here are consisted of the alive children at the time of the survey fieldwork.

There are definite differences in vaccination coverage rates between slum and non-slum. Overall, the percentages of children in non-slum receiving the vaccinations are more than the percentages of children in slum (Table 6.21). For example, 71 percent of non-slum children are fully vaccinated which is higher than the proportion for slum children (58 percent). Only BCG coverage rate is lower for children in non-slum (88 percent) than for children in slum (95 percent). Moreover, the percentage with vaccination card in slum is slightly more than in non-slum.

Table 6.21. Percent Distribution of Vaccination by Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

		DBT			Polio						Percentage with vacci-nation card	Number of children
	BCG	1	2	3	1	2	3	Meas-les	All	None		
Non-Slum*	87,8	97,6	87,5	80,0	90,2	87,5	85,0	90,2	70,7	2,4	68,3	41
Slum	95,2	89,2	73,2	68,6	89,2	80,9	74,7	82,1	58,5	3,6	70,7	82
İstanbul	92,8	91,9	77,8	72,3	89,5	83,1	78,0	84,8	62,6	3,3	69,9	123

* Non-Slum households' sample size is lower than 50 so that annotation should be made with attention.

Table 6.22 ascertains the prevalence of smoking and frequency of cigarette smoking among women in İstanbul metropolitan area, slum and non-slum. Among all ever-married women age 15-49, 37 percent in İstanbul reported that they smoke rarely or regularly. The women in non-slum are a little more likely to smoke than women in slum (39 and 35 percent respectively). Smoking more than 10 cigarettes is most common among smokers in both slum and non-slum (46 and 51 percent respectively).

Table 6.22. Use of Smoking Cigarettes by Non-slum, Slum and İstanbul Metropolitan Areas, 2003

			Number of cigarettes smoked per day						
	Percentage who smoke cigarettes	Number of Women	0	1-2	3-5	6-9	10+	Total	Number of cigarette smokers
Non-Slum	38,9	637	2,4	14,9	23,4	8,4	50,9	100,0	248
Slum	35,2	787	1,4	17,0	20,2	15,6	45,8	100,0	277
İstanbul	36.9	1424	1,9	16,0	21,7	12,2	48,2	100,0	525

6.6. Attributes of Building and Settlement Area in Slum and Non-Slum

One of the main objectives of this study is a general examination the information about the building and settlement areas in slum and non-slum according to results of İstanbul Households Observation Fieldwork. The variables in the İstanbul Households Observation Questionnaire are formed to gain information about the surroundings buildings in slum and non-slum with urbanism perspective. Therefore, this part of the study covers the attributes of building and settlement area according to UN-HABITAT's slum definition.

First of all, it may be useful to give brief information about the percent distribution of the households. In İstanbul metropolitan area which have total 1893 households, approximately 49 percent of these households are non-slum (920 households) and 51 percent of them are slum (973 households).

Slum and non-slum households have different life standarts according to UN-HABITAT's view point. The differences in socio economic and demographic attributes are explained in the 6.1 and 6.2 parts on the above. In this part, firstly the features of building is examined by type, order, storey number, kind, material, etc.

In the İstanbul Observation Questionnaire, type of buildings are grouped as apartment and detached. Apartment is a suite of rooms usually on one floor of an apartment house which is a self-contained housing unit that occupies only part of a building. Moreover, one or more rooms of a building used as a place to live, in a building containing at least one other unit used for the same purpose. This kind of buildings have been started to build in order to settle many persons in a limited area since 1980s. In general, the apartment buildings are preferred in urban planning in Turkey as it is in many countries. Detached house is a dwelling unattached to any other building and occupied or intended or designed for occupation as a single dwelling. In Turkey, "Gecekondu"s are detached. But some detached house are dwellings of the upper-income families as like duplex.

There is no detailed explanation about type of building in UN-HABITAT's slum definition. So that, there is no expectation which type of building slum households, at the beginning of the study.

The results of the İstanbul Household Observation Data reveal that, as seen in Table 6.23, while 93 percent of the households in non-slum live in apartments, 2 percent of them live in detached houses. In slum the percentage of the households living in apartments is 87, and the percentage of them living in detached houses is 11. Moreover, we can say almost 85 percent of the detached houses in İstanbul metropolitan area are in slum.

Table 6.23. Percent Distribution of Households According to Kind of Building, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Apartment	93.1	87.3	90.1
Detached	2.2	11.4	6.9
Other	4.7	1.3	3.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	918	970	1888

Pearson Chi-Square Value:77.043 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The p-value ($p<0.01$) is significant. In other words, the type of building was effective on whether a household was in slum or non-slum. And the the building which type of is detached house, tended to more be in slum.

When the relationship between building order and slum/non-slum is examined, the İstanbul Household Observation Data shows that, as seen in the Table 6.24, more than 80 percent of the buldings are seperated and adjacet in both slum and non-slum. The percentage of adjacet buildings and seperated respectively is 41 and 39 in non-slum, 47 and 37 in slum. According to the pearson chi-square test result, there is not a relationship between building order and being slum/non-slum.

Table 6.24. Percent Distribution of Households According to Building Order, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Separated	39.4	36.9	38.1
Twin	12.9	11.8	12.3
Adjacent	41.3	47.2	44.4
Other	6.4	4.1	5.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	916	971	1887

Pearson Chi-Square Value:9.758 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .021

The Table 6.25 shows the association between number of storey and slum/non-slum. According to the results, while nearly 2 percent of the households in non-slum live in single flat home, almost 9 percent of the households in slum live in. Besides, the percentage of the four and plus storey houses is 88 in non-slum but it is 68 in slum. When we looked at the chi-square test result for the association between number of storey and slum/non-slum, we realized that number of storey was effective on whether a household was in slum or non-slum. The buildings which storey number are high, tended to more be in non-slum.

According to result of the Table 6.23, most of the detached houses in İstanbul metropolitan area are in slum (85 percent). If this figure is associated with the number of storey, we can say that the detached houses in slum are generally single storey. The dwellings in slum can be compared with gecekondu with this aspect.

Table 6.25. Percent Distribution of Households According to Number of Storey, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
1	1.5	8.7	5.2
2-3	10.5	23.0	16.9
4-5	35.6	37.2	36.5
6+	52.4	31.1	41.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	920	968	1888

Pearson Chi-Square Value:185.116 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The kind and material of building generalize its quality and economic status of building owner. The reinforced concrete is much used than stack because of

enduring. In addition, the briquette/brick is the most used material in building in İstanbul.

Additionally, the İstanbul Household Observation data shows that, as seen in Table 6.26, the 94 percent of the houses in non-slum are reinforced concrete buildings, compared with 85 percent in slum. And about 14 percent of houses in slum are stack but this figure is 6 percent in non-slum. Stack is not a durable kind of bulding. The number of stack dwellings are more in slum in İstanbul. Therefore we can say that the number of non-durable houses are more in slum compared to non-slum. There is only six wood houses in İstanbul within fieldwork and they are in slum. The wood dwelligs can be "sample of civil architecture". So that there is no interperetation about this kind of dwellings whether they are durable or not.

Table 6.26. Percent Distribution of Households According to Kind of Building, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Stack	5.7	14.2	10.1
Reinforced Concrete	94.3	85.2	89.6
Wood	0.0	0.6	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	970	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value:44.575 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

Furthermore, Table 6.27 reveals the association between material of building and slum/non-slum. According to the descriptive results of data, all of houses in non-slum and the great majority of the houses in slum are made by briquette or brick. In addition, in slum, four houses are made by stone, 3 households made by wood and only one household is made by prefabricated.

Table 6.27. Percent Distribution of Households According to Material of Building, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Briquette/Brick	100.0	99.2	99.5
Stone	0.0	0.4	0.2
Prefabricated	0.0	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.0	0.3	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	970	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value:7.612 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .055

The material of roof is one of the variables used to determine the households as slum or non-slum. But it is used with the material of floor to compute the "structural quality/durability of dwellings" indicator. The most of the households' material of roof is tile in both slum and non-slum (64 percent and 66 percent respectively) (Table 6.28). Beside, the second material of roof using much more is concrete with 23 percent in both slum and non-slum. The 4 households have soil roof in both slum and non-slum. While approximately 11 percent of the households in slum have ondulin roof, compared with 8 percent of the households in non-slum. Tinplate-cardboard is not an ordinary material and also durable material against weather and climate. When we look at the numbers at the table, we see that only five households in slum and two households in non-slum have it. The number of households which had tinplate-cardboard roof are not enough to make an opinion how effective it on being in slum or non-slum.

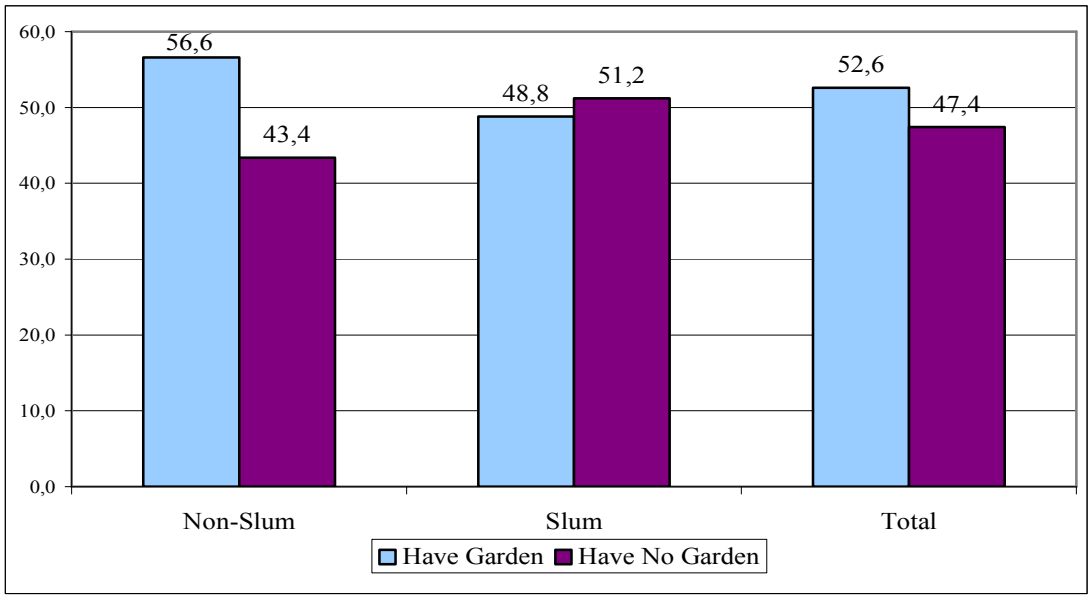
Table 6.28. Percent Distribution of Households According to Material of Roof, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Soil	0.4	0.4	0.4
Tile	66.1	63.6	64.7
Ondulin	8.4	10.7	9.6
Metal sheet	0.7	0.3	0.5
Concrete	22.6	23.4	23.0
Tinplate-Cardboard	0.2	0.5	0.4
Wood	0.0	0.2	0.1
Other	1.6	0.9	1.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	969	1888

Pearson Chi-Square Value:9.378 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .227

The 56.6 percent of households (519 households) in non-slum and 48.8 percent of households (473 households) in slum have garden (Figure 6.11). Table 6.29 shows the usage of garden in slum and non-slum All types of garden usage are counted in the study, therefore the total number of the households, which use garden variously, is 1511, while there are 992 households which had garden.

Figure 6.11. The Percentage of the Households Having Garden, İstanbul, 2003



On the whole the gardens are used as ornament garden in non-slum and slum (48 percent and 44 percent respectively) and then these are used as parking garage (28 percent in non-slum and 19 percent in slum). While the useless garden percentage is 13 in non-slum, it is 19 in non-slum. Moreover, the percentage of the gardens are used for planting in non-slum is 5, it is 12 in slum. These last two figures can be avowed that the slum householders are more poor according to householders in non-slum. Consequently, slum householders use gardens for nothing or planting. In addition, there are three households in both slum and non-slum using garden for raising animal.

Table 6.29. Percent Distribution of Households According to Usage of Garden, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Raising animal	0.4	0.4	0.4
Planting	4.7	11.7	7.8
Useless	12.8	18.6	15.4
Ornament garden	47.9	43.7	46.1
Parking garage	27.5	18.7	23.6
Other	6.6	6.9	6.8
Total number	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	843	668	1511

Pearson Chi-Square Value:44.575 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The other variables in the İstanbul Household Observation Questionnaire is the outside plaster and crack on it. These variables generalize about the quality of building materials. The number of households which have not outside plaster is more in slum than in non-slum (9 percent and 5 percent respectively) (Table 6.30). And also the number of households having crack on it are higher in slum (332) than in non-slum (197) (Table 6.31). The number of households having no outside plaster or had outside plaster with cracks on it are more in slum considering non-slum. Outside plaster is not a high priced process. This state is an indicator of the householders economic plight in slum.

Moreover, it will be a miss to make interpretation as non-durable to the households which have outside plaster with cracks on it. Because, the risk level of the cracks which are confirmed at the time of observation can be divergent about the stability of the houses.

Table 6.30. Percent Distribution of Households Having Outside Plaster, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Yes	94.6	90.9	92.7
No	5.4	9.1	7.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	971	1890

Pearson Chi-Square Value:9.152 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .02

Table 6.31. Percent Distribution of Households Having Crack on the Outside Plaster, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	77.3	62.4	69.8
Yes	22.7	37.6	30.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	869	882	1751

Pearson Chi-Square Value:46.538 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

It is feasible to determine a residential area as planned by making observation concerning the residence environment. For this purpose, a part about observation for residence and surroundings of it, is formed in the İstanbul Household Observation Questionnaire. The variables in this part are fundamental in order to define households as slum or non-slum. Because the households in slum and non-slum have had various environmental conditions. Anyway, the most of the variables in this part were used to creation of "durability" attribute within slum variable.

The existence of stack of garbage surroundings of residence is an important indicator for defining an area with a social and economic point of view. In general, we can say that the people with lower income and lower educational level are inhabited in the residential area observed stack of garbage. The municipality services are supposed to be not lacking so that this interpretation is made.

When the data was analysed, it was expected that there would be a significant difference between the number of households which observed stack of garbage surroundings of them. However, the percentage of the households observed stack of garbage surroundings of them is 21 in non-slum and 20 in slum. These similar figures can not conceived with slum/non-slum difference, the existence of stack of garbage can explained by the lack of municipal services throughout İstanbul metropolitan area. Moreover, the chi-square test result shows that there is no relationship between slum/non-slum and existence of stack of garbage.

Table 6.32. Percent Distribution of Households Having Stack of Garbage Surroundings of The Building, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	80.0	79.1	79.5
Yes	20.0	20.9	20.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	918	971	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value:0.216 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .642

The another significant indicator is open waste water for defining the planned residential area and also slum/non-slum difference. But the clean water (balcony, roof, etc. waste pipes) and sewage (drain, kitchen, etc. waste pipes) might have been commented on various ways by the observers. Therefore I thougt that this variable do not give an explicit result about difference in slum/non-slum. According to result of observation at the time of study, the households number had open waste water in their street are 23 in slum and 11 in non-slum.

Table 6.33. Percent Distribution of Households According to Open Waste Water Surroundings of The Building, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	98.8	97.6	98.2
Yes	1.2	2.4	1.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	918	971	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value:3.657 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .056

The untidy cables is a variable which is able to observe easily and is not open to various interpretations. The most of the households in both slum ve non-slum have untidy cables. While the 61 percent of the households in non-slum have untidy cables, it is 76 percent in slum. According to chi-square test result, untidy cables were effective on whether a household was slum or not. Households, which are in slum, tended to have untidy cables surrounding of the houses.

Table 6.34. Percent Distribution of Households According to Untidy Cables Surroundings of The Building, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	39.2	24.1	31.4
Yes	60.8	75.9	68.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	968	1887

Pearson Chi-Square Value:49.898 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The variables at the below began with closed buildings and end to explosive/combustile material depot are used to define "durable" variable. So that the number and percentage are nought in non-slum. These variables are useful to find out how many households had these attributes in slum.

First of all, Table 6.35 shows that the 145 households in slum have closed buildings. This variable is important to realize that dwelling have secure environment or not.

Table 6.35. Percent Distribution of Households According to Closed Building, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	85.1	92.3
Yes	0.0	14.9	7.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	970	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value:148.798 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

As seen in Table 6.36, according to the results of the data, almost 16 percent of the households in slum have a frontal road which is narrow than 5 meter. The award is followed about width of roads in the "By-Law on the Principles of Planning[9]" s 29. clause; "the foot road narrow than 7.00 meter and the traffic road narrow than 10.00 meter could not opened in the development area. These standards are applied in residential area where property and structuring condition suffice as

[9] "Plan Yapımına Ait Esaslara Dair Yönetmelik" is published in the 18916 numbered official gazette in 02.11.1985.

possible for it." The roads narrow than 5.00 meter indicate the unplanned and unprotected residential area and inadequate infrastructure.

Table 6.36. Percent Distribution of Households According to Frontal Road of Building Narrow than 5 meter, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	84.4	92.0
Yes	0.0	15.6	8.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	971	1890

Pearson Chi-Square Value:155.323 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The data on houses which are built on hazardous locations is difficult to collect and is not available for most countries. However with this work, we can look at how many houses located on hazardous places in slum in İstanbul metropolitan area. These houses are prone to natural and man-made disasters. So that these slope area do not open to settlement at the time of urban planning. In Table 6.37, 51 households in slum are located in slope area with 25 percent and more.

Table 6.37. Percent Distribution of Households According to Slope %25 and more, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	94.7	97.3
Yes	0.0	5.3	2.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	971	1890

Pearson Chi-Square Value:49.607 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The another places which are not opened to settlement in urban plannig are stream and torrent beds. These places have continual risk and they are not suitable to settlement. İstanbul Household Observation results indicate that 68 households in slum located at stream/torrent bed (Table 6.38).

Table 6.38. Percent Distribution of Households According to Stream/Torrent Bed, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	93.0	96.4
Yes	0.0	7.0	3.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	972	1891

Pearson Chi-Square Value:66.690 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The energy translating lines are planned by definite distance to residential area and within the protection belt which had definite width in urban planning. Therefore in the study, the housholds under the energy translating line assumed as a household in slum. There are 47 households in slum under the energy translating line.

Table 6.39. Percent Distribution of Households According to Energy Translating Line, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	95.2	97.5
Yes	0.0	4.8	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	970	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value:45.665 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The 50 meter protection belt is planned two side of the railway in the urban planning. Thence in İstanbul Households Observation Data, the households which are near 50 meter to a railway are selected as slum. As seen in Table 6.40, there are 41 households which are located near 50 meter to a railway.

Table 6.40. Percent Distribution of Households According to Railway (Near 50 meter), İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	95.8	97.8
Yes	0.0	4.2	2.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	971	1890

Pearson Chi-Square Value:39.523 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

And as like the railway, the 50 meter protection belt is planned two side of the highway in the urban planning. The households number which are located near 50 meter to a highway are 94 (Table 6.41).

Table 6.41. Percent Distribution of Households According to Highway (Near 50 meter), İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	90.3	95.0
Yes	0.0	9.7	5.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	972	1888

Pearson Chi-Square Value:93.523 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The industrial area are planned out of the residential area in urban planning. Especially, the polluted industrial plant have to be distant to residential area. If the dwellings related to endustrial plant are planned for workmen, these area would be planned by definite distance to endustrial plant. According to results of the data, there are 73 households in slum which are located near a polluted industrial plant (Table 6.42).

Table 6.42. Percent Distribution of Households According to Polluted Industrial Plant, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	92.5	96.1
Yes	0.0	7.5	3.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	971	1890

Pearson Chi-Square Value:71.866 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The variable of pollution of noise or traffic is not used in the selection of slum households. But it is a meaningful attribute to determine how environmental conditions had the dwellings. According to data as seen Table 6.43, the percentage of households in non-slum settled in environment polluted of noise or traffic are 21, but this figure is 31 in slum.

Table 6.43. Percent Distribution of t Households According to Pollution of Noise/Traffic Surroundings of The Building, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	79.1	69.3	74.1
Yes	20.9	30.7	25.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	918	971	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value:44.575 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

As like polluted industrial plant, explosive or combustile material depot should be definite distance to residential area, too. The Table 6.44 indicate that 11 percent of the households in slum are located near 50 meter to an explosive or combustile material depot.

Table 6.44. Percent Distribution of Households Acording to Explosive/Combustile Material Depot (Near 50 meter), İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	100.0	88.8	94.2
Yes	0.0	11.2	5.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	972	1891

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 109.360 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The standart measures for calculating the social and technical basic facilities'area are set by "By-Law on the Principles of Planning". For the social facilities, the average number of person per squatter meter according to population size and minimum area are set in this by-law.

"Accessiblity to facilities and open-space area" is another part of İstanbul Households Observation Questionnaire. This part include the observation corresponding the educational and health facilities, and open-space area which take place definite distance to dwellings. The distance levels to households are evaluated differently for primary school, secondary school and university. The walking distance in a definite time period is accepted 500 meter for accessible primary and secondary schools. If there is a university near surroundings of the households, these households are accepted as having accessible university. Likewise, the health centres

and private clinics are evaluated by walking distance in a definite time, and the hospitals are evaluated by near surroundings of the households. The parks and children's playgrounds are assessed as accessible if they are in walking distance. When the data of this part was gathered, it was possible to evaluate the same state in various ways by the observers. So that the data could have been included some calculation error and evaluation error because of the observers.

According to these evaluations, the two percentage of the households in slum have not an accessible primary school, this percentage is four in non-slum. Chi-square test result shows that there is not a significant relation between accessible primary school and being in slum/non-slum.

Table 6.45. Percent Distribution of Households According to Accessable Primary School, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	1.9	4.0	3.0
Yes	98.1	96.0	97.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	918	971	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 7.686 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .006

The number of households which have not an accessible secondary school are more in both slum and non-slum according to primary school. In urban planning the primary schools have to be planned frequently within residential area according to secondary schools. Because the children went to primary school are junior than secondary school and their walking distance are short time according to senior children at the same.

The number of households which have not an accessible secondary school are more in slum than non-slum as like the numbers in primary school. The percent of the households had not an accessible secondary schools are 20 in non-slum, compared with 24 percent in slum.

Table 6.46. Percent Distribution of Households According to Accessable Secondary School, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	19.5	23.7	21.6
Yes	80.5	76.3	78.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	972	1891

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 4.880 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .027

There are seventeen university in İstanbul. It is impossible to settle these universities as homogeneous in İstanbul metropolian area. On this account, the result of accessible university variable is not significant in the difference of slum/non-slum. The 28 percent of households in slum and 26 percent of households in non-slum have an accessible university.

Table 6.47. Percent Distribution of Households According to Accessable University, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	74.2	72.5	73.3
Yes	25.8	27.5	26.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	971	1890

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 0.705 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .401

Health Centre which supplies primary health facilities are established in the developing or not crowded regions. These centeres which have personnels, equipments and funds as much as hospitals serve as the the regional health service. Their standarts are naminated in foregoing by-law.

The data result indicate that the 79 percent of the households in slum and 82 percent of the households in non-slum have accessible health centre. The percentage of having accessible private clinic is 86 in non-slum and 82 in slum (Table 6.48). And the chi-square test result reveal that there is no relationship between accessible health centre and slum/non-slum fact.

Table 6.48. Percent Distribution of Households According to Accessable Health Centre, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	18.5	21.5	20.0
Yes	81.5	78.5	80.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	972	1891

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 2.659 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .103

As seen in Table 6.49, the percentage of the households which have an accessible private clinic is 86 in non-slum and 82 in slum.

Table 6.49. Percent Distribution of Households According to Accessable Private Clinic, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	14.4	18.1	16.3
Yes	85.6	81.9	83.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	918	971	1889

Pearson Chi-Square Value:4.854 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .028

As like health center and private center, the accessible hospital is more in non-slum according to slum (86 percent and 82 percent respectively).

Table 6.50. Percent Distribution of Households According to Accessable Hospital, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	31.2	34.7	33.0
Yes	68.8	65.3	67.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	972	1891

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 2.530 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .112

In İstanbul, while 64 percent of households in non-slum have an accessible park or children's playground, this figure is 56 percent in slum (Table 6.51).

Table 6.51. Percent Distribution of Households According to Accessable Park/Childrens Playground, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
No	35.7	44.3	40.1
Yes	64.3	55.7	59.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	971	1890

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 14.514 (b) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

The one of the most important municipal services is garbage collection. In both slum and non-slum the garbage is collected mainly by municipality (98 percent in both). The two households are burn down the garbage in slum. And the households number which take away garbage by their own possibilities, are nine in non-slum and seven in slum.

Table 6.52. Percent Distribution of Households According to Garbage Collection Method , İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Municipality	97.7	98.0	97.9
Burn down	0.0	0.3	0.1
Own possibility	1.0	0.7	0.8
Other	1.3	1.0	1.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	971	1890

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 2.579 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .461

The frequency of garbage collection is a meaninful variable to determine slum/non-slum difference. The percentage of the households accepted as the garbage is collected everyday is 24 in non-slum and 21 in slum. Among the households, accepted as the frequency of collection garbage is 2-3 days, 71 percent of them are in non-slum and 63 percent in slum. While the percentage of the households which collection garbage frequency is more than 2-3 days are 5 in non-slum. This figure is 16 percent in slum. This numbers indicate that the Municipalities of İstanbul furnish service lower in slum than non-slum.

Table 6.53. Percent Distribution of Households According to Frequency of Collection Garbage, İstanbul, 2003

	Non-Slum	Slum	İstanbul Metropolitan Area
Everyday	23.6	20.8	22.2
2-3 day	71.1	63.1	67.1
Less than 1 week	3.3	10.3	6.8
1 in a week	2.0	5.8	3.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household Number	919	972	1891

Pearson Chi-Square Value: 57.563 (a) Asymp Sig.(2-sided): .000

7. CONCLUSION

Cities and towns have been engines of growth, cradles of civilization and have furthered the evolution of knowledge, culture and tradition, as well as of industry and commerce. If the urban settlements are properly planned and managed, these areas will be suitable for human development and they will protect the world's natural resources and limit their impact on the natural environment. The growth of cities and towns causes social, economic and environmental changes that go beyond city boundaries. Cities are not only home to half of humanity, but also home of the world's poverty.

Starting from 2007 for the f nm irst time in human history, the majority of the world's population has been living in urban areas. More people live in poverty with inadequate shelter, especially in developing regions. Inadequate shelter is threatening the standards of health, security and many things about life. The number of slum dwellers in the world reaches the one billion mark in 2007 (UN, 2008). It means that one in every three city residents will live in inadequate housing with no or basic services.

There are number of terms by which slums are known in different countries. Terms such as slum, agencies and authorities use shanty, squatter settlement, informal housing and low-income community somewhat interchangeably. The concept of "slum" has different meaning and contents, and changes to country to country because of differences in their economic, social, demographic and urban development process. In Turkey this process bring into "gecekondu" concept to define type of building result of rapid urbanization, mechanization in agriculture, insufficiency in housing policy, high rent price, etc.

UN-HABITAT developed a household level definition in order to be able to use existing household level surveys and censuses to identify slum dwellers among the urban population. A slum household is defined as, "A group individuals living under the same roof lacking one or more of security of tenure, structural

quality/durability of dwellings, access to Improved water, access to sanitation facilities and sufficient living area".

In the TDHS-2003, the İstanbul metropolitan area was designated by UN-HABITAT as one of the mega-cities in International Slum Survey. İstanbul Households Observation Questionnaire was designed for the UN-HABITAT's International Slum Survey in order to collect data for defining the slum attributes. These questionnaires were applied to households in İstanbul metropolitan area to get basic information about building and settlement area with an independent fieldwork from TDHS-2003.

The purpose of this thesis was introduced the demographic and socioeconomic profile of the slum and non-slum in İstanbul metropolitan area according to UN-HABITAT's slum definition using data from TDHS-2003.

In the study, the households in İstanbul are firstly evaluated one by one according to the five-indicator of UN-HABITAT's definition of slum. The lack of at least one of the indicators has led to the consideration of this household as slum, while the complete existence of them led to consideration of the household as non-slum. After the slum and non-slum housheols in the İstanbul metropolitan area being described, the socio-economic analyses covered by Demographic and Health Survey have been made at the basis of household and member using the data of TDHS-2003. Before going deep into the results of the analyses made, it will be useful to explain the results of the five-indicator of UN-HABITAT's slum definition.

First of all, access to Improved water is an accessible data on the all over the world. Poor water access has a direct bearing on rates of water-borne or water-related diseases in urban areas so that this data is important. A substantial proportion of the households in İstanbul metropolitan area access to Improved water source compared to the most of the developing countries (94%). The piped water is one of the accomplished basic facilities in İstanbul metropolitan area. This figure is rather lower in slum households than in non-slum. In addition, the bottled water usage in

non-slum is higher than slum, which indicates the non-slum-households obtain a higher income than slum households. In this study, according to this indicator, because almost all of the metropolitan area of İstanbul has already been supplied with basic infrastructure services, the households, which had slum's attributes in the urban center, may have been considered as non-slums according to UN-HABITAT's definition, whereas the luxurious settlements in the peripheral areas may have been considered as slums. All of these evidences show us that this criterion in defining slum areas is not fully applicable to the conditions of our country and may produce misleading results.

Secondly, while the over 25% of the developing world's urban population lack adequate sanitation, almost all households in İstanbul metropolitan area have access to adequate sanitation according to result of analysis. Only a few number of households lack adequate sanitation in slum. The comments made on the "access to Improved water" indicator of the definition are also valid for this indicator.

Thirdly, the secure tenure is a significant indicator of the slum definition because mass evictions of slum dwellers in various parts of the developing world have raised fears that security of tenure and housing rights are becoming increasingly precarious in the world's cities. Almost half of the households of İstanbul (45%) lack tenure security as are the rate in the world. However, in assessing this indicator it should be considered that some slum household not holding a title deed may give fallacious answers due to their social fears As an example, one of the two owners of the apartments in the same building facing common environmental conditions may claim to have a title deed and thus categorization of his/her house as non-slum, the another one in the same building may confess that he/she does not hold a title deed and thus categorized as slum. Then, the rate of the error can only and approximately be calculated under the condition that the researcher categorizes all of the cluster included in the study one by one as planned and unplanned settlement areas, shanty settlement areas, settlement areas expanding in accordance with the local development plans and then compares with the answers of the households. On the other hand, that taking it into

account that luxurious settlements expanding at the periphery of the city which are lacking title deeds at the moment are also considered as slums by the definion, puts it as an exulgency to redefine and reassess the definition in terms of the conditions of İstanbul and Turkey in a broader perspective. As a result, on the contary to UN-HABITAT's definition that a settlement does not have a title deed does not provide us with the data that its household does live under the slum conditions under the conditions of our country.

Fourthly, the global figures shows that housing durability are highly underestimated because estimates take into account the nature of flooring material only, as information on roof and wall materials is being collected in very few countries. However, in İstanbul Household Observation Fieldwork, more detailed data on the building and its environment has been collected as a sign of the attempt to find out the durability variable. The data signify important indicators about the structural aspects of buildings and its environmental and planning conditions. First of all, it is required to underline that the material used in roofs and floors have not been considered as a determining variable in assessing household's durability, while determing slum areas in the metropolitan area of İstanbul. According to these variables only 1.5% of the households are slum. Though, variables used in the formation of durability criterion such as; -the building patterns making it easier to pass from one house to the other one, -whether the width of the road infront of the building is less than 5 meters, -whether the slope of the land where the building was built is more than 25%, -whether the the building is situated over a water or flood course or under the energy transmission line, -whether there is a railway, highway, an industrial plant increasing environmental pollution, a storage of explosive substances or a plant using those substances close to the building more than 50 meters have been important criteria in determining slum areas of İstanbul. According to these variables 31 % of the households live in slum areas.

The characteristics of the settlement environment are one of the most important indicators of the quality of life and planning conditions. A well-designed settlement environment both increases the quality of life and increases the

inclination of people towards living there. As a result to what extent the environment of a building is well-designed, determines the level of pleasure of people living there. In terms of quality of life, the settlement environment should be handled in terms of its both physical and social aspects. From this perspective, although these criteria are the ones which should be observed in any healthy building environment, due to the unhealthy planning processes in our country, some of them may be observed even in the most luxurios settlement areas.

Finally, living conditions, including overcrowding and poor ventilation are related to increase of illness, child mortality and negative behaviors. While 20 percent of the developing world's urban population is living in insufficient areas, this figure is only 7% of total households in Istanbul metropolitan area. On the other hand, the mean number of persons per sleeping room in slum, non-slum and İstanbul metropolitan area are almost the same (Approximately 1.2 people per room). According to this result, we can say that there is not a significant differentiation between slum and non-slum in the subject of sufficient living area. However looking at the number of the people living under one roof, it will be observed that households more then 4 people are concentrated in slums. This indicator shows us that the slum dwellers are more crowded households, and for these reason implies, although indirectly, matches the conditions of our country in terms of reflecting the socio-cultural aspects of the households living in slums.

While assessing the phenomenon of slum which is determined by the five indicators of UN-HABITAT's definition, one should keep in mind that household members living in the İstanbul metropolitan area are inhabitating in the buildings which have gone thtough change and development within the historical process created by the cultural and socio-economic conditions of Turkey by benefiting from the gaps in the planning and political system of our country. In our country the planning system lacks a wholistic perspective and regulation operating based on the plan. It can be observed that the luxurious buildings in the periphery of the cities built in the unplanned areas covered by local development plans are built over lands with more than 25% slope not to loose scenary and are using fountains as source

water and open pit for toilet system since the infrastructure services could not be brought there by the municipalities. So the consideration of these luxurious buildings where everybody wants to live in as slum areas makes the validity of the criteria according to the definition controversial to apply to the conditions of our country. Moreover according to this definition it may be unescapable for the blighted areas situated in the city center to be considered as non-slum just because they have basic infrastructure and social service to gather with people after the "renewal development plans" and "development amnesties". If we think about that in our country where the piped water does contain arsenic, people meet their drinking water needs from water stations, it is to monitor all of the criteria each by each of the five indicators.

Moreover, it is inevitable to face the same problems in other mega-cities of the world where this slum survey has been done. Thus it will lead to fallacy to use the results of this study in a comparative study with other countries. The results of the study should be revisited by taking the peculiar social, cultural and political conditions of each country into account.

Although in some literature, the two concepts are handled as the same concept, while assessing this study, we should take the existence of "gecekondu"s as a different phenomenon than that of slums. When the criteria in the definition of slum are assessed, it will be discovered that the term slum do not match the definition of "gecekondu" which is a general term used to define settlements and houses lacking good living conditions, while slums may even cover luxurious settlement areas. In our country, the phenomenon of *gecekondu* which has arised due to the rapid urbanization experienced is a process of change and transformation and bears similar features to the ones experienced in other developing countries. For this reason the formation, development of *gecekondu* in a country and the suggestions to the solution of the problem do not match exactly with those in other countries. Thus, it is not a good approach to asses the phenomenon of slum according to a global mold which is based on only physical, shallow and exact criteria independent each other, since *gecekondu* in Turkey is not a static phenonmenon exactly matching the

definition; it bears a more dynamic structure. *Gecekondu* has a complex structure as a composition of interdependent, multiple-sided, social, economic, political, judicial and physical factors and until now no definition of it has been made which has not changed as time goes by. As a result, we can say that slum defined by UN-HABITAT and "gecekondu" observed in our country are two different phenomena.

Although, in this study it has been so far claimed that, slum and "gecekondu" are two different phenomena, there are some situations where the socio-economic characteristics of two phenomena dominating over a wide area of life may bear similarities. Some of the common characteristics of the two phenomena are as follows: younger population, less educational attainment especially among women, low economic conditions and low employment status. However, since the socio-economic factors in the UN-HABITAT's definition of slum are omitted, it has not been commented on the similarities between slum and "gecekondu" A more detailed inference on the similarities between slum and gecekondu requires another study.

The socio-economic features of slum and non-slum households which are found out in the analysis of the data acquired from İstanbul Metropolitan Area are as follows.

- The age distribution in slum areas differentiates from non-slum areas to an important extent. The population in slums is younger than the ones in non-slum areas and the rate of young people to total population is much more distinctive. According to this indicator, it can be claimed that the fertility rate is higher in slums than in non-slums.
- The numbers of female-headed family are less in slum areas than the number of family in non-slum areas. According to this indicator, we can say the familiy structure in slums bears more patriarchal characteristics.
- In İstanbul metropolitan area, the more-than-four-member families are more concentrated in slums. So that the families in the slums are more crowded.
- The average number of household's members in slums are 4, while it is 3,4 in non-slums.

- The educational attainment is low in slum households.
- The educational attainment of women is less than that of men in İstanbul metropolitan area, however the gender differences in education attainment are higher in slum.
- According to the indicators of Ownership of Household Durable Goods part of TDHS-2003, the non-slum households have a better economic status comparing to slum households.
- According to the results of Wealth Index Analysis, most of the rich households are living in non-slum, while most of the poor households are living in slum.
- More women are uneducated in slum areas in comparison to their counterparts in non-slum areas.
- The rate of less-educated women employed is higher in slums in comparison to their more-educated counterparts in slum at the contrary to non-slum. The educated women are more employed in non-slum than slum,
- The fertility rate is higher in slum than non-slum.
- The percent of contraceptive usage both in slum and non-slum does not differentiate. It can be said that women of the both settlements have similar level of consciousness about contraceptive usage.
- The source of modern contraceptive methods differs sharply between slum and non-slum. The fact that the women in non-slum ensure the contraceptives from private establishments while the slum ensure from public sector, shows us that people in slum are less fortunate than people in non-slum in terms of economic power.
- There is also important differentiation between slum and non-slum in terms of the place of delivery. The fact that non-slum prefers the private sector to acquire contraceptives is an indicator of their economically more privileged situation.
- The rate of distribution of vaccination is less in slum than in non-slum. the reason for this may be the low-level of education and consciousness rather than in sufficient economic resources.

- The women in slum marry at an earlier age compared to their non-slum counterparts.

Moreover, the study may lead to many other studies on the phenomenon of "gecekondu" in Turkey using the UN-HABITAT's definition of "slum". To understand whether the phenomenon of "gecekondu" in Turkey bears the criteria mentioned in the UN-HABITAT's definition of slum or to what extend the socio-economic and demographic structure of the households of "gecekondu" bears similarities to the ones specified in the UN-HABITAT's definition of slum it is required to conduct a qualitative resarch concerning "gecekondu" settlements within the framework of same sample.

In the TDHS 2003, there have been questions concerning immigration for the first time. These questions are of the quality to put forth the immigration history of the households. However at the scope of this study, no analysis of immigration situation of households has been done. The similarities or differences between the immigration structures of the slum and non-slum households in the İstanbul metropolitan area can be put forth at another study.

Consequently, this thesis is the first study on the slums at the scale of İstanbul. Thus, there is no other study at the extent of Turkey to this one compare with and for the reasons put in the preceding paragraphs, it will be also wrong to compare the results with the results of the studies done in other countries. It has been thought that this study will be used as a resource for further studies on the topic of slums in our country and will be guiding.

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APPENDICES A.

2003 TDHS Household Questionnaire İstanbul Metropolitan Module

İSTANBUL METROPOL HANEHALKI MODÜLÜ

147	*KAPAK SAYFASINA BAKIN:* İSTANBUL METROPOL HANEHALKI (1)	İSTANBUL METROPOL HANEHALKI DEĞİL (2) ☐ →	160
147A	*KAPAK SAYFASINA BAKIN:* GENELLİKLE BU EVDE YAŞAYAN EN AZ BİR KİŞİ VAR	GENELLİKLE BU EVDE YAŞAYAN KİMSE YOK ☐ →	160
148	*SORU 123'E BAKIN:* LOJMAN DEĞİL İSE (123 = 1, 2, 4 VEYA 7)	LOJMAN (123=3) İSE ☐ →	160
149	Evin tapusu var mı?	VAR ..... 1 → 153 YOK ..... 2 BİLMİYOR 8	
150	Tapu tahsis belgesi var mı?	VAR ..... 1 → 153 YOK ..... 2 BİLMİYOR 8	
151	Evin üzerinde bulunduğu arsanın tapusu var mı?	VAR ..... 1 → 153 YOK ..... 2 BİLMİYOR 8	
152	Bu saydıklarım dışında, bu eve ya da arsaya ait, devlet ya da belediye tarafından verilmiş/onaylanmış başka bir resmi belge var mı? *(VAR İSE)* Bu ne tür bir belgedir?	YOK ..... 0 VAR _____ 1 (BELİRTİN) BİLMİYOR 8	
153	Yasal bir gerekçe olmadan bu evden çıkarılmanız mümkün mü? *(EVET İSE)* Sizi kim çıkarabilir?	MÜMKÜN DEĞİL ..... 0 MÜMKÜN EV SAHİBİ ..... 1 DEVLET/BELEDİYE ..... 2 DİĞER _____ 7 (BELİRTİN) BİLMİYOR 8	
154	Bu konut için çevre temizlik vergisi ödeniyor mu?	EVET ..... 1 HAYIR ..... 2 BİLMİYOR 8	
155	Bu konutun elektrik aboneliği var mı?	EVET ..... 1 HAYIR ..... 2 BİLMİYOR 8	

156	Bu konutun İSKİ aboneliği var mı?	EVET ..... 1 HAYIR ..... 2 BİLMİYOR 8	
157	Bu konutun doğalgaz aboneliği var mı?	EVET ..... 1 HAYIR ..... 2 BİLMİYOR 8	

İYOTLU TUZ

160	*KAPAK SAYFASINA BAKIN:* KÜME NO ÇİFT VE HANE NO ÇİFT ☐ KÜME NO TEK VE HANE NO TEK	KÜME NO ÇİFT , HANE NO TEK VEYA KÜME NO TEK, HANE NO ÇİFT ☐ → 161	
160A	Evinizde yemek pişirmek için kullandığınız tuzla ilgili sorular sormak istiyorum. Yemek pişirmek için kullandığınız tuzu genellikle nasıl bir kapta saklıyorsunuz? *TUZUN SAKLANDIĞI KABI VE/VEYA AMBALAJI İSTEYİN. HER İKİSİNİN GETİRİLMESİ DURUMUNDA SAKLAMA KABINI ESAS ALIN VE İŞARETLEMEYİ YAPIN.*	KENDİ AMBALAJINDA AĞZI KAPALI ..... 11 AĞZI AÇIK ..... 12 SAYDAM KAPTA KAPAKLI ..... 21 KAPAKSIZ ..... 22 IŞIK GEÇİRMEYEN RENKLİ KAPTA KAPAKLI ..... 31 KAPAKSIZ ..... 32 EVDE TUZ KULLANILMIYOR ..... 41 → 161 DİĞER _____ 96 (BELİRTİN)	
160B	*TUZ KENDİ AMBALAJINDA GETİRİLMİŞ İSE AMBALAJIN ÜZERİNDEN TUZUN "POTASYUM İYODÜR" VEYA "POTASYUM İYODAT"LI OLUP OLMADIĞINA BAKIN VE İŞARETLEYİN.*	AMBALAJ ÜZERİNDEKİ BİLGİ POTASYUM İYODÜRLÜ ..... 1 POTASYUM İYODATLI ..... 2 BİLGİ YOK ..... 3 AMBALAJ GÖRÜLMEDİ 4	
160C	*TUZ SAKLAMA KABINDA SAKLANIYOR İSE:* Tuz saklama kabını genellikle nerede saklıyorsunuz? *TUZ AMBALAJINDA SAKLANIYOR İSE:* Tuz ambalajını genellikle nerede saklıyorsunuz?	AÇIKTA ..... 1 KAPALI DOLAPTA 2	
160D	Şimdi evinizde kullandığınız tuzun iyotlu olup olmadığını test etmek istiyorum. *HEM TUZUN SAKLANDIĞI KAP, HEM DE AMBALAJ GETİRİLMİŞ İSE SAKLAMA KABINDAKİ TUZDAN ÖRNEK ALARAK POTASYUM İYODÜR TESTİNİ YAPIN VE İŞARETLEYİN.* *TUZ POTASYUM İYODÜR İÇERMİYOR İSE POTASYUM İYODAT TESTİNİ DE YAPIN VE İŞARETLEYİN.*	POTASYUM İYODÜR TESTİ İYOTLU DEĞİL - 0 PPM (RENK YOK) ..... 11 İYOTLU (RENK VAR) ..... 12 → 161 POTASYUM İYODAT TESTİ İYOTLU DEĞİL - 0 PPM (RENK YOK) ..... 21 15 PPM'DEN AZ (AÇIK RENK) ..... 22 15 PPM VEYA DAHA FAZLA (KOYU RENK) ..... 23 TEST EDİLEMEDİ _____ 00 (BELİRTİN)	

APPENDICES B.

2003 TDHS İstanbul UN-Habitat Slum Survey Observational Questionnaire

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ NÜFUS ETÜTLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
2003 TÜRKİYE NÜFUS VE SAĞLIK ARAŞTIRMASI
İSTANBUL HANEHALKI GÖZLEM SORUKAĞIDI

TANITIM BİLGİLERİ	
KÜME NO	İL _____ 3 4
HANE NO	İLÇE _____
	BUCAK _____
	KÖY _____
	MAHALLE _____
	SOKAK _____ NO_____

ZİYARET / GÖRÜŞME BİLGİLERİ			
TARİH (GÜN-AY)	___ ___	___ ___	
GÖRÜŞMECİ ADI-SOYADI	_____	_____	
HÜNEE DENETÇİ ADI-SOYADI	_____	_____	

GÖZLEM BİLGİLERİ

001	YAPI TİPİ	APARTMAN.....1 MÜSTAKİL EV.....2 DİĞER _____7 (BELİRTİN)	
002	YAPI NİZAMI	AYRIK.....1 İKİZ.....2 BİTİŞİK.....3 DİĞER _____7 (BELİRTİN)	
003	KAT ADEDİ (ZEMİN KAT DAHİL)	KAT ADEDİ	

004	YAPI CİNSİ	KAGİR / YIĞMA.....1 BETONARME / BETONARME KARKAS .....2 AHŞAP KARKAS .....3 DİĞER _____7 (BELİRTİN)	
005	YAPI MALZEMESİ	KERPİÇ .....01 BRİKET/TUĞLA .....02 TAŞ.....03 PREFABRİK .....04 TENEKE-MUKAVVA .....05 AHŞAP .....06 DİĞER _____96 (BELİRTİN)	
006	ÇATI KAPLAMA MALZEMESİ	TOPRAK .....01 KİREMİT.....02 OLUKLU ÇATI KAPLAMA MALZEMESİ (ONDULİN)....03 SAÇ .....04 BETON / ÜZERİ ZİFTLE KAPLI BETON .....05 TENEKE-MUKAVVA .....06 AHŞAP .....07 DİĞER _____96 (BELİRTİN)	
007	KONUTUN BAHÇESİ VAR MI?	YOK.....0 VAR.....1	SORU 009
008	BAHÇENİN KULLANIM ŞEKLİ *BİRDEN FAZLA SEÇENEK İŞARETLENEBİLİR*	HAYVANCILIK/HAYVAN BESLENMESİ.....A EKİLİYOR .....B BOŞ .....C SÜS BAHÇESİ.....D OTOPARK .....E DİĞER _____ U (BELİRTİN)	
009	YAPININ DURUMU İLE İLGİLİ GÖZLEMLER DIŞ CEPHE SIVASI DIŞ CEPHEDE SIVA ÇATLAKLARI	VAR / YOK 1 / 0 1 / 0	

010	KONUT VE ÇEVRESİNE İLİŞKİN GÖZLEMLER	HAYIR	EVET	
	YAKIN ÇEVREDE ÇÖP YIĞINLARI GÖZLENİYOR	0	1	
	SOKAĞA ATIK SULAR VERİLMİŞ	0	1	
	AÇIKTAN DÜZENSİZ KABLOLAR GİDİYOR (ELEKTRİK, TELEFON VB)	0	1	
	EVDEN EVE KOLAYCA GEÇİLEBİLECEK YAPILAŞMA VAR	0	1	
	YAPILAR GENELLİKLE BİTİŞİK NİZAMDA	0	1	
	YAPININ CEPHE ALDIĞI YOL 5 METREDEN DAR	0	1	
	YAPININ İNŞA EDİLDİĞİ ARAZİ EĞİMİ YÜZDE 25'TEN FAZLA	0	1	
	YAPI DERE/SEL YATAĞI ÜZERİNDE	0	1	
	YAPI ENERJİ NAKİL HATTI ALTINDA	0	1	
	YAPININ 50 METRE YAKININDA DEMİRYOLU VAR	0	1	
	YAPININ 50 METRE YAKININDAN OTOYOL GEÇİYOR	0	1	
	YAPININ YAKIN ÇEVRESİNDE ÇEVREYİ KİRLETİCİ SANAYİ TESİSİ VAR (DUMAN-KİMYASAL ATIK)	0	1	
	YAPININ BULUNDUĞU ÇEVREDE GÜRÜLTÜ-TRAFİK KİRLİLİĞİ VAR	0	1	
	YAPININ YAKIN ÇEVRESİNDE (50 METRE) PARLAYICI-PATLAYICI MADDE DEPOSU VE/VEYA BUNLARI KULLANAN TESİS VAR	0	1	
011	YAPININ YAKIN ÇEVRESİNDE YER ALAN / ULAŞILABİLİR KURULUŞLAR VE YEŞİL ALANLAR	YOK	VAR	
	İLKÖĞRETİM OKULU	0	1	
	ORTAÖĞRETİM OKULU	0	1	
	ÜNİVERSİTE	0	1	
	SAĞLIK OCAĞI	0	1	
	ÖZEL POLİKLİNİK	0	1	
	HASTANE	0	1	
	PARK/ÇOCUK BAHÇESİ	0	1	
012	ÇÖPLER NASIL UZAKLAŞTIRILIYOR?	BELEDİYE TOPLUYOR ..... 1 YAKILIYOR ..... 2 VATANDAŞLAR KENDİ İMKANLARI İLE ARAZİYE/ÇÖPLÜĞE ATIYORLAR ..... 3 DİĞER _____ 7 (BELİRTİN)		
013	ÇÖPLER HANGİ SIKLIKTA TOPLANIYOR?	HER GÜN ..... 1 2-3 GÜNDE BİR ..... 2 BİR HAFTADAN AZ ..... 3 HAFTADA BİR ..... 4 BİR HAFTADAN ÇOK 5		

014	GÖZLEM SONUÇLARI KONUTUN DURUMU KONUTUN BULUNDUĞU YAKIN ÇEVRE		

KURUMLARDAN ALINACAK BİLGİLER

025	YAPININ ÜZERİNDE BULUNDUĞU ARAZİNİN MAHALLESİ PAFTA ADA PARSEL		
026	MÜLKİYET	ŞAHIS.....1 HAZİNE.....2 ORMAN.....3 BAKANLIK.....4 VAKIF.....5 BELEDİYE.....6 DİĞER _____7 (BELİRTİN)	
027	YAPININ İSKAN RUHSATI VAR MI?	YOK.....0 VAR.....1	
028	YAPININ BULUNDUĞU BÖLGE	İMARLI DÜZENLİ YAPILAŞMA (İMAR PARSELLERİ)..... 1 İMARSIZ, DÜZENLİ YAPILAŞMA (ÖZEL PARSELASYON)..... 2 İMARSIZ, DÜZENSİZ YAPILAŞMA (GECEKONDU TÜRÜ)..... 3 DİĞER _____ 7 (BELİRTİN)	
029	YAPI JEOLOJİK ETÜT PAFTALARINA GÖRE SAKINCALI ALANDA MI?	EVET.....1 HAYIR.....2	
030	YAPI ESKİ BİR ÇÖP TOPLAMA ALANI ÜZERİNDE Mİ?	EVET.....1 HAYIR.....2	
031	ISLAH YAPILMIŞ MI?	EVET.....1 HAYIR.....2	