CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents the previous research studies related to the topic chosen. It helped the researcher to understand the various issues addressed by different researcher and to fine-tune the present study in a better way. The studies in the present chapter have been categorized into following heads; Urban Quality of Life, Urbanization and Slums, Housing and Environment and Urban issues and studies suggesting approaches to balanced urbanization. Within each section, the studies are arranged in both chronological and alphabetical order.

The roots of Social Work could be traced along the urbanization of Western societies particularly in England and USA. Social Work methods were originally aimed at addressing the problems that arose out of urbanization and city life. India, being one of the fastest urbanizing countries, the impact of urbanization on the living conditions and quality of life are more complex and wide-spread. According to UN, by 2025, more than half of the India’s population will live in urban areas, thus needing concerted efforts from both government and non-governmental organizations. Social work research in India is mostly focusing on rural problems and even the scanty social work literature concerning urban problems is mostly related to people living in slums. Studies addressing the problems of urbanization and urban society are done at macro level by other related disciplines like economics, demography, geography etc., whereas, there is a dearth of social work studies. On the other hand, the western literature on urban studies are varied and specific.

Research on Urban Quality of Life (UQoL)

References about the quality of life at the urban level, particularly concerning the concepts, the models used and the methods of analysis can be found in Kamp et al (2003), Yuan et al (1999), Nuvolati (1998) and Grayson and

Empirical city studies use, essentially, two types of indicators to evaluate the quality of life (Seik, 2000; Pacione, 2003). One type are quantitative indicators, which are used to measure concrete aspects that relate to environmental, economic or social conditions of a specific urban centre, based on statistical data. An important strand of this kind of studies uses singular indexes to summarise the evaluations of a defined set of characteristics of the urban areas (Giannias, 1998; Burnell and Galster, 1992). The other type of empirical studies that should be mentioned comprises qualitative data, obtained from field surveys, where citizens were asked for their subjective “interpretation” of the various fields of quality of life.

QOL consists of two distinct global concepts with underlying domains: perceived QOL and the environmental QOL (Jeffres and Dobos, 1995). Perceived QOL domains includes satisfaction with family life, friends, health, partner and oneself (Campbell, 1981). The environmental QOL domains include satisfaction with housing, schools, health services, safety and security, roads and transport (Cutter 1982; Diener 1995; Evans 1994) and jobs (Westaway, 2006). It has been found that the environmental QOL domains explain the variances in life satisfaction much more than the perceived QOL domains (Jeffres and Dobos, 1995) and that satisfaction with housing is one of the most important predictor of life satisfaction (Westaway, 2006,). Turksever and Atalik contend that in order to measure the QOL, a variety of life domains such as housing, health and education must be taken into account (Turksever and Atalik, 2001).

Tewari (1997) in his article on Urbanization in India: patterns and perspectives reports that While urbanization in the developed West has been closely linked to industrialisation and the level of economic development, in
India urban growth has far exceeded the growth in industry and other economic activities associated with urbanization. This has given rise to a sharp urban-rural and core-periphery dichotomy, rising poverty levels and spatially imbalanced urban systems.

The analysis of urbanization patterns and the projections for the next 25 years indicate a trend of increasing urbanisation and its spatial spread and a larger concentration of population in big cities. However, the provision of infrastructural facilities and services required to support such large concentrations of population is lagging far behind the pace of urbanisation. As a consequence, the urban environment, particularly in large cities, is deteriorating very rapidly. Although the 74th Amendment to the Constitution of India empowers the local bodies with the responsibility of planning and governing the areas under their jurisdiction, the necessary institutional structures with clearly defined roles, reforms in legal and regulatory frameworks as well as in the systems and procedures required for the effective implementation of the Amendment have yet to be developed.

**Research on Urban Quality of Life**

Carnahan et al (1974) attempted to find out the Urbanization, Population Density, and Overcrowding: Trends in the Quality of Life in Urban America and found that changes in the quality of life as reflected in household density, and the possible association of household density with rates of pathological behavior. Data were drawn from the 1940–70 Housing Censuses to analyze changes at the national level, and by region, race, and setting (central city, standard metropolitan area, and farm) in median number of persons per room and percent of households with more than one person per room. Results indicated that crowding is, for the nation as a whole, on the decline; that households in central cities and Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs) no more crowded than the national average; that serious overcrowding is greater on farms than in
other locations; that regional differences in household densities are diminishing; and that a majority of black households, though they have higher densities than whites, are gaining ground relative to whites, although a minority of black households are falling behind the density declines of both groups. The fact that household densities in central cities are not especially high compared to other locations combined with the marked improvements in household densities since 1940, suggests that this form of density does not account for increases in pathological behavior. Concern with developing measures of quality of life in order to chart trends in these areas, coupled with evidence that overcrowding may have detrimental behavioral consequences led to the present investigation.

Clark (1998) in his article on Interdependent Urbanization in an urban World: An Historical Overview Urban development was largely confined to developed countries before mid-century but has spread to developing countries since. Both outcomes are seen as interdependent consequences of the growth and geographical extension of capitalism. Cities have grown because of the influx of manufacturing and service jobs from the developed economics, and the in-migration of workers displaced by agricultural adjustment. Urban development is the consequence of deep-seated and persistent processes that enable and encourage people to amass in geographical space. Historically, two separate prerequisites were necessary: the generation of surplus products that sustain people in non-agricultural activities and the achievement of a level of social development that allows large communities to be socially viable and stable. Capitalism produces urbanization by concentrating production and consumption in locations that afford the greatest economies of scale, agglomeration and linkage, and where control over sources and supply can be exercised with maximum effectiveness, at least cost.

Robbins (1998) attempted to study the Nomadization in Rajasthan India: Migration, Institutions and Economy and finds that despite a global trend toward
settlement, the incidence of pastoral nomadism is on the rise in the Marwar region of Rajasthan India. Typical explanations for this change use models of population pressure; increasing herds and decreasing pasture, are held to blame. This explanation however intuitive is unsatisfactory. Instead changing institutional and economic patterns are creating new contexts for strategic movement. Bottlenecks in the yearly resource calendar caused by the disintegration of obligatory social relationships force migrations during periods of scarcity. Changes in the volume and pattern of the meat and wool markets have also created opportunities for migrating pastoralists. Producers increase their access to markets and the reproductive rate of their herd through long annual migration, while nomadism is a general adaptation to changes in the socioeconomic conditions of the region differential resource endowments account for the range of strategies; wealthy herdners have opportunities not enjoyed by more marginal producers.

Veenhove (1999) in his study on Quality of Life in Individualistic Society: A Comparison of 43 Nations in the Early 1990's reports that in the process of modernization, western societies became more individualistic. Ever since there have been claims that this development will create an unlivable society. Humans would need a Gemeinschaft and would wither in Gesellschaft. This classic idea lives in present day ‘communitarism’ and inspires pleas for the strengthening of moral bonds and preserving the welfare state. This paper reports an empirical test of the claim that quality-of-life is poor in individualized society. It compares 43 nations in the early 1990's. Individualization is measured by three aspects: moral appreciation of individualism, opportunity to choose, and Capability to choose.

Next overall individualization is measured by means of an expert-estimate. Quality-of-life in nations is measured by the citizen's subjective appreciation of life as assessed in representative surveys. The data show a clear
positive relationship, the more individualized the nation, the more citizens enjoy their life. This suggests that the benefits of individualization are greater than its costs. Inspection of the scatter-grams shows a linear relationship. There is no pattern of diminishing returns. This indicates that individualization has not yet passed its optimum. The relationship appears to be contingent to level of education and economic prosperity. Positive correlations appear only among the most knowledgeable and prosperous nations. This suggests that the misgivings about individualization apply more to the past than to the future.

Türksever and Atalik (2000) in their article on Possibilities and Limitations for the Measurement of the Quality of Life in Urban Areas reports that recently, quality of life has become a commonly used concept and is showing growing significance in economic and political terms. Additionally, quality of life issues have been recognized within the migration processes. In one view, quality of life relates to the degree to which the necessary conditions for satisfaction exists in a given society or region. It is argued that quality, as a measurable variable would refer to both the subject and the object of inquiry. In this sense, quality of life has two aspects, psychological and environmental ones. Nevertheless, this limitation constitutes a major problem since some researchers have totally neglected the perception of the people who live there, while another limitation is about the components, indices and indicators chosen in a certain analysis. In this paper, the aim is to test some measurement methods of the quality of life and to show the possibilities and limitations of a developing area in comparison to developed ones. In this way, some comparative analysis can be performed on the measurement methods of the quality of life levels with respect to regional variations.

Ibrahim and Chung (2002) studied the Quality of Life of Residents Living near Industrial Estates in Singapore. They found out that Quality of life (QOL) studies are increasingly gaining the attention of urban planners due to its
usefulness in assessing and monitoring public policies. With this in mind, an attempt was made in this study to assess the quality of life of residents staying near industrial estates in Jurong, Singapore using 18 subjective life indicators to measure the overall life satisfaction. Based on a 5-point Likert scale, health (4.48), family life (4.37) and public safety (4.13) emerged as the more important aspects, while self-development (3.90), religion (3.60) and politics (2.74) were named by the respondents to be among the least important. On the satisfaction level, public safety (3.92), family life (3.88), and public utilities (3.78) were deemed to be among the most satisfied aspects, while consumer goods (2.92), politics (2.91) and environment (2.89) were considered to be among the least satisfied aspects. The relationship between the different demographic variables with overall life satisfaction were also determined and five variables, namely, marital status, education level, occupation, household income and household size were found to contribute significantly to the overall life satisfaction scores. Overall, the residents in Jurong were found to be generally satisfied with their life, scoring a mean satisfaction rating of 3.687. It is hoped that the data gathered from this study can be used by planners in formulating and implementing future policies.

The Environmental, Social, and Health Dimensions of Urban Expansion by Redman and Jones (2004) observed that, in the coming decades, the world’s rapid urbanization will be one of the greatest challenges to ensuring human welfare and a viable global environment. According to current estimates, cities occupy 4% or less of the world’s terrestrial surface, yet they are home to almost half the global population, consume close to three-quarters of the world’s natural re-sources, and generate three-quarters of its pollution and wastes. Moreover, the UN estimates that virtually all net global population and economic growth over the next 30 years will occur in cities, leading to a doubling of current populations. This growth will require unprecedented investment in new infrastructure and create undreamed of challenges for political and social
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Institutions. Nowhere are the opportunities more promising or challenges to sustainability more daunting than in the rapidly urbanizing regions of the world. These transforming regions represent the engines of economic growth for the developing world and, everywhere will continue to be the centers of innovation, culture, and the arts. These same cities, however, are the loci of increasing poverty, pollution, disease, political instability, and social inequality. The transformation of surrounding land due to urban expansion and urban dwellers ever-increasing demand for energy, food, goods, and other resources is behind the degradation of local and regional environments, threatening basic ecosystem services and global biodiversity.

McCrea et al (2006) in their study on What is the Strength of the Link between Objective and Subjective Indicators of Urban Quality of Life? reports that Urban quality of life is usually measured by either subjective indicators using surveys of residents’ perceptions, evaluations and satisfaction with urban living or by objective indicators using secondary data and relative weights for objective indicators of the urban environment. However, rarely are subjective and objective indicators of urban quality of life related to each other. In this paper, these two types of indicators were linked using Geographical Information Systems (GIS) to both locate respondents to the 2003 Survey of Quality of Life in South East Queensland and also to gather objective indicators about their urban environment within the region with regard to services, facilities and overcrowding. Using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), the strength of the relationships between these objective indicators and subjective indicators was examined. The results show that relationships between objective and subjective indicators of urban QOL can be weak, and suggests care should be taken when making inferences about improvements in subjective urban QOL based on improvements in objective urban QOL. However, further research is needed into the links between objective and subjective indicators of urban QOL including examining other aspects of the urban environment, non-linear relationships, and
moderating effects for individual differences. The purpose of the paper was to develop the concept and definition of multi-dimensional urban areas, thereby providing insights into our understanding of the sub-regional structures of household spatial systems. Hence, we propose a framework for strategic planning that considers several areas of household needs. In order to achieve this goal, they developed a multi-criteria methodology to define the territorialisation of the region of Catalonia (Spain). They analysed the different methodologies used to define territorial areas based on economic criteria, for example, those used to construct travel-to-work areas (TTWA), among other methods. Thus, in practice several criteria and techniques are used to organize a territory, including administrative areas, commuting-based algorithms, and gravitational techniques. Finally, these points helped them build a system of multi-criteria urban areas that is consistent with the overall use of time by individuals.

A Study entitled Urban Quality of Life: A Case Study of Guwahati by Das (2007) studies quality of life (QOL) in urban environment. The term environment has been used in broader sense, which includes physical, social and economic environment. A framework has been proposed which posits that QOL comprises objective condition of living and satisfaction from such living condition constitutes QOL. Such objective condition refers to objective QOL and satisfaction refers to subjective QOL. Dimension of QOL has been found to be multi dimensional. It has been found that both objective and subjective condition is important dimension of QOL. But correlation between objective and subjective QOL has been found not to be high. At the same time it has been found that satisfaction from condition of traffic is the lowest among all satisfaction variables.

Richards et al (2007) studying the QOL in informal settlements in South Africa find that material living standards, housing and basic services, social connectivity and personal health are the most important predictors of life
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satisfaction in these settlements. From this brief literature review, it could be concluded that housing is a key component of QOL and there is a need to further study the relationship between housing sub-components of QOL and life satisfaction in informal settlements that provide housing for those who do not have access to affordable housing in the formal land and housing markets.

Santos and Martins (2007) on Monitoring Urban Quality of Life: The Porto Experience. This paper describes the monitoring system of the urban quality of life developed by the Porto City Council, a new tool being used to support urban planning and management. The two components of this system – a quantitative approach based on statistical indicators and a qualitative analysis based on the citizens’ perceptions of the conditions of life – are presented. The strengths and weaknesses of these two approaches adopted in the project are reviewed. It is argued that, in order to achieve a deeper understanding and more effective measurement of urban quality of life, both kinds of measurements are useful and complement each other.

Agostini and Universidade (2008) in their study on Quality of Life and Quality of Living Conditions in Rural Areas: Distinctively Perceived and Quantitatively Distinguished reports that in the last decades, large amount of effort and resources have been spent in projects and programs aiming to develop rural communities. The ultimate goal of such projects is supposed to be the improvement of the Quality of Life (QOL) of these communities. Although improving the Quality of the Living Conditions (QLC) is an acceptable strategy to reach that goal, all too often there is significant confusion between the two concepts. In this paper we argue that QLC and QOL can not be dissociated, but they are distinct. Our hypothesis is that we can make this distinction objectively. For that purpose, we develop an Index of the Quality of Living Conditions (IQLC) and an Index of the Quality of Life (IQOL). Each index is obtained by
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combining partial indicators of the conditions of several aspects in several dimensions (e.g., social, environmental, and economic). While the assessment of living conditions to obtain the IQLC is done by project staff, the IQOL is based on the manifestation of the farmers about their satisfaction in living those conditions. The IQLC and the IQOL result, then, from different views of the same aspects of life in a given context. Therefore, their objective measurement can be a useful instrument to evaluate the effectiveness of improvements on living conditions proposed by institutions and their professionals to improve the quality of life of rural communities.

Rao (2008) in his article on Trends in Urbanization in Andhra Pradesh: 1901-2001 presents that Urbanization is an indicator of modernization, the sign of growth and economic progress. It is indispensible to economic growth and leads to social equity. The most distinctive feature of the twentieth century has been the rabid and massive urbanization taking place everywhere in the world as a consequence of the process of modernization. Migration from rural areas into towns is not peculiar to developing countries alone, but is a worldwide phenomenon. In the 21st century, the rate of urbanization is much more in developing countries than in developed countries. Almost half of the world population lives in the urban areas and the cities are growing rapidly, both in size and number. The rate of urbanization varies over time and space. In the early period after independence and also the starting point of the planned economic development in India, in 1951, the level of urbanization was 17.29 percent with only 62.44 million urban people in 2843 towns. The 2001 population census has recorded 285.35 million urban population which accounts for 27.78 percent of 1027 million total population, distributed over 5161 urban agglomerations/towns.

Andhra Pradesh occupies 10th place in the composition of urban population in the country (excluding the Union Territories). According to the
2001 census, the total population of Andhra Pradesh is 75.73 million which constitutes 7.4 percent of the total population of the country. The decimal growth rate of population in Andhra Pradesh during 1991-2001 stood at 13.86 percent only, whereas it was 24.20 percent during 1981-91. This is a very interesting trend observed in the case of Andhra Pradesh. In 1901 only 9.65 percent of the state's population lived in urban areas. Every decade onwards, the urban population had increased by one or two percent and had reached 23.32 percent by 1981. The urbanization process was really accelerated only after 1960 in Andhra Pradesh. This is due to the priority given by the government to improve agriculture in the state which was favoured by the presence of the huge Godavari and Krishna deltas with fertile alluvial soil and water for irrigation. The industries started during this period were mostly agro based industries in Costal Andhra earlier than Independence and only after 1961 emphasis was also laid in promoting industries in Andhra Pradesh. The increase in urban population due to industrialization, means of transportation, and establishment of educational institutions in Andhra Pradesh has resulted into over-crowding and urban poverty.

Narayana (2009) studied Education, Human Development and Quality Of Life: Measurement Issues and Implications for India, in which he analyses and compares the measurement of indicators and variables in the construction of education index in Human Development Index (HDI), at the global, national and 18 sub-national human development reports in India since 1990. The results show non-comparability of measurement of the education indicators and variables. This implies that vertical and horizontal comparability of HDI may not be plausible for India. Implications of these analyses are highlighted for measurement of quality of life indices with special reference to physical quality of life index. Policy lessons are derived for future measurement of education index for India in particular, and other developing countries in general.
A study on Health and Living Conditions in Eight Indian Cities by NFHS (2009) analyses health and living conditions in eight large Indian cities (Chennai, Delhi, Hyderabad, Indore, Kolkata, Meerut, Mumbai, and Nagpur). The report is based on data from India's 2005-06 National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3). A special feature of NFHS-3 is that the sample was designed to allow separate estimates of population, health, and nutrition indicators to be generated for each of these eight cities, as well as for the residents of slum and non-slum areas in these cities. In addition, a wealth index was constructed for households in urban India as a whole, using NFHS-3 data on household assets and housing characteristics.

For the purposes of the report, the authors defined the urban poor as those persons belonging to the lowest quartile on this wealth index. The study examined the living environment, socioeconomic characteristics of households and the population, children's living arrangements, children's work, the health and nutrition of children and adults, fertility and family planning, utilization of maternal health services, knowledge of HIV/AIDS, attitudes of adults toward schools providing family life education for children, and other important aspects of urban life for the eight cities by slum/non-slum residence and for the urban poor. The analysis showed that more than half of the population in Mumbai lives in slums, whereas the slum population varies widely in the other seven cities. Major differences in the estimation of the size of the slum population are found depending on how slum areas are defined (according to the 2001 Census designation or observation of the area by the NFHS-3 team supervisor at the time of the fieldwork). The poor population in these cities varies within a narrower range, from 7 percent in Mumbai to 20 percent in Nagpur. The analysis finds that a substantial proportion of the poor population does not live in slums and that a substantial proportion of slum dwellers are not poor (that is, they do not fall into the bottom quartile on the NFHS-3 Wealth Index). In some cities,
the poor are mostly concentrated in slum areas, whereas the reverse is true in other cities.

Although slum dwellers are generally worse off than non-slum dwellers, this pattern is not consistently true for all indicators in every city, and the differentials are quite small in some cases. However, there are large disparities in health and living conditions between the poor and the non-poor in these cities. Although there is an obvious need to improve living conditions and the health of slum dwellers, it is equally apparent that programs that focus solely on slum areas will not be able to address the urgent needs of the large poor population not living in slums.

Senlier et al (2009) in their study on “A Perception Survey for the Evaluation of Urban Quality of Life in Kocaeli and a Comparison of the Life Satisfaction with the European Cities” observed that urban quality of life (QoL) have been attracting lots of attention from various countries due to the deterioration of urban environment and decrease of the urban QoL. These studies that have been supported by international organizations such as United Nations, World Bank, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), European Commission and European Statistics (EUROSTAT) involve comparative assessment of life satisfaction in the European cities and comparing cities facilitate the exchange of experiment and improve the quality of local policies. The main objective of this study is to measure the local perceptions of QoL in Kocaeli, which is one of the important industrial cities of Turkey and compare the life satisfaction with the European cities. Generally, two different types of indicators have been used: objective and subjective indicators. The objective indicators cover five fields: socio-economic aspects, participation in civic life, education and training, environment and culture, and leisure. The subjective indicators are mainly for valuation of QoL perceptions in a city. In this research, a perception survey will be carried out to measure the local
perceptions of QoL in Kocaeli. This survey presents on issues for which the residents in the Kocaeli had widely diverging opinions: employment opportunities, housing costs, safety, and cleanliness of city, public transport, air quality and overall satisfaction with the QoL of their city. Thus, the study became a major reference for local officials to improve QoL in Kocaeli and contribute to researches on QoL in cities.

**Urbanization and Slums**

Singh (2001) in her article on Slums in Delhi: Relocations with Empowerment highlights that the size of the slum household in Delhi according to a sample survey conducted by the National Building Organization (1999) ranges from 4.1 to 7.3 persons, with more families above the average size of 6. This is due to illiteracy, lack of adequate health facilities and low income. On the whole, less than 0.04 percent of the slum population has secondary education; and 12.5 percent of the population has education between matriculation and standard education. This is part of the 31.3 percent of the slum population, which has very basic, that is primary level education. The survey found lack of infrastructure, reading material, and dilapidated conditions in the local body run schools that are located near the slums. These schools lack conscientious teachers and staff as a result of which the children studying here become victims of social abuses. What needs to be stressed is that if the aim is to improve the life and well being of these persons, then their capacity to do better has to be developed. This can be done through skill development, proper education, organized job orientation and emphasis on vocational training.

The problem of slums in Delhi is being tackled through the 'site and services' scheme. The area required for development by a land owning agency for project specific development is got vacated by relocating the slum dwellers occupying the area required. Land is acquired for relocating purposes and basic amenities provided, like water, power, roads and other social services. The
benefit of this scheme is that it gives of ownership to the relocates persons and makes them major stakeholders in the development and sustainability of the area to which they have been shifted. The flip side is that given their poor awareness and also because of forces operating in the land market, many of these persons after availing the minimal subsidy from the government, sell off their land and shift to another cluster/area for encroachment. So much so that the Supreme Court of India, in a Writ petition 888 of 1996 Almitra H. Patel vs UOI was constrained to point out that creation of slums was a good business and adversely commented on the extraneous forces that seek to retail the process of rehabilitation.

Vashishtha (2009) in her article on Rising Urbanization of Poverty-A Blot on the Shining Armor: India Urban Poverty Report 2009 reports that Urban India has a high incidence of poverty despite being hailed as an engine of growth and instrument of globalization. The pace of urbanization in India is set to increase, and with it, urban poverty and urban slums. However, public policy measures for urban India have lacked focus and proper allocation of funds. There is thus an urgent need at the national level to document the key issues in urban poverty, to assess the tasks at hand, and plan for the future.

With cities contributing over 62% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the importance of urbanization cannot be under-played. With growing poverty and slums, Indian cities have been grappling with the challenges of making the cities sustainable i.e. inclusive, productive, efficient and manageable. The sustainability of urban development in India is seen in the context of shelter and slums, basic urban services, financing urban development and governance and planning.

India has entered the Eleventh Plan period with an impressive record of economic growth. However, the pace of decline of urban poverty has not
accelerated with GDP growth. In fact, urban poverty will become a major challenge for policymakers in our country because as the urban population in the country is growing, so is urban poverty. Therefore, a need has arisen to develop new poverty reduction tools and approaches to attack the multi-dimensional issues of urban poverty. For this, policymakers at the national and local levels should have a good understanding of the nature of urban poverty as well as accurate data on various issues relating to it, in order to develop program/policies to manage urban poverty in a systematic manner. The Report proposes many solutions, few quite innovative, to improve living condition of urban poor such as ensuring greater equity in provision of basic amenities and subsidies to different states and cities, special assistance to small and medium sized towns to generate adequate resources, constitutional amendments for decentralization, reorganization of slum communities, improving sanitation standards by constructing community toilets and extending sewerage networks to slum areas, and promotion of solar, bio-gas and other non-conventional energy sources for street lights as well as for household energy use. However, to implement such reforms, we need to generate reliable data on the status of urban poor including homeless population in the slums and pavement areas. In few metro cities this process has already been started with the help of few NGOs, however, there is urgent need to track down the vulnerable population in small and medium sized cities.

Raman, (2011) in her article on The Board and the Bank: Changing Policies towards Slums in Chennai argues that the initial years of the Tamil Nadu Slum Clearance Board were dominated by the priorities of the then ruling party, the Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam, whose government created it in 1971, this paper points out that shelter policies in the state had a formal orientation away from eviction and resettlement and towards in situ tenement construction, alongside an informal tendency to protect and reward those groups of the urban poor that the party was trying to court for votes. This arrangement was affected
by the World Bank’s entry into the domain of urban-sector funding in 1975, which, despite stiff resistance from the implementing agencies, eventually managed to change the focus of local policies and to a great extent delink the TNSCB from political influence. The effects of this can be seen in the TNSCB’s current housing policies.

**Housing and Urban Development**

Housing is also critical to family well-being. It is the foundation of family life and without which all other activities are severely challenged or rendered impossible to carry out. Housing encompasses characteristics that are integral to family QOL. These characteristics include, among others, such physical attributes as quality, safety and availability and the relation of housing to its occupants in a way that it provides sufficient space so that the family is not overcrowded, it is affordable, stable and has secure tenure options (Bratt, 2002). Although some studies have shown that housing overcrowding (more than one person per room) does not have an effect on health of their occupiers (Shaly, 1995; Dunn, 2002), others have shown that overcrowding leads to a higher incidence of respiratory diseases, stomach infections and also a higher probability of death (cited in Bratt, 2002).

Dunn investigating the relation between housing, socioeconomic status, and self reported general and mental health in Vancouver, Canada, finds that:

‘*Housing is a significant engine of social inequality that has both material and psychological dimensions that may contribute to health differences.*

Self rated health was associated with housing tenure, housing demand, and housing control, after controlling for age, gender, and education.
Mental health was associated with housing tenure, housing control, housing demand, and neighborhood friendliness, after controlling for age, gender, and education” (Dunn, 2002).

Some other studies have reported meaningful relationship between such variables as overcrowding and behavior, and housing quality and functioning of children (cited in Kamp et al, 2003).

Despite the fact that housing is a key component of QOL and that poor quality housing is harmful to health, and is often associated with other social ills, the relationship between housing and other factors influencing QOL has not sufficiently been acknowledged (Jones and Riseborough, 2002).

Westawsay in her study of an informal housing settlement, Doornkop, in South Africa finds that satisfaction with housing varied over the years from 1999 till 2002, explaining 4% of the variance in neighborhood satisfaction in 1999, 28% in 2001 and 24% in 2002. She also shows that the environmental QOL is essential for life satisfaction and that housing is the most important aspect of neighborhood satisfaction (Westaway, 2006).

Zebardast (2009) studied “The Housing Domain of Quality of Life and Life Satisfaction in the Spontaneous Settlements on the Tehran Metropolitan”. The aim of this article is to survey the spontaneous settlements on the Tehran Metropolitan Fringe (TMF), to determine the different housing sub-domains of quality of life (QOL), to survey overall life satisfaction and to determine the extent to which overall life satisfaction is explained by the components of the housing domain of QOL in these spontaneous settlements. Three spontaneous settlements on the TMF were selected by stratified random sampling method. Household interviews were conducted to gather the needed data. Nineteen indicators were selected to reflect the housing sub-domains of QOL. A factor
analysis identified seven housing sub-domains of QOL: housing consolidation, housing amenities, housing space, housing quality, housing basic services, housing durability and security of tenure. In all three settlements surveyed, an inverse relationship was found between satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Very few residents expressed a neutral view about life satisfaction in the settlements surveyed. In all three settlements surveyed, respondents felt they were more satisfied with their life in their previous settlements. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the extent to which overall life satisfaction is explained by the seven extracted components of the housing domain of QOL. The results indicated that there is a direct relationship between the main reasons for migration to these settlements and the housing sub-domains of QOL.

While mentioning about Housing and Urban Development, Mohan (1992) documents that during the last four decades, while the total population of India has almost doubled, urban population has nearly quadrupled—from 50 million in 1947 to about an estimated 200 million today. It is expected to reach 315 to 330 million by 2001, while the total population would be around one billion, i.e., we are likely to have around 32-33 per cent of our population in cities and towns. This paper seeks to bring to the fore the urgent issues concerning urban development.

**Urban Issues**

UNCHS/HABITAT (1994) highlights in its report on Population, Urbanization and Quality of Life that one of the most significant failures of urban authorities in many developing country cities is that they have so far been unable to cater to the needs of the majority of their urban residents, who cannot afford the types of services offered. A major challenge for urban management is the reorientation of the objectives, goals, policies and strategies of municipal management in order to meet the needs and improve the living and working
conditions of the majority. Meeting this challenge partly requires the relaxation and rationalization of existing housing and infrastructure standards which have tended to exclude the poor, as well as the institutionalization of an enabling framework which will permit community-based organizations, individual households and the private sector to contribute towards the provision and maintenance of urban services, particularly in low-income areas. This should not be seen as an abdication of responsibility on the part of municipal authorities, but simply as an affirmation of the already existing activities which are currently filling the large gap left by formal local government.

Mitra (2002) in her article on Public-Private Partnership in Local Self-Governance mentioned that the near-breakdown of public services in the metropolitan and other urban areas in India and the inability of the municipalities in providing satisfactory level of services is leading to the redrawing of the trajectory of public goods provision and its management in recent years. A case in point is the experiment undertaken by the Kolkata Municipal Corporation in its largest wholesale fruit market Falpatti, to involve the private sector in market waste management.

Vaidya (2009) in his report on Urban Issues, Reforms and Way Forward in India highlights that India has to improve its urban areas to achieve objectives of economic development. However, urban governance and management of the services is far from satisfactory. In this context, the Government has launched a reform-linked urban investment program, JNNURM. The paper has analysed urban trends, projected population, service delivery, institutional arrangements, municipal finances, innovative financing, etc. It has also described status of JNNURM. As per population projection for 2026, level of urbanization would be different in various states. India’s future urban strategy should recognize these differences and plan accordingly. India’s future strategy should focus on:
(a) Inter-government transfers with built-in incentives to improve performance.
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(b) Capacity building of Urban Local Bodies (ULBs); (c) Investments on asset creation as well as management; (d) Integrate urban transport with land use planning; (e) Integrate various urban development and related programs at local, state and national levels; (f) Strengthen urban institutions and clarify roles of different organizations; and (g) Second generation of urban reforms should further focus on regulation, innovative financing and Public-Private Partnership (PPP), and climate change initiatives; (h) Different approach of supporting reform-linked investments needed for different states based on level of urbanization. It has recommended constitutional amendments as well as administrative actions to improve India’s urban areas. The paper has analysed a number of issues including urban trends, projected population, service delivery, institutional arrangements, municipal finances and innovation in financing that are of direct relevance to urban development in the country. It has also described status of JNNURM and recommended constitutional measures as well as administrative actions to improve India’s urban areas.

Bhagat (2011) in the article on Emerging Pattern of Urbanisation in India reports that according to the 2011 Census, urbanisation has increased faster than expected. This has reversed the declining trend in the growth rate of the urban population observed during the 1980s and 1990s. Also, for the first time since independence, the absolute increase in the urban population was higher than that in the rural population. This has huge implications for providing infrastructure and other civic amenities in urban areas.

Gidwani and Baviskar (2011) in their article on Urban Commons introduces that, from an understanding of the commons as a rural artefact, the concept has expanded to include urban spaces and practices. The destruction of common resources and the communities that depend upon them is a long-standing outcome of capitalist expansion. It is also a cause for concern, given the
ultimate centrality of the commons to the reproduction of urban populations and ecosystems.

Mahadevia (2011) in her article on Branded and Renewed? Policies, Politics and Processes of Urban Development in the Reform Era reports that hidden behind city branding exercises through large projects are acts of land capture and slum demolitions by a predatory local state and crony capitalism. In the policy arena, meanwhile, the urban, and particularly the metropolitan story has been one of deliberate confusion, and fragmentation of policy and implementation. The promise of rapid city transformation has not been met through the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission, which does something for infrastructure and something for housing but all in an uncoordinated project-by-project manner. Neither the infrastructure agenda nor shelter security for all is advanced. The urban reality instead has been one of gradual improvement, with or without these policy and branding initiatives.

The article on Bypassing the Squalor: New Towns, Immaterial Labour and Exclusion in Post-colonial Urbanisation by Bhattacharya and Sanyal (2011) brings out that India’s “bypass” approach to urbanization seeks to decongest its post-colonial metropolises by building new towns for a new economy of knowledge-based activities and businesses driven by global capital on their fringes. The globalised economy, hegemonised by immaterial labour, creates conditions for these new towns to culturally secede from their national or regional location and align themselves with the global cities. However, the condition of post-coloniality, characterised by capital and its wasteland, manifests itself in the new towns as the slow but inevitable encroachment of the excluded population on these new zones of exclusivity.

Sivaramakrishnan (2011) while writing about Urban Development and Metro Governance reports that while the outcomes of the Lok Sabha and the
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State assembly elections have been well documented and analysed, little is known about the electoral geography in urban areas. In discussing the conflicting interests of local politics and urban development, this article places the definition and understanding of what is “urban” in the context of the 74th constitutional amendment, and also looks at the expectations from and the progress on the reforms agenda of the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM). Further, the article addresses the high economic stakes and challenges involved in metro governance, while arguing that these cannot be dealt with under the general rubric of Union-State- Municipality. International experience is relevant in this regard not for the structural models followed, but because unlike in India, the subject of urban governance in most cities around the world has been a matter of serious debate and action.

It is noted that the pattern of western and Indian literature differ both in methodology and issues dealt with. It is quite obvious that even the earliest studies undertaken by authors in western literature related to Urbanization was addressing Quality of Life issues whereas, only recent studies by Das (2007) started addressing the same.

In a nutshell, the studies carried out during the early eighties till nineties, focused on the urban development in general, but through the late nineties, the studies were more focusing on urban quality of life in the context of Urbanization. And the recent studies were even more focused, in terms of assessing various aspects of Urban Quality of Life (UQoL) viz., Housing, Environment and Transport both across the nations and across Indian states. Yet, there is dearth of research studies with social work perspective understanding the holistic aspects of urbanization. Hence, the present study gains significance as it specifically aims at same with special reference to Tiruchirappalli Municipal Corporation.