Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the theoretical concepts related to the topic defining urban area, international criteria, major classifications of cities and towns. The chapter also attempts to record the historical background of urbanization, housing and urban policies across the nations and highlighting various urban development programmes in the light of impact on the people. The principal aim of this chapter is to review how urbanization affects the urban quality of life with strong theoretical models and approaches.

Urbanization is a natural consequence of economic changes that take place as a country develops. At the same time, urbanization helps to contribute to the growth process at large. This is manifest in the increasing contribution of urban sector to national income. For instance, in 1950-51 the contribution of urban sector to India's GDP was estimated at only 29 per cent, which increased to 47 per cent in 1980-81 and is likely to rise to 60 per cent by the turn of the century.

The positive role of urbanization is often over-shadowed by the evident deterioration in the physical environment and quality of life in the urban areas caused by widening gap between demand and supply of essential services and infrastructure. This results from increasing population, pressure on urban centres, most of which are financially ill-equipped to respond to infrastructural needs. Public investment in urban infrastructure has also been less than adequate. The challenge of reorienting the urbanisation process, thus, lies in overcoming the infrastructural deficiencies and taking the best advantage of economic momentum inherent in urbanisation.
Urbanization

Urbanization is a word with two different meanings. According to the United States Postal Service, 'Urbanization' is an 'area, sector or development within a geographic area'. More commonly, and for the rest of this entry, we are concerned with a different meaning. Urbanization is the name for the movement of people from rural to urban areas, and the resulting growth of cities. Urbanisation is a process that has occurred, or is occurring, in nearly every part of the world that humans have inhabited.

Simply defined, urbanization is the process of growth in the proportion of the population living in urban areas. It is distinguishable from the term "urban growth" which refers to the proportionate growth of urban areas themselves, that is, annual net additions to urban population divided by the size of the urban population (Preston, 1982). To clarify, "growth of the urban population can be looked at in two ways: on its own, in which it is described as urban growth, and as a proportion of the national population, in which the term urbanization is used" (Oucho and Gould, 1993).

Causes of Urbanisation

People move into cities to seek economic opportunities. In rural areas, often on small family farms, it is difficult to improve one's standard of living beyond basic sustenance. Farm living is dependent on unpredictable environmental conditions, and in times of drought, flood or pestilence, survival becomes extremely problematic.

Cities, in contrast, are known to be places where money and wealth are centralised. Cities are where fortunes are made and where social mobility is possible. Businesses, which generate jobs and capital, are usually located in urban areas. Whether the source is trade or tourism, it is also through the cities that foreign money flows into a country. It is easy to see why someone living on
a farm might wish to take their chance moving to the city and trying to make enough money to send back home to their struggling family.

These conditions are heightened during times of change from a pre-industrial society to an industrial one. It is at this time that many new commercial enterprises are made possible, thus creating new jobs in cities. It is also a result of industrialization that farms become more mechanized, putting many labourers out of work.

**Effects of Urbanisation**

While it is true that opportunities exist in cities, it is also true that the competition for these opportunities is fierce. Very few people make their fortunes, and the rest must still find ways to eat and sleep while they wait for their chance. This leads to one of the most obvious effects of urbanisation - the growth of slums.

**Slums**

Slums are areas where large populations of extremely poor people live in sub-standard conditions. Common features of slums include:

- **Land Insecurity** - Slum dwellers are often 'squatters', living on land that they do not officially own. The land is often owned by the government, and there is a constant danger that it may be sold out from under its powerless inhabitants. These displacements exacerbate a poverty that is already oppressive.

- **Poor Living Conditions** - The houses in slums are often made of any materials at hand, which could include mud, sticks, sheet metal, cartons, and other waste materials. Crowding is typically extreme, with entire families living in one-room structures, and very little space between one structure and the next. Sanitation is often very poor, which contributes to the spread of
diseases such as cholera, typhoid, tuberculosis, diphtheria, and bilharzias. Utilities such as electricity, water and sewage disposal are either not available or only available on a very unreliable basis.

- **Unemployment** - Since there are more people competing for jobs in the city than there are jobs available, unemployment is a constant problem. Those who are unable to find jobs find themselves wandering the slums, looking for some income-generating activity, which leads to...

- **Crime** - Slum conditions make maintenance of law and order extremely difficult, and patrolling the slums is not usually a priority for law enforcement officers. Crime is typically rampant, and common activities include drug trafficking and abuse, weapons trafficking, burglary, and prostitution. Criminal elements are sometimes organised into gangs, and are sometimes independent.

- **Accelerated Population Growth** - Recent arrivals in the city often retain the habit of having large families, which makes sense in a rural setting. In the slums, where education about family planning is not readily available, this leads to the population ballooning far beyond the capacity of the environment to support it adequately, which in turn exacerbates all of the above problems.

**Environmental Impacts of Urbanisation**

The growth of cities can have significant impact on the surrounding environment:

- **Temperature** - Due to several factors, including the paving over of formerly vegetated land and the high concentration of heat sources, cities tend to be warmer than surrounding countryside, sometimes by a difference as large as 10° Celsius. Large cities become 'regional heat islands', which can alter local weather patterns.
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- **Air Pollution** - One of the most obvious differences between an urban and a rural area is the air quality. Due in large part to heavy motor vehicle traffic, and also to energy production, a blanket of smog hangs over many cities. This polluted air is, in addition to being quite ugly, a public health problem.

- **Water Issues** - When an area is urbanised, the water cycle in the area changes dramatically. First of all, cities have more precipitation than surrounding areas, with pollutants and convection currents serving as magnets for raindrop formation. Once the water falls, instead of being absorbed by the soil, it is instead channeled into run-off systems, picking up ground pollutants along the way. This pollution is added to that brought about by industrial waste and sewage disposal, which is often untreated, especially in cities of the developing world.

- **Destruction of Habitat** - The conversion of a natural area to an urban area means the destruction of whatever was there previously. When wetlands, for example, are paved over, an ecosystem is lost, and any species dependent on that ecosystem die out in the area. A less drastic example is that of erosion - valleys tend to contain fertile topsoil, which tends to get washed away if the valley is urbanised.

**Impact of Urbanization:**

To understand the impact of new urbanization on the environment and people, it is crucial to examine these processes in medium and small cities and not restrict our inquiries to the largest and most often-studied mega cities.

Urban growth relates to four basic processes:

1. Rural to urban migration has been key source of urban growth since the origin of cities. Varied factors such as perceived economic opportunity, climatic or economic problems in the countryside, political programs of resettlement, insecurity in the countryside, and perceived “excitement” of
city life drive rural-to-urban migration. The migration rate varies over time and space and, in the developed world, may be balanced by reverse migration. In addition there is some evidence that congestion-related dis-benefits, especially related to health, and possibly transportation gridlock, are leading to migration out of mega-cities (MacKellar, cyberseminar comments).

2. Natural increase due to the combination of increased fertility and decreased mortality is probably the greatest numeric contributor to urban growth. The dramatic increase in global life expectancy from 46 to 66 years over the past 50 years reflects major reductions in infant mortality and extensions of the normal life span. The recent decrease in fertility, especially in cities where more women are educated and enter the workforce, somewhat balances this figure.

3. Cross-border immigration impacts urban growth in the developed and semi-developed world. Economic opportunities and perceived lifestyle improvements are major attractors for these migrants as are push factors of local unemployment or underemployment, environmental degradation, civil strife, and political instability.

4. Reclassification of land from rural to urban categories is both a real process of urbanization and a record-keeping shift that may or may not reflect current reality (Hugo et al, 2003). Many cities are rapidly growing at their fringes, engulfing former villages and farmlands, transforming them into dense, industrial areas, shantytowns, or less-dense suburban developments. The other process, which can take the form of annexing rural lands to ensure control when they become urbanized in the future or redefining what constitutes urban communities by national census takers, does not reflect the same demographic reality, complicating the comparative databases we all use. Although these processes are widespread, there are also countervailing
patterns that contribute to the complexity of the urban phenomena and require caution when applying generalizations. Whereas urbanization in general is leading to aggregation of population, many cities are de-concentrating. The benefits of agglomeration have been eroded by information technologies and by transportation networks. The very economies of scale that favor urbanization also favour commercial and industrial facilities that require large tracts of land, hence new locations are often far away from the central cities, with residential developments following employment to the fringe (Fulton et al, 2001; Irwin and Brockstael, 2004). Another assumed pattern that requires scrutiny is that cities are driven by and in turn drive regional economies.

**Urban Sprawl**

Urban sprawl is a later stage of urbanisation. After a city has grown vertically and filled to a certain density, it begins to grow horizontally, spilling out of its previous borders in typically low density, low efficiency developments, which can eventually extend over a sizeable area around the original city (think Los Angeles). Since urban sprawl is low-density, it quickly occupies a lot of space that might have previously been used for agriculture, or just some natural habitat.

**Benefits of Urbanisation**

From the above, the growth of cities sounds rather grim. Why should such a destructive process be allowed to continue? One should not, however, be misled. There are many benefits to cities as well.

- **Efficiency** - Cities can be tremendously efficient. For example, imagine 100 families living in 100 separate houses spread out over many acres of land. Now imagine the same 100 families in a single block of flats. Obviously, in the flats, far less effort is required to supply energy, water, heating, and waste
disposal to these families. Additionally, only in cities are such things as recycling programmes possible, because collection can be made so efficient.

- **Convenience** - In a city, everything is nearby. Access to education, health, social services and cultural events is much more readily available in a city than in a rural setting. Because things are located so closely, cities can make motor vehicle use unnecessary for many citizens. This is especially true when a city has efficient mass transportation systems in place, systems which are not feasible for rural populations.

- **Concentration of Resources** - Because of the density of people, wealth, and other resources in cities, many institutions become possible that would not be in areas where such things are more spread out. Basically, when enough people are put together in a small area, they start coming up with ideas to do things - cultural, political, commercial and social activities that just do not occur outside of cities. For example, without cities, there never would have been universities.

There is no question that urbanisation is here to stay. In 1985, 43% of the world population lived in urban areas. Population experts estimate that by the year 2025, over 60% of humans will be city-dwellers. Will these billions of people live in clean, efficient, modern cities, or will they inhabit endless slums?

**Urban Planning**

The goal of urban planning is to achieve the benefits of cities without incurring all of the negative effects. This goal is sometimes referred to as 'Sustainable Growth'. How do urban planners hope to achieve sustainable growth? The most basic rule is to plan cities, rather than to let them grow naturally. When cities are planned, it can be ensured that there is adequate infrastructure to support the population, and that residential areas are located with convenient access to major transit arteries and to social services.
The actual details of city planning are beyond the scope of this entry, and would indeed be enough to fill volumes. Suffice it to say that planning cities for sustainable growth, especially in the developing world, is one of the major challenges facing humanity at the beginning of the third millennium. This issue, along with managing the continued population boom, and effecting a fair distribution of food and other resources, is central to the question what the future will look like for humans on Earth.

**History of Urbanization in India**

The Indian subcontinent shares, with Mesopotamia and the Nile Valley, a long history of Urbanization. The first phase of Urbanization in the Indus Valley is associated with the Harappan civilization. The story of Urbanization in India in historical times is a story of spatial and temporal discontinuities. The earliest urban developments were confined to the Indus Valley and the adjoining parts of Rajasthan, Punjab and to some extent western Uttar Pradesh. Other parts of the country remained outside the pale of Urbanization. In the early historical period, Urbanization took place in the middle Ganga plains and in the southern part of the Indian peninsula, while the areas in between had no known cities. During much of the historical period, vast parts of the country were untouched or only partly affected by Urbanization. Spatial discontinuities in Urbanization continue to be an important aspect even in modern India. In recent times, Urbanization has been associated with Industrialization and economic development. In this sense, Urbanization is essentially an economic process. On the basis of the temporal discontinuities in Indian Urbanization, the urban history of India is divided into five time periods.

1. The prehistoric period (2350 to 1800 BC),
2. The early historical period (600 BC to AD 500),
3. The medieval period (AD 600 to 1800)- including the Mughal period (AD 1526 to 1800),
4. The British period (AD 1800 to 1947,) and
5. The post-independence period.

The Prehistoric Period (2300 BC to 1800 BC)

The beginnings of Urbanization in the Indian subcontinent go back to 2350 BC (about 4500 years ago) to the Indus valley region. There is ample archaeological evidence of Paleolithic settlements in northern, central and southern India. The practice of agriculture, domestication of animals together with wheel-thrown pottery, stone implements gave way to copper and later to bronze implements. It is at this stage of cultural and technological development that the larger village settlements showed distinct urban attributes; thus ushering in an era of Urbanization.

The Early Historic Period (600 BC to AD 500):

The architects of this phase were the Aryans in the North and the Dravidians in the south. The second phase of Urbanization is in many ways more important to us, because from this time onwards, urbanization became a permanent feature of the Indian landscape. This period may be divided into three parts in Northern India, consisting of the post-vedic period, the mauryan period and the post-mauryan period. In southern India, urbanization originated in the pre-sangam period and rose to great heights during the sangam period, which saw the emergence of literacy classics in Tamil.

Urbanization in the Medieval Period (AD 600 to 1800):

The decline of urban centres that began in the Gupta period (5th century AD) continued in northern India, which witnessed during this period the political disintegration of the larger empires and the emergence of unstable dynastic regimes. The decline of Buddhism gave rise to the revival of Hinduism. The story of Urbanization during this period is a story of turmoil in the North and rapid growth in the South.
Urbanization in the British Period (AD 1800 to 1947):

The British established themselves in Madras in 1639 and Calcutta in 1690. In the early 19th century, British established a firm territorial hold in India, and India came under the British crown in 1858. The consolidation of territorial power by the British in 1800 and the end of a period of political stability brought about, surprisingly, a period of stagnation and decline of urban centres in India, which lasted for well over a century. The decline of large number of urban places in India during the 19th century was primarily due to the negative attitude of the British towards the traditional industries of India, particularly the Cotton Textile Industry. The entire country, without exception, came under one political umbrella. The course of Urbanization after 1800 in all parts of India was determined by British colonial policies and social attitudes.

The Post-Independence Period

Urbanization has entered a new and more important phase in the post-independence period. It is notable for rapid Urbanization, particularly of the one-lakh and million cities. The major changes that have occurred in India’s urban scene in the post-independence period are:

1. The influx of refugees and their settlement, primarily in urban areas in northern India,
2. The building of new administrative cities, such as Chandigarh, Bhubaneswar and Gandhinagar,
3. The construction of new industrial cities and new industrial townships near major cities,
4. The rapid growth of one-lakh and million cities,
5. The stagnation, and in some cases decline, of small towns,
6. The massive increase in squatters and the proliferation of slums in the million cities, and the emergence of the rural-urban fringe, and
7. The introduction of city planning and the general improvement in civic amenities (Ramachandran, 1989)

**India’s Place in World Urbanisation**

The urban population of the world was estimated to be 2.96 billion in 2000. It was estimated that nearly 50 million people are added to the world’s urban population and about 35 million to the rural population each year. The share of world’s population living in urban centres has increased from 39 per cent in 1980 to 48 percent in 2000. The developed countries have higher urbanisation level (76 per cent in 2000) compared with the developing countries (40 percent). The urbanisation level has almost stabilised in the developed countries. (United Nations, 1993)

**Research on Livability and Urban Quality of Life**

Livability and urban QoL appear as important indicators on the sustainable development of settlements. Many scientific researches and institutional studies made until today on these subjects build up principles on increasing urban QoL.

While in 1970s, during the first studies on urban QoL in the United States and in England, the definition of life quality was the main topic (Wish, 1986), in time, studies began to focus on measuring the urban QoL and determination of objective and subjective indicators (Stimson et al., 1999; Yuan et al., 1999; Cummins, 1999; Seik, 2000; Diener and Lucas, 2000; Moller, 2001; Mee, 2002; Kamp et al., 2003; Lee, 2005; McCrea et al., 2006).

Cummins (1999) in his definition of QoL in both objective and subjective manner, states that seven important topics arise, such as, welfare, health, productivity, privacy, security, population, and emotional welfare. Objective
area covers criterion related with the culture. Subjective area on the other hand has a wider coverage with perceptions.

Kamp et al (2003) emphasize that urban QoL is associated with several components like personal and communal development, health, security, physical environment, and natural resources.

Stimson et al (1999) defined urban QoL and its dimensions as economical, social and environmental livability and developed an urban metabolism model. In this model that they developed by focusing on the urban QoL in parallel to the sustainable development, they build up a theoretical frame to analyze the performance of the city as a complex and dynamic formation. They utilized the urban metabolism approach to display the conceptual basis of developing the functionality of cities, measuring changes, growth, and QoL.

**Urban Development in India**

The twentieth century has been called the age of urbanization. At its commencement, the world was predominantly rural; only 8 per cent of the population lived in urban settlements. By 1950, the percentage had risen to 29 and by 1990 to 45. It is estimated to be around 50 at present. The current decade, 1990-2000, has seen an increase of about 83 per cent in the world urban population, and the cities have added, on an average, about 81 million people annually. Cities in India are undergoing rapid changes because of increase in population and strain on infrastructure. The Ministry of Urban Development and Poverty alleviation is entrusted with the responsibility of planning of different facets of urban development.

**Urban Development**

Urban Development is a State subject but the Ministry has the responsibility of broad policy formation and monitoring of programmes in the
areas of Urban Development. The Ministry of Urban Development is formulating a National Urban Policy keeping in view the recommendations of the National Commission on Urbanization (NCU), the economic reforms and the elements of national urbanization strategy list out in the regional Action Plan on Urbanisation adopted by the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) countries vide the New Delhi Declaration.

The Constitution (74th Amendment) Act, 1992 relating to Municipalities (known as the Nagarpalika Act) was passed by Parliament in the Winter Session of 1992 and it received the assent of the President on 20.4.1993. This Act seeks to provide a common framework for the structure and mandate of Urban Local Bodies to enable them to function as effective democratic units of Local Self-Government.

The Urban Land (Ceiling & Regulation) Repeal Act, 1999 was notified in the Gazette on 22.3.1999 in replacement of an Ordinance on the same subject. The Repeal Act has already come into force in the States of Haryana, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Gujarat & Karnataka and all the Union Territories. These guidelines basically emphasise the need for imposition of vacant land tax, on the land likely to be made available after the repeal of the Act and a provision for Economically Weaker Section (EWS) and Lower Income Group (LIG) category houses, while sanctioning housing projects.

The total population of the country has increased from 361 million in 1951 to 844 million by 1991, whereas, urban population increased from 62 million to 217 million, while in the same period, the number of urban agglomerations has increased to 3768 from 2843. This indicates that the increase in urban population was 250% whereas increase in urban agglomerations was only 32%. To improve the economic and physical infrastructure and to provide essential facilities and services the Centrally sponsored, scheme of Integrated
Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT) was initiated in the year 1979-80 and is being continued with timely amendment and modifications.

**Water Supply and Sanitation**

Water supply and sanitation are important basic needs affecting the quality of life and productive efficiency of the people. The Ministry of Urban Development (MoUD) and Poverty Alleviation assists the State Governments/UTs by providing guidance of schemes, Central assistance, facilities for training, seminars/workshops and external assistance from bilateral/multilateral agencies. Under the Accelerated Urban Water Supply Programme (AUWSP), up to 31.3.1999 330 water supply schemes in 330 towns were approved at a cost of Rs.341.04 crores and central assistance of Rs.136.57 crores was released by the Ministry to different State Governments as central share. During the year 1990-2000, detailed project reports for 74 towns at a cost of Rs.112.60 crores have been approved by the Ministry and an amount of Rs.31.30 crores has been released to various State Governments. The need to effectively manage solid waste is also one of the priorities.

**Urban Transport**

Urban Transport is one of the most important components of urban infrastructure. A good network roads and an efficient Mass Urban Transport System make a substantial contribution to the "working efficiency" of a large city.

Urban population of India is projected to be 308 million by 2001 and 538 million by 2021 which will be 29.3% and 37.1% of country’s total population. The number of class-I cities is expected to rise to 437 by 2001 and 781 by 2021. The number of million-plus (metropolitan) cities is expected to be around 51 by 2021. The Total population in million-plus cities which was about 71 million in 1991 is projected to grow to 164 million by 2021 A.D.
Average two wheeler and car ownership levels in metropolitan cities, which were 112 and 14 per 1000 population in 1994, are expected to grow to 393 and 48 respectively; by the year 2021. This would mean 53 million two wheelers and 6 million cars in next 20 years in metropolitan cities.

At present, a subsidy of 40% is given by the Central Government to State Governments for the preparation of Comprehensive Traffic System Management plans, feasibility studies and for Urban Transportation Projects i.e. Mass Urban Transport Projects.

The proposal for Delhi Metro Rail Transport System (MRTS) Project was approved ‘in principle’ by Union Government in 1994. However, the investment proposals for the 1st phase of Delhi MRTS were approved by the Union Government only in September, 1996. The project envisages introduction of a metro rail system of about 55.3 kms comprising of 11 kms of underground rail corridors. The total cost of the project is about Rs.4860 crore at April’96 prices.

**Housing and Urban Policy in India**

The policies of urban development and housing in India have come a long way since 1950s. The pressure of urban population and lack of housing and basic services were very much evident in the early 1950s. In some cities this was compounded by migration of people from Pakistan. However, the general perception of the policy makers was that India is pre-dominantly an agricultural and rural economy and that there are potent dangers of over urbanisation which will lead to the drain of resources from the countryside to feed the cities. The positive aspects of cities as engines of economic growth in the context of national economic policies were not much appreciated and, therefore, the problems of urban areas were treated more as welfare problems and sectors of residual investment rather than as issues of national economic importance.
In the First Five Year Plan (1951-56), the emphasis was given on institution building and on construction of houses for Government employees and weaker sections. The Ministry of Works & Housing was constituted and National Building Organisation and Town & Country Planning Organisation were set up. A sizeable part of the plan outlay was spent for rehabilitation of the refugees from Pakistan and on building the new city of Chandigarh. An Industrial Housing Scheme was also initiated. The Centre subsidised Scheme to the extent of 50% towards the cost of land and construction.

The scope of housing programme for the poor was expanded in the Second Plan (1956-61). The Industrial Housing Scheme was widened to cover all workers. Three new schemes were introduced, namely, Rural Housing, Slum Clearance and Sweepers Housing. Town & Country Planning Legislations were enacted in many States and necessary organisations were also set up for preparation of Master Plans for important towns.

The general directions for housing programmes in the Third Plan (1961-66) were co-ordination of efforts of all agencies and orienting the programmes to the needs of the Low Income Groups. A Scheme was introduced in 1959 to give loans to State Governments for a period of 10 years for acquisition and development of land in order to make available building sites in sufficient numbers. Master Plans for major cities were prepared and the State capitals of Gandhi Nagar and Bhubaneswar were developed.

The balanced urban growth was accorded high priority in the Fourth Plan (1969-74). The Plan stressed the need to prevent further growth of population in large cities and need for decongestion or dispersal of population. This was envisaged to be achieved by creation of smaller towns and by planning the spatial location of economic activity. Housing and Urban Development
Corporation (HUDCO) was established to fund the remunerative housing and urban development programmes, promising a quick turnover. A Scheme for Environmental Improvement or Urban Slums was undertaken in the Central Sector from 1972-73 with a view to provide a minimum level of services, like, water supply, sewerage, drainage, street pavements in 11 cities with a population of 8 lakhs and above. The scheme was later extended to 9 more cities.

The Fifth Plan (1974-79) reiterated the policies of the preceding Plans to promote smaller towns in new urban centres, in order to ease the increasing pressure on urbanisation. This was to be supplemented by efforts to augment civic services in urban areas with particular emphasis on a comprehensive and regional approach to problems in metropolitan cities. A Task Force was set up for development of small and medium towns. The Urban Land (Ceiling & Regulation) Act was enacted to prevent concentration of land holding in urban areas and to make available urban land for construction of houses for the middle and low income groups.

The thrust of the planning in the Sixth Plan (1980-85) was on integrated provision of services along with shelter, particularly for the poor. The Integrated Development of Small and Medium Towns (IDSMT) was launched in towns with population below one lakh for provision of roads, pavements, minor civic works, bus stands, markets, shopping complex etc. Positive inducements were proposed for setting up new industries and commercial and professional establishments in small, medium and intermediate towns.

The Seventh Plan (1985-90) stressed on the need to entrust major responsibility of housing construction on the private sector. A three-fold role was assigned to the public sector, namely, mobilisation for resources for housing, provision for subsidised housing for the poor and acquisition and development of land. The National Housing Bank was set up to expand the base
of housing finance. National Buildings Organization (NBO) was reconstituted and a new organisation called Building Material Technology Promotion Council (BMTPC) was set up for promoting commercial production of innovative building materials. A network of Building Centres was also set up during this Plan period. The Seventh Plan explicitly recognised the problems of the urban poor and for the first time an Urban Poverty Alleviation Scheme known as Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP) was launched.

As a follow-up of the Global Shelter Strategy (GSS), National Housing Policy (NHP) was announced in 1988. The long term goal of the NHP was to eradicate houselessness, improve the housing conditions of the inadequately housed and provide a minimum level of basic services and amenities to all. The role of Government was conceived, as a provider for the poorest and vulnerable sections and as a facilitator for other income groups and private sector by the removal of constraints and the increased supply of land and services.

The National Commission of Urbanisation (NCU) submitted its report. The Report eloquently pointed out the reality of continuing and rapid growth of the urban population as well as the scale and intensity of urbanisation, the critical deficiencies in the various items of infrastructure, the concentration of vast number of poor and deprived people, the acute disparities in the access of shelter and basic services, deteriorating environmental quality and the impact of poor governance on the income and the productivity of enterprises.

In the backdrop of this report the **Eighth Plan** (1992-97) for the first time explicitly recognised the role and importance of urban sector for the national economy. While growth rate of employment in the urban areas averaged around 3.8% per annum, it dropped to about 1.6% in the rural areas. Therefore, the urban areas have to be enabled to absorb larger increments to the labour force. The Plan identified the key issues in the emerging urban scenario:
• the widening gap between demand and supply of infrastructural services badly hitting the poor, whose access to the basic services like drinking water, sanitation, education and basic health services is shrinking
• unabated growth of urban population aggravating the accumulated backlog of housing shortages, resulting in proliferation of slums and squatter settlement and decay of city environment
• high incidence of marginal employment and urban poverty as reflected in NSS 43\textsuperscript{rd} round that 41.8 million urban people lived below the poverty line.

The response of the Plan to this scenario was the launching of Urban Poverty and Alleviation Programme of Nehru Rojgar Yojana (NRY)

National Housing and Habitat Policy 1998 was formulated to address the issues of sustainable development, infrastructure and for strong public private partnership. The objective of the policy are to create surpluses in housing stock and facilitate construction of 2 million additional dwelling units each year in pursuance of National Agenda for Governance. It also seeks to ensure that housing along with-supporting services is treated as priority sector at par with infrastructure. (Source: Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation)
Table 1
Plan Outlay in Housing and Urban Development Sector

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<tr>
<th>Plan</th>
<th>Total Outlay (Rs. in million)</th>
<th>Housing &amp; Urban Development (Rs. in million)</th>
<th>Percentage share in the total</th>
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<td>Eleventh Plan</td>
<td>3687000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation)

In analytically reviewing urban policy in India as contained in the Five-Year Plans and in the actual programmes launched, some broad influences can be seen to have been at work shaping policy. One of them has been the trajectory of capital accumulation since the early 1950s, and the strengthening of demand politics in the mid-1960s. While these perhaps do help understand the broad directions of policies, specific details of policy-making with regard to the management of urban growth can be better understood as an offshoot of
modernist ideas and influences on the thinking of professional planners and policy-makers. (Shaw, 1996)

The Future Urbanisation

India has launched the programmes of economic liberalisation since 1991. Some of the proponents of this strategy of linking the country with the global economy would accelerate rural to urban migration and boost urban growth in 1990s and the following decade. The expectation is evidently based on the assumption that there will be a massive inflow of capital both from within and outside the country resulting in rapid development of infrastructure and industrial growth. This is likely to give impetus to the process of urbanisation in the country since much of the industrial growth and consequent growth in employment would be within or around the existing urban centres (Kundu, 1997).

This enthusiasm is not correct. The benefits of liberalisation will accrue to only those who could acquire new skills commensurate with the demands of liberalisation of the economy. In view of sluggish growth in employment that too of skilled nature, it impossible for the common man and the poor to benefit from the liberalisation. Secondly, foreign investments are coming only in selected sectors concentrated only few pockets of the country in around metro cities. And the magnitude of foreign investment is low in India compared to China. For example, in spite of several allurements only approximately 3.5 billion $ (1.8 percent of total across the countries) of the foreign direct investment (FDI) reached to India in 1998 compared with 43.8 billion $ (7 per cent) in China (World Bank, 2001). Moreover, it is not likely to benefit the urban centers of non-metropolitan nature. Therefore, it will not be correct to think that urban growth and rural to urban migration will accelerate in future. On the other hand, critics of new development strategy have pointed out that the opening of the economy will destabilise the agrarian economy, resulting in high
unemployment and massive exodus from rural areas. This would lead to rapid
growth of population in urban centres. This view is also not correct because it is
uphill task for the poor people to survive in a situation of rising cost of living
and increasing difficulty to accommodate themselves in the bloated informal
sector. There is an increasing casualisation of work in the post liberalisation
period also (Deshpande, 1998).

It has further strained the informal sector- a refuge for poor migrants from
rural areas. Thus in view of sluggish growth in employment and increasing
casualisation of work in the 1990s, and the persistence of the under currents of
sons of the soil factor backed by regional-linguistic political parties in different
states of India, it is difficult to believe that the pace of urbanization or rural to
urban migration will likely to accelerate in near future. On the contrary, the
liberalisation as such by benefiting the people and urban centres selectively is
potentially loaded for likely increase in intra-urban and urban-rural inequality.
(Bhagat, 2003)

About Tiruchirappalli

Tiruchirappalli is one of the oldest inhabited cities in Tamil Nadu. Woraiyur, which served as the capital of the Early Cholas from the 3rd century
BC to the 3rd century AD is a suburb of present-day Tiruchirappalli. The oldest
human-built dam, Kallanai, was built by Karikala Cholan across the Kaveri
River about 10 miles from Uraiyur.

The medieval history of Tiruchirappalli begins with the reign of the
Pallava king Mahendravarman I who ruled over South India in the 6th century
AD. Mahendravarman laid the foundation of the Rockfort which is regarded as
the cultural symbol of the city and is one of the oldest surviving monuments in
Tamil Nadu. Following the demise of the Pallavas in the 8th century AD,
Tiruchirappalli was conquered by the Medieval Cholas under whom it served as a regional stronghold.

When the Chola Empire began to decline, Tiruchirappalli was conquered by the Pandyas who ruled from 1216 to 1311 when they were defeated by Malik Kafur. The victorious armies of the Sultanate are believed to be plundered and ravaged the kingdom. According to a local legend, the idol of Lord Ranganatha in the Hindu temple of Sirangam was saved from destruction by transporting it out of the city. Tiruchirappalli was ruled by the Delhi Sultanate and the Madurai Sultanate from 1311 to 1378 when it was annexed by the Vijayanagar Empire. Tiruchirappalli remained a part of the Vijayanagar Empire and its successor, the Madurai Nayak Dynasty from 1378 to 1736. Under the Madurai Nayak kingdom, Tiruchirappalli was an important stronghold in the wars against the Thanjavur Marathas and later, Chanda Sahib. It served as the capital of the kingdom from 1616 to 1634 and from 1665 to 1736. In 1736, the last Madurai Nayak ruler Meenakshi committed suicide and Tiruchirappalli was conquered by Chanda Sahib who ruled the kingdom from 1736 to 1740 when he was captured and killed by the Thanjavur Marathas.

As of 2001, Trichy had a population of 7,52,066 within the corporation limits and the urban agglomeration had a population of 8,66,354. Recent estimates peg the population of Trichy city to be 10,27,436, while the urban agglomeration has a population of 13,39,534. Males constitute 49.97% of the population and females 50.03%. Trichy has an average literacy rate of 91.45%, and is among the highest literate cities in India. Male literacy is 94.17% and female literacy is 88.73%. In Trichy 9.59% of the population is less than 6 years of age. The city's population is predominantly Hindu (with both Saivaite and Vaishnavaite), and there are sizable population of Christians and Muslims. Around 10 percent of the population is Christian and the city is known for the
number of churches it contains. Sikhs and Jains are also present in smaller numbers.

Table 2
Historical Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>%±</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>76,530</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1881</td>
<td>84,449</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1891</td>
<td>90,609</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>104,721</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>123,512</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>120,422</td>
<td>(-)2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>142,843</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>159,566</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>218,921</td>
<td>37.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>249,862</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>361,774</td>
<td>44.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>609,538</td>
<td>68.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>668,648</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>752,066</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: http://www.trichycorporation.gov.in/)

For administrative convenience, the Corporation has been divided into four zones, namely

I. Srirangam Zone
II. Ariyamangalam Zone
III. Golden Rock Zone
IV. K. Abishekapuram Zone

Each zone is headed by an Assistant Commissioner who is assisted by Assistant Executive Engineer, Administrative Officer, Assistant Revenue Officer and Sanitary Inspectors.
Expansion of Tiruchirappalli Town

The industrial development in the Tiruchirappalli town is parallel with the urban expansion, which became the dominant characteristic of the spatial organisation. This characteristic can be seen both in the increase of urban population as well as at the territory occupied by these activities. Being so, it is necessary to know the features and effects of urbanization to understand the significance of this phenomenon but also to gather information for urban and regional planning.

The population of Tiruchirappalli Town has increased to 14% in 1961, 23% in 1971 and 17% in 1981. The increase in 1971 is much high. The increase in population caused heavy demand for residential house, which reflects the development of housing colonies. The urban development of this town is very fast in 1971 because of the growth of residential, commercial, industrial and recreational lands. Up to 1997, the changes in the urbanization are not many however little changes existed and 1971 onwards the development has been steady. The cross references about the Housing Board and private colony development analyses show in 1971, the number of house sites are 1630 and after 1982 it has increased to 2527 sites and it represents the fast growth of urban development of this town (Annammal, 1989).

The transition from rural to urban is happening chaotically, resulting in a disorganized urban landscape. Although many expect urbanization to mean an improved quality of life, this rising tide does not lift all boats, and many poor people are rapidly being absorbed into urban slums. Urbanization, in fact, is a health hazard for certain vulnerable populations, and this demographic shift threatens to create a humanitarian disaster. The threat comes both in the form of
rising rates of endemic disease and a greater potential for epidemics and even pandemics.

The urban quality of life among different categories of urban residents viz., residents of apartments, slum dwellers, middle class population greatly vary. As a person, who has been witnessing the urbanization of the city from the childhood days, the researcher has attempted the present study to understand the quality of life in the city in the light of urbanization.