CHAPTER – I
INTRODUCTION

Industrialisation and urbanisation have become the two important wings of development. Mobility of people and urbanisation have been accelerated by good roads and cheap and quick modes of transport. The process of urbanisation is a universal phenomenon, which refers to the population of a nation living in urban areas. It is also a process by which villages turn into towns and towns into cities and so on. Urbanisation means the redistribution of population and a change in demographic balance between rural and urban areas. They are otherwise called as creation and expansion of cities.

In the 21st Century, the rate of urbanisation is much more in developing regions than developed regions. More than half of the world's population lives in urban areas. Today's global urban population is 3.3 billion which is projected to reach 5 billion by 2030 and 90% of this growth will take place in developing countries. In recent decades, India is experiencing rapid growth of urbanisation. According to 2011 census, for the first time since independence, the absolute increase in population is more in urban areas than in rural areas. The level of urbanisation increased from 27.81% (2001) to 31.16% in 2011 and the proportion of rural population declined from 72.19% to 68.84%.

Urbanisation produces a new type of civilization and a new culture quite distinct from those of rural societies. There goes on a continuous transformation of rural societies into urban societies. There is no universally accepted definition of urban settlements. Different countries adopt different criteria for defining urban
settlements. Urban places are not even similar in character. They should be distinguished not only on the basis of defined demographic characteristics but also on the basis of infrastructure. In India, the criteria for defining urban centers are more or less similar to the one suggested by the United Nations. The Indian urban area is defined by places having a minimum population of 5000 with at least 75% of male workers engaged in non-agricultural activities and the density of population should be 400 persons per sq.km.

The degree of urbanisation is regarded as an index of the levels of socio-economic development. An increasing level of urbanisation is associated with an overall economic development or industrialization. The continuous shift of the rural population to urban centers for employment in non-agricultural sector is one of the essential conditions for economic progress of a country. Urbanisation facilitates process of modernization, the spread of science and the attitude of economic rationality.

As urbanisation brings overall economic development, it has got greater impact on the development of women in a country like India. The percentage of female population in the total population is nearly 50 percent. Women contribute a lot in all aspects of the country. But still they are backward and have to be developed.

There are a number of factors which are responsible for the development of women. These factors can be studied under three broad headings namely social factors, economic factors and political factors. In the context of women development, urbanisation also plays a vital role apart from above said factors.

Urbanisation provides greater opportunities to women folk in the towns and cities. Both the literate and illiterate women find lot of openings. Towns and cities
offer huge number of facilities like education, training, both employment and self employment and some way of living which leads to the development of women.

**Rural-to-Urban Migration**

Rural-to-urban and urban-urban migration, within or between countries, play an important role in the increased urbanisation of the global landscape. Today, women represent 48 percent of international migrants worldwide and more than half (52 percent) of all international migrants in developed regions. In the global South, women make up 43 percent of the international migrant population (UN DESA 2013c). Women have typically made up a slightly higher proportion of internal migrants worldwide, with rural-rural movement the most common form of female migration, particularly in Africa. In 15 countries, however, women most often move between urban spaces (UN DESA 2008)

**Push and Pull Factors**

Migration to urban areas is influenced by a number of push and pull factors. Many migrants seek the economic opportunities offered by urban areas as a way to escape rural poverty and insecurity. Urban jobs, either in the formal or informal sector, are more numerous and reliable, and often provide higher and more stable incomes than rural jobs, which are often prone to fluctuation due to seasonal changes, environmental stress, or market mechanisms (COHRE 2008; Deshingkar and Grimm 2004; Tacoli 2012).

Expanded independence, the possibility for social mobility, and the economic opportunity associated with city life are often viewed as a potential path to a better standard of living for women and their families (Deshingkar and Grimm 2005;
Urban areas offer an escape from restrictive gender roles and heightened risks of violence that can characterize rural women’s lives, while also providing increased opportunities for paid work, property ownership, improved health, and education (Inter-Agency Task Force on Rural Women 2012; IOM 2009; Tacoli and Mabala 2010). Formal employment is more abundant for women in cities, stemming from trends like the preference for female labor in export-oriented industries and the growing need for domestic care workers (Moghadam 1999; Tacoli 2012). The informal economy can also be an attractive option, offering more opportunities for paid work to groups, like women, that have historically experienced discrimination in employment (Deshingkar and Grimm 2004).

Push factors originating in rural areas also motivate women’s migration to urban settings. Rural women are particularly disadvantaged in comparison with their male counterparts, as well as in comparison with urban men and women (Inter-Agency Task Force on Rural Women 2012). Rural women are faced with greater (unpaid) reproductive and household responsibilities that significantly limit their opportunities for employment in comparison with women in urban areas. When able to find paid work, rural women are typically relegated to jobs that have fewer protections than those held by men, are more likely to be precarious and temporary in duration, are lower-paid, and often involve inflexible work hours that leave little time for women to attend to their home and care duties (Inter-Agency Task Force on Rural Women 2012). Women in rural areas also often face difficulties accessing assets, especially land, credit, and information essential to their ability to enter the agricultural industry or other areas of entrepreneurship common to rural settings (FAO, IFAD, and ILO 2010; Tacoli and Mabala 2010).
Challenges Facing Women Migrants

Rural women migrants who seek better lives in cities face challenges when accessing the range of rights and opportunities available to other urban residents. Migrant women, especially those who are undocumented, are more likely to experience labour market exploitation and are at greater risk of kidnapping or trafficking. Migrants who are unable to acquire legal urban residence are often excluded from accessing public sector jobs or government provided education and health care, applying for a driver’s license, and registering to vote. In consequence, rural migrants are subordinated to their urban counterparts, denied permanent urban residency and viewed as a source of cheap labour to be used and exploited by the urban labour market (Zhang 2014).

Restrictive work permits cause additional problems for women migrants’ rights and mobility in cities. Migrant workers often live at the whim of employers to whom such permits are issued (and who may have confiscated their passports, visas, and other identity documents) (United States Department of State 2012). Tied to a specific job, wage level and working conditions, these workers are frequently unable to change employers or seek justice for exploitation, without the risk of becoming undocumented and criminalized, or outright deportation (UN Women 2013). The threat of deportation is also linked to health screenings of migrant workers, which they must undergo to gain and renew their documented status, including screening for HIV and periodic pregnancy tests. In Singapore, for example, women found to be pregnant, must either leave the country to give birth or have an abortion (IOM 2010). Finally, women migrant workers have limited or no access to legal assistance or gender-sensitive support services to provide them with recourse for human rights violations they experience in the course of their employment (United Nations General Assembly 2013).
**Challenges Faced by Urban Women**

**Women’s Employment**

With more than half of the world’s population now living in urban areas, women’s employment has been growing, especially in service, manufacturing and public sector jobs. As a result, more women are engaged in paid employment than at any other time in world history (Chant and Datu forthcoming). Entrepreneurship and employment, often seen as a direct path to urban women’s economic empowerment, are central to the ‘feminization’ of the urban labour force (Tacoli 2012; UN HABITAT 2013). As women’s employment in urban settings has increased, women have become better able to provide for themselves and their families, while also experiencing a relaxation of the gendered social norms that have traditionally subordinated women to men (Tacoli and Satterthwaite 2013). According to the World Bank (2013b), “The potential of urbanisation to close the gender gap in earnings and enhance women’s empowerment is enormous”.

Economic empowerment, prosperity and poverty reduction, however, are not inevitable outcomes of paid employment for urban women. Significant barriers hindering progress towards true gender equality in employment and economic empowerment remain, demanding policy change that supports the full engagement of women as urban citizens. Employment options for women in cities perpetuate the association of women with the private sphere while providing few supports for them to easily balance care and household responsibilities with paid employment. At the same time, women are increasingly responsible for unpaid work at the community level, increasing even further the time poverty that women face on a daily basis (Brouder and Sweetman 2015).
Formal Employment for Urban Women

Women now represent more than 40 percent of the global labour force (UN HABITAT 2013). Economic opportunities for women are often still limited, however, especially when age, education and socio-economic status are taken into consideration. Urban economic sectors have opened many doors for women, especially in commerce and domestic service. Domestic service employs between 4 and 10 percent of the workforce of developing economies alone, with women making up 74 to 94 percent of domestic service workers (World Bank 2011). Caregiving and domestic work, however, is often under-paid and under-valued, specifically because gender discrimination has led society to devalue jobs that are seen as traditionally “female” work (Brouder and Sweetman 2015; World Bank 2014).

Globalization has also brought about the rise in manufacturing as a new sector for women’s formal employment in developing countries. Women make up 70 to 90 percent of the workers at multinational electronics and garment factories alone, most of which are located in urban areas (ILO 2014; UN Habitat 2013). Women are the preferred labourers for manufacturing jobs – jobs that are traditionally low-paid, low-skilled, labour intensive and precarious because they are stereotypically seen as docile, cheap, and efficient. (Chant 2013; Chant and Datu forthcoming). Poorer and less educated women, in particular, are often siloed into arduous, low-paid manufacturing jobs, which can be both physically and emotionally harmful (Elson and Pearson 1981).

New opportunities for women have also come from the expansion of the information and communication technology (ICT) sector. Some women have been able to take advantage of the expansion of call centers and IT technical assistance jobs.
that often come with higher pay and shorter hours. These jobs, however, are almost exclusively filled by middle and upper-class women who are English speaking and educated (UNRISD 2010). Chant and Datu (forthcoming) have also found that even where women are employed in ICT jobs, they are more likely to be confined to entry level or routine jobs, such as data entry. Women, especially poor women, are less likely than men to learn advanced computer skills. Additionally, in middle and lower-income countries, computer skills are often not taught in schools until the secondary or tertiary level. As a result, girls who are withdrawn from school before completing these levels of education miss out on these lessons (Chant and Datu forthcoming; UN HABITAT 2013). Thus, the emerging opportunities in developing countries for formal employment in the ICT industry are limited and only benefit more advantaged subsets of urban women.

**Informal Employment for Urban Women**

The majority of women in developing countries, especially poor women, work in the informal sector; although the extent of women’s informal employment varies greatly by region. In South Asia, for example, 83 percent of employed women work in the informal economy, as do 74 percent of women in sub-Saharan Africa and 54 percent in Latin American and Caribbean (Chen and Skinner forthcoming).

Women’s informal employment includes work such as street vending, waste picking and work in small-scale family businesses (which is sometimes unpaid). No matter what type, however, informal jobs are largely unregistered, poorly paid and lacking in social protections (Chant 2014; Chen and Skinner forthcoming). For example, women who are waste pickers-those who collect, sort, recycle and sell valuable materials often work in deplorable conditions, are subject to street
harassment, receive little to no support from authorities and are subject to arbitrary pricing by middlemen. As in the formal economy, women are often confined to the lower levels of the informal workforce. Women are most often employed in the actual work of waste picking and sorting through garbage to find valuable materials and recyclables, while men collect and sort the recyclables before they are sold to vendors (Chen and Skinner forthcoming). Unregistered street vendors are also likely to experience harassment by police, who may confiscate their wares and make them pay a fine before their goods are returned. Women, who are more likely than men to sell perishables such as fruits and vegetables, suffer doubly from this type of confiscation, as their wares can spoil and become unsellable after confiscation (Roever 2014).

Recently, much attention has been paid to increased microfinance for women and home-based enterprises as a promising opportunity to promote women’s economic empowerment. Women use funds from micro-loans to support enterprises like seamstress or laundry work, the preparation and/or sale of food and drinks, the fabrication of crafts or house-hold goods, the operation of small general stores, or the operation of hairdressing parlours. While not as prevalent, some women will run eateries, diners, bars, gambling parlours, or tiny neighborhood cinemas out of their homes (Chant 2014; Chant and Datu forthcoming). Though microfinance has been seen as successful, the home-based work it supports is usually small-scale and profits are often too sparse to allow an expansion of economic activities beyond the micro-enterprise level, leading to a limited impact on poverty reduction (Casier 2010; Chant 2014; Garikipati 2010; Sweetman 2010). Using mobile phone technology is a cost and time-effective way to deliver financial services to women. Through the use of mobile phones, women can access micro-credit loans and conduct financial transactions without having to travel long distances, or go through potentially predatory
middlemen (Buvinić, Furst-Nichols, and Pryor 2013). However, women who lack access to mobile phones are unable to take advantage of such opportunities.

Despite the increasing prevalence of microfinance initiatives, many women still lack access to the assets and capital necessary to successful entrepreneurship. Land and property can be key to women’s ability to start a home-based business, as most lending is dependent on the use of land or property as collateral for loans or other financial services (Chant 2007; COHRE 2004). The legal barriers and cultural norms that restrict women’s rights to own property or land, however, compound the difficulties facing women who want to pursue new opportunities to better provide financially for them selves and their families.

**Objectives**

1. To study the pattern / trend of urbanisation in Trichy District;
2. To have an empirical analysis of socio-economic determinants of urban women;
3. To analyze the impact of urbanisation on women development;
4. To analyze the consequences of increased urbanisation; and
5. To suggest possible measures to overcome negative consequences of urbanisation.

**Hypotheses**

1. Pull factors are more significant than the push factors for the growth of urbanisation.
2. Migration of women from rural to urban largely depends on economic factors than social factors.
3. Urbanisation promotes decision-making power of women.
Significance of the study

Urbanisation plays an important role in the process of economic development and growth of a nation. Every nation's prosperity depends on economic growth and development. In that case, the fundamental thing for economic growth and development of a nation is urbanisation.

All over the world, the countries which are developed and the countries which are on the road to growth and development, have given importance for urbanisation. As a result, cities and towns were formed. People started to move from rural areas to urban areas. Almost, all the developing nations have gone for growth and development. They are growing at a faster rate with rapid urbanisation. Thus urbanisation has now become an important feature or integral part of economic growth and development in the developing countries.

The developed and advanced nations of the world are also not exempted from urbanisation. They are developed but still they concentrate on the improvement of the cities and towns with better amenities. Every nation aims at urbanisation with super qualities by competing with each other.

The world population is 17.25 billion as on 2014 of which urban population comprises 3.9 billion. In 2009, the number of people living in urban areas were 3.42 billion which surpassed the number of living in rural areas (3.41 billion). Since then, the world has become more urban than rural.

The population division of the United Nation's Department of Economic and Social Affairs predicted that the urban population would grow to 6.4 billion by 2050 with 37% of that growth to come from three countries namely China, India and Nigeria. Urban areas are created, further developed by the process of urbanisation.
Statement of the problem

Urbanisation is an important activity of a nation which aims at economic development and growth. In the process of growth and development of developed countries, urbanisation has played a dominant role. But the overall development of a nation also depends on the development of human resource. Development of human beings refers to the development of the population which refers to the development of both the sexes. All over the world from the beginning the position of male is far better than the position of female. Women as a part of the human resource must be developed first. Women development depends on the empowerment of women. Empowerment of women depends on urbanisation.

The development of women may take place in any economy at any stage, but it requires development of women in terms of educational status, economic status, financial status, social status, occupational status, political status, etc. To attain all these above statuses, transformation is necessary and that is possible only with urbanisation. Hence the researcher has chosen to study the impact of urbanisation on women development in Trichy District.

Plan of the Study

The present study is planned, organized and presented in seven chapters.

The introductory chapter presents the rural and urban migration, push and pulls factors, statement of the problem, objectives, hypotheses, significance of the study and plan of the study.

The second chapter comprises a critical review of literature, dealing with theoretical background as well as past studies related to urbanisation, concepts used, sampling design, tools of data analysis and limitations of the study.
The third chapter portrays the description of the study region including profile of Tamil Nadu state and profile of Tiruchirappalli district.

The fourth chapter examines the pattern and trend of urbanisation in Tiruchirappalli district.

The fifth chapter presents the socio-economic profile of the sample respondents.

The sixth chapter discusses the impact of urbanisation on women development. Testing of hypotheses is also given.

In the seventh chapter the major findings of the study, policy suggestions to overcome the negative consequences of urbanisation are given.