CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE,
CONCEPTS AND RESEARCH DESIGN

In this chapter, a critical review of literature, concepts used, sampling design tools of data collection and tools of data analysis are presented.

Review of Literature

Review of related literature is essential and it is the base for any research study. The findings and conclusions of research reports of various research studies of the recognized authorities, organizations, bodies and individuals provide evidence for what is familiar with and what is still unknown. Related literature gives good understanding and knowledge of the subject. This helps the researcher not only to find out the scope of the subject but also helps to find out in what way this study is unique and different from other studies. Thus in this chapter reviews of various theories and studies are presented.

Theories on Urbanisation

Theories on urbanisation have been around for such a long time that they have blended into and interest with theories that also pertain to cities, industrialization, and more recently globalization. At the risk of being subjective and circumvent, this chapter introduces four such theories. First the theory on self-generated and endogenous urbanisation, this theory suggests that urbanisation requires two separate prerequisites the generation of surplus products that sustain people in non-agricultural activities (Childe, 1950, Harvey 1973) and the achievement of a level of social development that allows large communities to be socially viable and stable (Lampard 1965). In a demographic sense, this theory focuses on the rural-urban population shift...
as the foundation of urbanisation but it identifies industrialization as the basic driver behind the movement of rural population to urban areas for factory jobs.

The second theory on urbanisation actually emerged from a broader theoretical school known as modernization theory that became prevalent and influential from the 1950s through the 1970s. Looking at urbanisation through the lens of modernization, first, the present state of urbanisation in any given society is set by its initial state at the onset of modernization. Secondly, technology is fundamentally more important than a society’s social organization in shaping urbanisation. Finally the path and pattern of urbanisation within and between developed and developing countries are most likely to converge through cultural diffusion, despite breeding inevitable social disequilibria (Kasarda and Crenshaw 1991).

Modernisation theory failed to account for both the conditions and consequences of urbanisation in developing countries, it opened the door to a compelling theoretical alternative the dependency / world system perspective on urbanisation. Advance by Frank (1969) and Wallerstein (1979) as well as other like Goldfrank (1979), dependency/world system theory links recent changes in the roles and organization of the economies of developing countries to the growth and extension of capitalism in the world system.

Julia J. Henderson (1957)\(^1\) states that the rate of urban growth is now higher in some of the economically underdeveloped countries than it is in the United States. The apparent imbalance between rates of urban growth and of industrialization is pointed out. Levels of employment, health, education, nutrition, and housing among the masses of rural migrants to the cities in most countries are posing problems which

strain overburdened resources of the underdeveloped countries to the breaking point. There is some reason to hope that planned economic development as well as the techniques of regional and city planning may be applied more generally in the solution of these problems in Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East than they have been in North America.

The most striking conclusion of the United Nations research on this question is that rapid urbanisation in many countries is outstripping industrialization. This is contrary to the commonly held conception that industrialization comes first and draws people from the rural areas. Obviously industry does draw people from the rural areas, but many other reasons for going to the city or for leaving the rural areas seem to be at least as powerful. This imbalance between urbanisation and industrialization in most of the countries that the U.N has studied gives rise to a host of economic and social problems. From this point of view Asia, Africa, and Latin America may all be said to be "over urbanized."

**Michael Todaro (1969)** raised an issue that influenced much of the research of the 1970s. If migrants were rational, how was it that (i) "wage gaps" between urban and rural areas persisted (and perhaps even widened), and that (ii) migration to the city continued in the face of urban unemployment, where the latter was defined to include low-productivity underemployment. A number of labor market studies of Third World economies have indicated that urban unemployment is more a consequence of segmented urban labor markets than of deficient aggregate urban demand or technological rigidities.

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The economist usually views the urbanisation problem from the perspective of comparative statistics. Three simple comparative static views of the equilibrium level of urbanisation are commonly put forward. One invokes wage equalization and full employment; another assumes full employment but introduces "market segmentation"; a third combines market segmentation with underemployment. While each of these models is capable of telling a different tale, they have one point in common. They all ignore potential dynamics linking urbanisation levels to growth performance, and growth performance to future urbanisation experience.

Alden Speare, Jr (1974) pointed out that Taiwan has experienced a rapid rate of urban growth due to the combined effect of a high rate of natural increase and a continual flow of people from the rural areas to the cities. Taiwan is not unusual in this respect as most other underdeveloped nations have experienced similarly high rates of urban growth. However, the study of urbanisation in Taiwan is of particular interest for three reasons. First, among underdeveloped nations, Taiwan is one of the very few to have experienced rapid economic growth. Between 1953 and 1970 the economy grew at about 7 percent per year, industrial production increased eight-fold, and there have been substantial increases in real wages.

Second, industrial growth has been accompanied by increased agricultural productivity and land reform. These changes have resulted in a reduction of some of the rural population pressure which might have resulted had the rapid population growth occurred without increases in yield and with the disparities in land ownership which existed prior to the 1953 Land-to-the-Tiller Act. The combined effects of rapid industrial growth and improved rural conditions may have been to give the rural

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resident more of a choice between staying in the rural areas and moving to the city than is afforded in most developing countries.

Third, Taiwan is one of the few nations to possess a household registration system which is sufficiently accurate and complete to permit a detailed study of the urbanisation process from official records. The Taiwan household registration system provides both a continual record of the population and a record of all reported moves made by the population. While some moves, especially those of short duration, are not reported, a sufficiently high proportion of all moves is reported to permit the use of these records in the study of migration in Taiwan.

**Andrei Rogers and Jeffrey G. Williamson (1982)**\(^4\) suggest that rates of urban growth above 4% per annum are transitory. Even in the increased migration projections, urban growth rates in excess of 4% occur only in the short run during early phases of urbanisation. This sudden spurt of urban growth declines over the medium term, and ultimately levels off at a growth rate below that generated by the fixed migration regime.

**Jacques Ledent (1982)**\(^5\) states that urbanisation is a finite process experienced by all nations in their transition from an agrarian to an industrial society; thus, different urbanisation levels reflect differing degrees of economic development. On the one hand, the countries that experienced the Industrial Revolution in the last century—that is, those countries that constitute today's more developed parts of the world—had about 65% of their populations living in urban areas in 1975. On the other hand, the economically poorer, less developed parts of the world, in which a large part

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of the population is still engaged in agriculture, have reached significant levels of urbanisation only recently; in 1975, the proportion of their population that was urban amounted to 28%. According to the latest UN population projections of the world and its major areas, urbanisation will continue for some time in the less developed regions as well as in the more developed regions: by the year 2000, 44% and 76% of their populations, respectively, will be living in urban areas.

**Basu A (1990)** studied two groups who have migrated and resettled, one from Uttar Pradesh and one from Tamil Nadu. Although placed in same socio-economic level and external environment, there is higher child mortality and negative sex ratio among the children of the women hailing from Uttar Pradesh though they are not reported. Considering the status of women neither the women from the north nor the south migrated on their own. Socio-cultural pattern in the South India encourages freedom of movement and autonomy and hence there is more self-confidence among the Tamil women.

**Kasturi L (1990)** investigated the background and experience of women in the rural urban migration stream to obtain preview of the queries, migration's impact on women socially, economically and culturally. Further, it has been sought to perceive the status of the women seeking employment after migration.

**Pandey D (1990)** analyzed the migration pattern of female migration in India and socio-economic and demographic characteristics and the cause and consequence of migration on their family in general. The main focus was based on the process and

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8 Pandy D., "Migrant Labour and Gender Dimension: Micro analysis of Gender differentials in migrant workers", Bombay Research Center for Womens' studies (SNDP), Women's University, 1990.
trend in Mumbai. It revealed that, the poor family migrates in search of employment, both women and men work in the same activity. The nature of the work done by the migrant women does not vary despite the fact that they were engaged in different occupations. They work under insanitary and unsafe conditions, suffer exploitation in the hands of the contractors and employers. The dependence of rural families on remittance of income earned in non-agricultural pursuits in various parts of Maharashtra is increasing poverty. Low family income from all sources is the main push factor leading to the decision to migrate from the village.

**Fernandes W (1991)** conducted a study in ten slums in Delhi, inorder to understand the role of the migrant women's community as a coping mechanism. It indicated that while the status of the family in general and of men, in particular, might rise at least marginally as a result of urbanisation, women often than not, witnessed a deterioration of their status. The situation of the family as a whole was marginally better than what it used to be in the rural areas. However, the women's status deteriorated. Work in an informal sector, the economic structure and lack of access to services not only prevented the upward mobility of the Dalit and tribal women, but often also contributed to their downward mobility.

**Reddy A (1992)** analyzes the social and economic reasons of female migration through a study of construction workers of Hyderabad city of Andhra Pradesh. The study, found that, frequently the total earning of the female adults per day or month has excluded those of their male counter parts. Unless the socio-

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economic conditions of villages are substantially improved, the workers migration to the cities in India may not come down in the near future.

Desai V (1994)\textsuperscript{11} examined the evidence of unique urban patterns of living arrangements and division of family labour and highlights the dynamic underlying the search by migrants and urban poor for itches in the informal sector in the city of Mumbai. The issue relating to gender and the family migration is that the men are often the first to move and view mobility as a way out from the greater family related social and economic constraints. However, the recent demand for women workers in unskilled service occupations like domestic service, informal commerce, the sex trade, and so on, has been extremely important in drawing young women to cities like Mumbai.

Samuel M.J (1995)\textsuperscript{12} focused exclusively on female migration and attempted to dispel some of the misconceptions surrounding women's mobility behaviour. It was based on a study of the census data, besides migration histories of men, collected through a sample survey in Tamil Nadu. It showed that unlike man, whose mobility is determined largely by economic forces, a woman's mobility is influenced by the interplay of economic, social and cultural factors.

Sandbergen Leos Schenk (1995)\textsuperscript{13} studied gender specific factors and consequences of seasonal labour migration and survival migration in four Indian states - Orissa, Kerala, Gujarat and Maharashtra. These case studies also deal with different categories of women involved in migration process: married, unmarried,

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abandoned, etc., The study brought forward a grim picture of the effects of survival migration and the minimal economic gain. There is no improvement in the status of the women. In fact, there is reinforcement of traditional gender roles and increased male dominance and subordination of women.

**David Nancy (1996)** discussed the structure and composition of urban informal sector. She concluded that the informal sector faced two major problems. First, increasing large segment of work population, which is forced to live at the margin of survival. Second, given the availability of cheap labour in urban informal sector, employers are likely to divert activities to such organizations. Further, informal sector has been classified as institutionalized and non-institutionalized informal sector. The components of institutionalized informal sector are, construction work, small industrial units like beedi-making, domestic match stick, food processing units and other registered units but employing workers by low wages, low capital intensive and crude technology. The non-institutionalized informal sector comprises workers doing casual work like the domestic servants, sweepers, scavengers, vendors, hawkers and those who are self-employed. The urban women working in these areas face insecurity, no legal protection, long working hours and are easily exploitable etc.

**Srinivasan S (1997)** studied the impact of development by comparing women in two different places developed and the other less developed (rural and urban). It was concluded that, the migration has led to breaking inter-caste and gender bonds. Autonomy at work place, support groups, space and time factors has encouraged the women to be independent and reduced the dependency on men. The

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lives in the rural areas indicate that the development programme (focused on urban women) which have perpetuated the traditional gender and caste roles, have worsened the conditions of women in rural areas.

According to Gerard Piel (1997)\textsuperscript{16} the world's poor once huddled largely in rural areas. In the modern world, they have gravitated to the cities. The author writes that by 2015 poor cities will house three-quarters of the world's urban population. Mainly Japanese funding, the World Health Organization (WHO) installed the first of what is to be a chain of research centers concerned with the health of urban populations at Kobe, Japan, in March 1996. This unnoticed occasion calls attention to an upheaval in the lives of the world's poor - the urbanisation of poverty. The village poverty of traditional agricultural civilizations, which persists in the so-called developing countries, is finding new, unwelcome sites in the cities of those countries.

Pandey Divya (1998)\textsuperscript{17} examined the nature and types of migrant workers, temporary (seasonal) and permanent in the light of socio-economic order and employment patterns of the female migrants from Maharashtra. It showed the temporary type of migration, the migrant worked in informal sector without legal protection or job security, long working hours, low wages and no facilities. These women mainly worked in informal sector to supplement the family income and face all the other hardships of life. The seasonal migrants generally came to workforce through the contractors and as a whole family or at least as couple.


Singh D.P (1998)\textsuperscript{18} discussed the emerging migration pattern in India at macro level using the place of birth and place of last residence based on the census reports from 1961 - 1991. The study examined the migration level, reasons for migration, type, educational level and workforce participation rate (WPR) of the migrants. It was concluded that economic factors among males and the associational, marriage, relative factors affect the female mobility. The mobility due to natural calamity is not one of the major reasons. The WPR for the males was 90 per cent as compared to 44 per cent of the females, indicating either unemployment, or work in the informal sector, or be out of work.

Jhabvala Renan (1998)\textsuperscript{19} emphasized the need for social security for women workers and explored the mechanism for security provisions, insurance, security funds for women in informal sector. The women of informal sector could be helped by decentralizing, participatory social security and implementation of programmes and creative work. The employment based programmes should have social and financial security for women in informal sector.

Chettry Shanthi (1999)\textsuperscript{20} studied empirically the socio-economic conditions of the women workers of the urban informal sector in the Darjeeling hills areas in the West Bengal. She concluded that the informal sector may not have satisfied workers absorbed as they were low paid, deprived of legal protection and exploited but this sector stood steady as the main source providing some employment, with an explanation that "some trade is better than no trade".

Sanjay Mitra (2002)\textsuperscript{21} has given an alternative model for urbanisation and associated infrastructure provision by the state. Existing wisdom that has long emphasized a diminished role of the state and an unfettered operation of market forces ignore the many imperfections that may exist. In this innovative approach that has worked so far in the new town of Kolkata, it is possible to bring together an activist state and market oriented efficiency, while keeping intact at the concerns for the poor, many of whom have been offered a chance to take part in the construction activities and their views actively solicited during the rehabilitation work.

The study of Subatra Dutta (2002)\textsuperscript{22} attempts to seek a relationship between urbanisation and the development of small rural firms, using West Bengal as a case study. Small industrialization is found to be directly related to the degree of urbanisation, and there is a clear urban concentration of small enterprises in West Bengal. Infrastructure and services are mainly confined to a small region and rural industrialization has not been promoted. Government investment on rural infrastructure is essential to promote the rural non-agricultural sector in the backward districts.

Prabir C Bhattacharya (2002)\textsuperscript{23} reviews the broad trends in urbanisation, the emergence and growth of very large cities and then focuses on urban primacy. The contribution of rural to urban migration to urban growth and the role of a free entry urban traditional or informal sector both in migration process and in contributing to national output is also studied.

\textsuperscript{21} Sanjay Mitra., "Planned Urbanisation through Public participation, case of the new town, Calcutta", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.37, No.11, PP 1048 - 1054.
\textsuperscript{22} Subatra Dutta., "Urbanisation and Development of Rural Small Enterprises-Studying Linkage with focus on West Bengal", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.37, No.30, PP 3181 - 3188.
\textsuperscript{23} Prabir C Bhattacharya., "Urbanisation in Developing Countries", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.37, No.41, PP 4219 - 4227.
According to Reza Ali (2002)\textsuperscript{24} there is an urgent need to recognize and understand the significance, magnitude and nature of the phenomenon of urbanisation. Urbanisation has a major impact on the realization of political rights and participation in political processes, on the relationship of and responsibilities between the citizen and the state and the related institutional structures, on the nature of the breakdown of existing societal structures and the forging of new and complex ones, and on the composition of revenue base and the criteria for resource allocations. It has an effect on the nature of poverty, empowerment, gender, governance, culture and marginality. Understanding urbanisation is key to developing an understanding of the political process.

According to Vernon Henderson (2002)\textsuperscript{25} the rapid urbanisation in many developing countries over the past half century seems to have been accompanied by excessively high levels of concentration of the urban population in very large cities. Some degree of urban concentration may be desirable initially to reduce inter and intra regional infrastructure expenditures. But in a mature system of cities, economic activity is more spread out. Standardized manufacturing production tends to be de-concentrated into smaller and medium-size metropolitan areas, whereas production in large metropolitan areas focuses on services, research and development, and non-standardized manufacturing. The costs of excessive concentration (traffic accidents, health costs from exposure to high levels of air and water pollution, and time lost to long commutes) stem from the large size of megacities and underdeveloped institutions and human resources for urban planning and management. Alleviating


excessively high urban concentration requires investments in inter regional transport and telecommunications to facilitate e-concentration of industry. It also requires fiscal de-concentration, so that interior cities can raise the fiscal resources and provide the services needed to compete with primate cities for industry and population.

The size of the largest city grows with national urbanisation but much less than proportionally (an elasticity well below one). Urban primacy is weaker in larger countries, as economic resources are spread out with geographic size. As GDP per capita grows from low levels up to $5,300 (approximate mean world GDP per capita in 1990), urban primacy increases. After that, it declines. Thus urban primacy is the same at $1,300 as it is at $17,000. But even at its peak, all else remaining unchanged, urban primacy is only 2 percent larger than at $1,300 (or $17,000). International trade also affects primate city size: a one-standard-deviation increase (48.8) in openness (imports plus exports as a percent of GDP) decreases primate city size by 27 percent.

A final major issue concerns regional differences, presumably capturing differences in broad institutional arrangements and attitudes. Regional dummy variables have little effect on other coefficients and captured unmeasured aspects of regions. Primacy is the highest in Asia, in most formulations. This appears to capture the emerging Asian megacity phenomenon of development in countries such as Bangladesh, Indonesia, Japan, and Thailand, which is highly focused on one city. In the basic model, urban primacy also is significantly higher in Latin American and Sub-Saharan countries.

De-concentration in the Republic of Korea, the urban primacy of Seoul peaked in the early 1970s and declined thereafter, even though Seoul's share of national population continued to rise with rapid national urbanisation. Seoul's share of the population of the surrounding Kyonggi Province has not changed much in 25 years.
What is dramatic is Seoul's loss of manufacturing employment. With rising suburbanisation, Seoul's share declined from 76 percent in 1970 to 45 percent in 1983 and 30 percent in 1993, reflecting both natural market forces as firms left high wages and rents in Seoul for nearby cities and policies encouraging suburbanisation. However, a key aspect of de-concentration in Korea has been the spread of industry throughout the country following the massive intercity infrastructure investments of the late 1970s and early 1980s and the economic and political liberalization of the 1980s. The employment shares of Seoul and the other two major metropolitan areas of Pusan and Taegu declined in the 1980s, while satellite cities (over 50,000 urban residents in 1983) in the provinces of Kyonggi and South and North Kyongsang surrounding the three major metropolitan areas held constant. Where did industry go? Mostly to rural areas and cities in other provinces.

Amitabh Kundu (2003)\textsuperscript{26} identified that the development dynamics in 1990s showed that there has been an all round decline in the growth of employment. Income growth and incidence of poverty have been extremely uneven across states. Thus a slowing down in the rate of urbanisation and concentrations of demographic growth developed states seemed to be the logical outcome. The process of urbanisation has also become exclusionary in nature, as only a few large cities with the strong economic base are able to raise resources for development leaving out small and medium towns.

Vernon Henderson (2003)\textsuperscript{27} reiterates that urbanisation represents sectoral shifts within an economy as development proceeds, but is not a growth stimulus per

\textsuperscript{26} Amitabh Kundu., "Urbanisation and urban Governance", Search for a perspective beyond neo-liberalism", Economic and Political weekly, Vol.38, No.29, PP 3079 - 3087.

se. However, the form that urbanisation takes, or the degree of urban concentration, strongly affects productivity growth. Urban concentration is affected by national policies and institutions, reflecting the extent to which a particular city (e.g., a national capital such as Bangkok or Mexico City) is favored. For any country size and level of development, there is a best degree of urban concentration, which balances the gains from enhanced concentration such as local knowledge accumulation against the losses such as resources diverted to shoring up the quality of life in crowded mega-cities. That best degree of concentration declines with country size and level of development.

According to **R.B. Bhagat and Soumya Mohanty (2004)**, India has embarked upon economic reforms during the 1990s, published data from the 2001 Census provides an opportunity to study the country’s urbanisation process with reference to regional inequality and to the contribution of the components of urban growth, namely, natural increase, emergence of new towns, and the net contribution of rural to urban migration. India has more than 4000 cities and towns, which comprise 28 per cent of India’s population of 1028 million as enumerated in 2001. However, about two-fifths of India’s urban population live in only 35 metropolitan cities. The rate of urban population growth slowed down during the 1990s despite the increased rate of rural to urban migration due to a significant decline in natural increase in urban areas. This has led to an observable slowdown in the pace of India’s urbanisation.

Historically, the process of urbanisation intensified in the wake of the Industrial Revolution in the Western world, which led to increased rural to urban

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migration. In the non-Western world, however, urbanisation is more a defining feature of the twentieth century. A mere 13 per cent of the global population lived in urban areas in 1900; this proportion increased to 29 per cent in 1950 and to about 50 per cent by the close of the twentieth century (United Nations 2006). As may be expected, the pattern of urbanisation is found to be unequal between developed and developing countries as the majority of the population in developed countries lived in urban areas, while the bulk of the population in developing countries that are concentrated in Asia and Africa lived in rural areas. An inter-regional comparison in Asia reveals that South Asia is more rural and has significantly lower levels of per capita income than other regions. Not surprisingly therefore, the pace of urban change in the South Asian region has been relatively modest; yet urbanisation presents enormous challenges due to the extreme poverty and the pressure on urban services that it has brought about (Cohen 2004). India has about 28 per cent or 286 million of its population living in urban areas in 2001.

India adopted a new economic policy in the year 1991 as a result of a severe balance of payment crisis. The basic features of the new economic policy include streamlining of governmental expenditures in order to reduce the fiscal deficit, opening up of the economy for export-oriented growth, removal of governmental controls, and licensing.

According the Mohanraj R and P.A Azeez (2004)29, Haphazard urbanisation and unprecedented vehicular growth that exacerbate air quality are prevalent features in India. Coimbatore, an important industrial city ranking 15th in terms of principal urban agglomerations of India, was classified as a moderately polluted area in

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National Ambient Air Quality Monitoring survey in 1997. The current study (March 1999–February 2001) was undertaken to assess suspended particulate matter (SPM) in urban and suburban Coimbatore. The study infers that urban areas, especially those with frequent vehicular traffic and traffic congestion, had comparatively high RSPM exceeding the Indian prescribed standards (60 \text{ g/m}^3). Emission inventory estimated for current vehicle strength showed that about 840 000 kg of particulate matter was emitted during 2001. Wind speed negatively correlated with RSPM, while it was positively correlated with NRSPM. Temperature had a negative correlation with RSPM values.

The study of Rashmi Prakash (2005)\textsuperscript{30} pointed out that urbanisation in Sikkim is an effect of economic, social, migrational pattern and even an effect of political change. The process of urbanisation is not only desirable but essential for economic growth and social change. It is the beginning of economic development of the tiny state. Thus the economic growth of the state has begun and will lead to a further rise in the level of urbanisation in the state.

The study of Ahmed M. Salah Ouf (2007)\textsuperscript{31} reveals that the experience of managing a process of extremely rapid urban development in one of the Gulf States. In such situations of rapid urbanisation, past planning models have not proved appropriate and many planning professionals working in such situations have not been exposed to more recent theoretical developments in the field. In this context, urban planning professionals have been required to invent new approaches for specific contexts, for which the models provided in their training had left them unprepared.


Madhavi N.R. (2008)\textsuperscript{32} points out in her study that 84.8% of the Navi Mumbai population are migrants; out of this 84.8%, Navi Mumbai absorbed 30.4% population from Mumbai and reduced the population pressure on old Mumbai. This proportion of migrants who moved to Navi Mumbai because of their place of work being located in and around Navi Mumbai. Another important reason is the housing problems ie. either non-availability of houses or very high rents in greater Mumbai.

According to Vijayakumari Joseph (2008)\textsuperscript{33}, in India 15% of the Urbanites today do not have safe drinking water. Fifty percent of urbanites do not have proper sanitation facilities leading to many vector bone diseases. The number of 20 public hospital beds per 10,000 persons woefully dwarfish to take on the gigantic needs facing the urbanites. 33% of urbanites live in slums. India does not need cities to be repaired rather new cities should spring up and create a country side filled with seamless harmony of rural and urban pockets. As per the study, the Human Development Index of Kerala does not show great disparities between urban and rural areas. A good part of Kerala's Human Development achievements must be attributed to well developed road and transport links throughout the state transforming the urban rural divide into a continuum.

Paramasivam G and J.S. Socratees (2008),\textsuperscript{34} found that urbanisation was not necessarily bad itself. It became a problem when the rate of growth of urban population exceeded the capacity of the infrastructure to absorb and support it. Urbanisation and rapid growth in urban population can dramatically increase the per


capita use of fresh water. The governments all over the world cannot supply fresh water to meet the increased demand. Urbanisation of the world's population will increase aggregate energy use and the increased consumption of the energy likely to affect the environment.

According to Chandrasekarayya T and P Ganesh (2009)\textsuperscript{35} the pattern of urbanisation in Andhra Pradesh is mainly characterized by continuous concentration of population and activities in class 1 cities. Hyderabad district has recorded 100% of urban population and Rangareddy occupies 2nd place in recent decades. Further three coastal Andhra districts have higher percentage of urban population. The urban agglomerations were only 4 in 1971. They rose to 37 in 2001.

The study of Amitabh Kundu (2009)\textsuperscript{36} reveals that the demography weight of Asia accounts for over 60% of world population. The share of Asia in world urban population has gone up from 32% in 1950 to 44% in 1970 and then to 50% in 2005 and has often been quoted to support and or alarmist view of urbanisation. Asia claimed about half of the world's urban population in 2008 and it would exceed the global figure by 16% in 2030.

Amitabh Kundu (2009)\textsuperscript{37} analyzed the regional and cross country variations in Asian urbanisation. Analyzing variations within the regions, the differential urban growth across the countries in West Asia can easily be attributed to their macro economic development. In Central Asia many countries have reported significant decline in urban growth and a negative urban rural growth differential during 1990 - 2005, implying that rural growth was higher than that of urban areas.


\textsuperscript{37} Ibid.
The study by Partha Mukhopadhyay and Aromar Revi (2009) reveals that risk is occurring as other environmental transitions, e.g., brown (water, sanitation and environmental health) and grey (air and water pollution), are simultaneously playing out. When taken in tandem with changes in freshwater systems, it can seriously threaten the global urban culture that draws its economic and social sustenance from them. At the same time, these simultaneous transitions also create a heterogeneous landscape of opportunity to combine poverty reduction with sustainable improvement in the global commons.

Soubadra Devy M., et.al (2009) reports that Urban biodiversity and the associated ecosystem services have been ignored and undervalued because ecologists have focused only on pristine habitats and rare species. However, with rapid urbanisation the challenge is to build the native biodiversity within the urban landscape. This could be done by involving multiple stakeholders like the local municipality, architects and, most importantly, citizens in the neighbourhood. We also need to follow the concept of adaptive co-management.

Sunil K. Khanna, et.al (2009) examined the desired family size and sex composition, the extent of son preference, the underlying motivations for the preference, and the knowledge and use of the new reproductive technologies to achieve these preferences in two culturally distinct but economically similar immigrant communities in New Delhi, India. The two groups—one group from Punjab, north India, and the other from Kerala, south India—are considered in the literature to

be two extremes in the socio-cultural spectrum, particularly in terms of kinship organizations, gender relations, women’s decision-making power, and levels of women’s autonomy. The results of the study suggest that shared urban experience, acceptance of a small family norm, and easy accessibility of new reproductive technologies and abortion services have led to similarities in desired family size, preference for sons, and means taken to realize their preference in the two communities. It concludes with a discussion of the intricate and intersecting views of parents on family size, son preference and daughter neglect, and the many ways of regulating family size and sex composition in urban India, and draws parallel with similar research findings in India and elsewhere in Asia.

Anu Singh Lather, et.al (2009)\textsuperscript{41} made a study of working women professionals in Delhi. The situation of women and girl child is improving in India. The government of India is making umpteen efforts to uplift the girl child. The education for girl child is free till high school and particularly in capital region the state government pays a certain amount to the parents of girl child in lower strata of society for their upbringing. Still we cannot talk of women empowerment when cases of violence against women are rampant everywhere. Society needs to change itself and the way it thinks. What needs to begin is a movement to empower the girl child from the very beginning of her existence. Her upbringing needs to be changed. She cannot be brought up in an environment where women are taught to remain subdued; their aspirations cannot be curbed because they are females, they cannot be ignored. The girl child needs to grow learning that she is no less than her brother. She needs to know that a wide range of avenues wait for her to be explored in this world of hi tech

lifestyle. The urban India has already tasted this change, but the situation has to be improved in rural parts which constitutes the major part of our population. The government and NGOs are doing their very best to bring out changes in these areas. Women empowerment drives and initiatives will continue and some will do wonders in achieving their goals. But the real difference will come only once the foundation of our society undergoes dramatic transformation.

**Anand, Vaijayanta (2009)**[^42] analyzed the characteristics of worker women, predominantly migrant workers and the intervention strategies adopted to facilitate the reach out of services to these women workers along with awareness of their rights and utilization. The campaign was conducted at Mumbai on major construction sites to bring forward its effect. The conclusions drawn were, that the women workers need to be brought out of their helpless, isolated state. The trade unionism and cooperatives would yield results as far as struggle for better wages and working condition are concerned. The author suggested that NGOs and other organizations can play a vital role through campaigning and active participation by creating awareness amongst these women workers.

**Shekkoofeh Farahmand et.al., (2005/2010)**[^43] state that in both Mediterranean countries and the EU, primacy has had significantly negative effects of growth, whereas the effects of the interaction of primacy and Human Development Index have been significant and positive. This shows that the level of development affects the relationship between economic growth and primacy.

Easwara Reddy. et.al., (2011)\textsuperscript{44} identified that India's urban population is the second largest in the world with China occupying top position. The in and out migration caused urbanisation.

Nagasubhana.et.al., (2011)\textsuperscript{45} found out that the process of urbanisation from 1971 to 1981 showed an increase in the number of towns from 221 to 255. However, due to reorganization of towns in 1991, the number of towns have decreased from 255 in 1981 to 184 in 1991. From 1991 to 2001 there is an increase in the number of urban towns by 36. The relative increase is $+15.38\%$ between 1971 and 1981. The relative decrease is $27.84\%$ between 1981 to 1991 and the relative increase is $+14.13\%$ from 1991 to 2001.

According to Doddarasaiah and Shivalingappa (2011)\textsuperscript{46} occupation is a factor influencing the decision to migrate. People migrated to the city for various reasons. The majority of the in-migrants to Mysore city were employed (94.75%) and remaining were (5.25%) unemployed. Many of the unemployed persons were students who came to city for education purpose. They have also pointed that among the working in-migrants the largest proportion was engaged in white collared jobs. The cities not only attracted the better and more educated but also those who hoped to improve their educational qualifications. According to age composition of in-migrants, in Mysore city, there are more in-migrants in the age group of 40 to 59. And second highest comes from the age group of 25 to 39 years. The lowest proportion of in-migrants is in the age group of 15 to 24 years.

Hariharan and Malathy (2011) found out that there were four categories of expenditure met by the aged population in urban areas. They are food expenditure, non-food expenditure, medical expenditure and personal habitual expenditure.

According to Amitabh Kundu (2011) contrary to popular perceptions about a rapid phase of urbanisation, the fragmentary data in the provisional results of 2011 census reveal a decline in demographic growth in district within the metro cities, suggesting that these have become less welcoming to prospective migrants. Such low and even negative population growth in large cities and their core areas needs further investigation, since it raises concerns about exclusionary urbanisation.

Rajesh Bhattacharya and Kalyan Sanyal (2011) state that India’s “bypass” approach to urbanisation 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, hegemonized 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, characterized 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.

Karen Coelho (2011) found that in Tamil Nadu between 1991 and 1996 many rural areas have been reclassified as urban after the 74th amendment of constitution. This could be one reason for more people now living in urban areas.

Farahnaz Oghabian and Nagendra Babu (2011)\textsuperscript{51} found that due to the increase in education and civilized urbanisation, huge populations are transferring from lower SECs to higher SECs. The consuming class predominantly consists of SEC A and B and represent around 105 million people in 22 million families of urban population in India. The second tier has the aspiring class with 79 million people in 17 million families. India is a developing economy but the third tier holds the maximum of the population with 159 million people in 39 million families.

According to Bhagat R.B (2011)\textsuperscript{52} urbanisation has increased faster than expected as per 2011 census. 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.

According to the 2011 Census, the urban population grew to 377 million showing a growth rate of 2.76\% per annum during 2001-2011. The level of urbanisation in the country as a whole increased from 27.7\% in 2001 to 31.1\% in 2011 – an increase of 3.3 percentage points during 2001-2011 compared to an increase of 2.1 percentage points during 1991-2001. It may be noted that the Indian economy has grown from about 6\% per annum during the 1990s to about 8\% during the first decade of the 2000s (Ahluwalia 2011). This clearly reflects the power of economic growth in bringing about faster urbanisation during 2001-2011.

\textsuperscript{52} R. b. Bhagat,"Emerging Pattern of Urbanisation in India, Economic and Political Weekly, Aug 2011, Vol.XLVI, No.34. pp(10-12)
At the state level, the pattern of urbanisation is very diverse, but economically advanced states more or less show higher levels of urbanisation. All the southern states, along with Punjab, Haryana, Gujarat, Maharashtra and West Bengal, have higher urbanisation levels than the national average, all over the world cannot supply fresh water to meet the increased demand. Urbanisation of the world's population will increase aggregate energy use and the increased consumption of the energy likely to affect the environment.

Debnath Mookherjee and Jonah White (2011)\textsuperscript{53} state that giving the importance of states in India’s sociopolitical and economic environment, their relative status, strengths and weaknesses-as well as their commonalities and diversities-have continued relevance and deserve ongoing scrutiny. Our efforts to explore the dualism of the Indian urban growth phenomenon have revealed two concurrent patterns. On one hand, urban-regional dualism is evident in the results of both component and cluster analyses; as the BIMARU states continue to be the worst performers, the best performers hold on to their positions, and about half of the clusters show spatial contiguity. On the other hand, an opposite pattern-that we conceptualize as a relatively “lesser state of dualism”-has also emerged. This second pattern is suggested by several findings: the strong showing of states with a divergent urban base in the human-status dimension; the association of an industrial sector with the “Small” size group; the separation of two of the former BIMARU states from the BIMARU cluster; the spatial distribution and unique single-state standing of some of the clusters. Thus we surmise that while dualism still continues, its trajectory appears to be changing. Our findings on this state-level research, with a limited data set, can be

suggestive at best; validation of these observations will require robust research with a comprehensive set of data at different geographical scales. Such empirical research is necessary to build the foundation for new, timely, and context-specific developmental theories, and is also essential for future policy formulations. While theoretical implications were beyond the scope of their study, they hope that their effort would offer a new terrain for launching future research.

Ghuncha Firdaus and Ateeque Ahmad (2011) found that urbanisation, one of the most pressing global issues, with all of its concomitant consequences, is resulting in greater attention among planners and policy makers today than ever before. The present study intends to probe into the subject of urbanisation with a specific focus on Delhi, and analysis of the same in the context of changing agricultural land use pattern and rural livelihood. A cross-sectional design was used for data collection from a random sample of 896 farming households. The analysis depicts that during 1951–2001, the urban area of Delhi expanded from 195.8 km² to 924.6 km², and the urban population increased from 0.1 to 2.3 million. Information at the household level shows that nearly 63% of the sampled household shifted their occupation from agriculture to non-agriculture, while almost 50% of the respondents reported change in cropping patterns, i.e. food grain versus vegetables, fruits and flowers. Through the application of the multiple linear regression model, the study reveals that residential complexes (p<0.01) and household industries (p<0.05) have a positive significant bearing on agricultural land use patterns. The development of transportation networks, orchards and nurseries, and brick kiln are shown to have an

insignificant (p40.05) correlation. Integrated planning for rural and urban areas may be key for balanced and sustainable urban development of Delhi.

**Bipasha Baruah (2011)** stated that in primary economies, it is crucial to involve women in decision-making processes related to environment and development. In order to enable women to have better access to decision making, it is crucial to increase their authority in deciding how environmental resources are to be used. Women are given training in public speaking and encouraged to attend women development programmes and meetings. In these programmes and meetings they are given chance to participate in environmental and developmental planning. To ensure that women are provided with the opportunity to participate in policy formulation and analysis at local, regional, and national levels, it is necessary for civil society organisations and international organisations to push for gender-equality reform at all levels of governance.

Citing the examples of Chennai and Coimbatore **Audinarayana (2011)** reported that many areas are classified as rural have got better facilities and have been merged with a municipality or corporation. Districts adjoining Chennai, Coimbatore and port towns like Tuticorin are now urbanised. In Thanjavur; the rice bowl of Tamil Nadu, 35.39 percentage of population is urban but in Kanyakumari district, which has no major industry, has more than 80 percentage of the population in urban areas, mainly on account of its connections to the old Travancore princely state. "It is definition that makes Kanyakumari more urban than the actual facilities available in the district".

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Dimpal Vij (2012)\(^{57}\) points out that urbanisation directly contributes to waste management which is already a mammoth task in India and is going to be more complicated with the increase in urbanisation, changing life styles and increase in consumerism, financial constraints, institutional weaknesses, improper choice of technology and public apathy towards municipal solid waste have made this situation worse.

According to Fayaz Ahmad (2012)\(^{58}\) "Migration is helping to raise the status of women in their families and home communities because they are becoming visible earners. Urbanisation has got different opportunities to women and as a result the idea of girls getting an education and having jobs instead of getting married early is growing. The idea of women can be police officers, doctors, drivers is slowly taking hold". In general, rural-to-urban migration is the oft-cited, popular driver of rapid urbanisation throughout the South Asia region. However, too little is reported on the demography of city in-migrants. There is a gendered perspective to the increasingly urban context of Bangladesh, where the average male-to-female ratio is 1:1. Rapidly urbanizing Bangladesh is the world’s eighth most populous country, and, city-states aside, the world’s most densely populated country. Depending on the source, annual urban population growth ranges from 3% to 6%. Today, 28% of Bangladesh’s total population, or approximately 45 million people, lives in cities, and it is projected that that number will cross 50 million by 2015.


\(^{58}\) Fayaz Ahmad., "Tracking Urban Poverty Trends in India, Bangladesh, Pakistan", Searchlite (South Asia), November 2012.
The study of Sabyasachi Tripathi (2013)\textsuperscript{59} shows the following:

(a) Increasing trend of India’s urbanisation and growth rate of city population, and concentration of urban population in and around class I cities.

(b) Increasing trend of number of new urban agglomerations (UAs)/towns and an expansion of boundaries of existing urban centres (i.e., outgrowths) over the decades.

(c) An increasing trend of share of urban NDP at national level NDP with higher share of service sector has the highest contribution than other two sectors (i.e., industry and agriculture sector). With urban service sector financing, insurance, real estate, and business service are the major contribution of urban NDP. The declining share of urban industrial sector is due to the declining contribution from urban manufacturing sector.

(d) Growth rate of urban GDP (or urban per capita income) in real prices has remained higher than the growth rate of national level GDP (or per capita national income). Overall urban economic growth has been higher as compared to national level economic growth over the different periods of time.

(e) The relative share of consumption expenditure of the bottom and top 30 percent urban population group has almost remained the same during the period of 1973-2000. Overall, estimates show that in the process of increasing urban economic growth, the level of poverty has declined and inequality has increased. Mega city districts show the lowest level of urban poverty than other cities. The ‘Marginalized group’ has the lowest extent of urban inequality and highest level of urban poverty compared to other two groups (i.e., ‘Others’ and ‘Total group’).

(f) The different urban development policies and programmes (e.g., JNNURM) undertaken in various Plan Periods have important implications to promote urban agglomeration, urban economic growth, and urban equity through high urban infrastructural development.

The study also finds an increasing trend of GDP and inequality in urban India. In this perspective, it would be very appropriate to compare it with the "East Asian miracle" which is all about the remarkable success achieved by the economies of the eight East Asian countries (i.e., Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan (China), and Thailand). One of the most important factors behind this success was that the benefits of higher economic growth were spread widely among the population. The government policies that promoted greater degree of equality were accompanied by years of higher economic growth. Though the "East Asian miracle" was all about national economic growth, its experiences are important for strong government policies to combat the higher level of inequality in urban India as urban India contributes a larger fraction to national GDP. For instance, education is one of the 20main factors behind higher urban economic growth in long run. Thus, promotion of human capital accumulation may be to be given priority in government policies for urban development in India for higher urban economic growth and reduction of inequality and poverty in urban India.

The study of Kanhu Charan Pradhan (2013)⁶⁰ found out that 2,553 new census towns, which were rural areas in 2001, accounted for 29.5% of the urban growth in the last decade. The study revealed that, the extent of urbanisation due to reclassification was more than urbanisation through migration, which was unusual. Only 37.2% of the new census towns were in the proximity of class one towns.

There was also large inter-state variations in these findings. West Bengal has the maximum number of new census towns followed by Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Utter Pradesh. While 93% of total urban growth in Kerala was due to new census towns, it was only 4% for Chhattisgarh. Similarly, proximity of new census towns near large towns was higher in Delhi, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh and lower in Assam, Odisha and Madhya Pradesh.

Karthikeyan. R. and S. Dharmaraj (2013)\(^61\) observed that, the majority of slum dwellers identify themselves with the city rather than with their native place and plan to settle permanently in the city. In spite of poor conditions in slums, second generation residents who are not nostalgic about their rural background feel that life in slum is reasonably tolerable and city life is probably better than rural life. Problem of the slum can be dealt by initiatives taken by the government, NGOs public cooperation and employers. Some of the possible solution can be such as local authorities and national governments should collaborate with the organisation of the urban poor in upgrading slums and providing alternatives to slum formation.

Mahendra Singh (2014)\(^62\) reported that 64% women in urban areas and 60% in rural India were involved in domestic work did so because there was "no other member to carry out domestic duties". The fact that more urban women gave this reason could be because of the growing number of nuclear families and nobody being available to share domestic duties, unlike in rural areas.

The 68th round of NSSO survey (July 2011-June 2012) reported that around 64% of urban women are engaged in domestic work compared to 60% in rural areas.

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\(^{62}\) Mahendra Singh., "64% of Urban Indian Women busy with House work", The Times of India, 13 October 2014, New Delhi
among women of age group 15 and above. More women in urban areas say they are engaged in domestic work as per their own preference than in rural areas. In both rural and urban areas about 92% spent most of their time on domestic work. Around 34% rural women have expressed their willingness to accept other work if it is made available to them at home, while only 28% in urban areas said the same.

Amudhan (2014)\textsuperscript{63} analysed that in the past two decades large number of people have migrated from rural to urban and urban to urban (from small towns to metro cities). Women have moved to short distances, so intra-district women migration is higher than men. Men have moved mostly from rural to urban regions in all duration and also higher percentage of male has internal and inter-district migration.

As per the study made by Nagarathnamma and N. Rengaswamy(2014)\textsuperscript{64} identified the disparity in development may exist at various levels, at national level; between different states; at state level among different districts; at district level among taluks. Thus, regional disparity often has a manifestation in the growing rural-urban disparity. Any attempt to reduce regional disparity needs conscious efforts which in turn reduces rural - urban disparity at national level. The state of Karnataka is no exception and the growth profile of the state reveals significant growth in certain urban centres and non comparable growth scenario in rural Karnataka.

The study of Amuthan S and Veeraian T (2014)\textsuperscript{65} revealed that, India is a developing country and the growth of urbanisation in next few or more decades

\textsuperscript{63} Amuthan," Patterns of urbanisation and Migration in Tamil Nadu", Southern Economist, Vol.80, No.4, pp(11-14)
\textsuperscript{64} R. Nagarathnamma and N. Rengaswamy," An over view of Rural - Urban Disparities in Karnataka" Southern Economist, Vol.81, No.2, pp(35-39)
\textsuperscript{65} Amuthan S andVeeraian T, "Trends of urbanisation and Regional Imbalance in India", Southern Economist, Vol.81, No.2, pp (15-18)
should be more rapid. In India, 19 and 17 states were in least urbanised list and only 9 and 11 states are in most urbanised list among 28 states during 2001 and 2011. It is only few urbanised states have determined the economic growth and development of the Indian economy. The government and the policy makers have always concentrated more on the most urbanised to lift India to the world level. The concentration of urban growth in selected cities is mainly because of educational facilities and employment opportunities.

World Bank Report (2015)\textsuperscript{66}, says India's urbanisation as messy and hidden. “Although they have made progress, India and other South Asian countries can make better utilisation of opportunities that urbanisation provides them to transform their economies to join the ranks of richer nations,” it said in a report titled ‘Leveraging Urbanisation in South Asia’. The World Bank said there has been difficulty in dealing with pressures that increased urban populations put on basic services, infrastructure, land, housing and environment, fostering “messy and hidden” urbanisation. This, in turn, has helped constrain the region’s full realisation of the prosperity and livability benefits of urbanisation, it said, adding that at the institutional level, there would be benefits from improvements in ways in which towns and cities are governed and financed.

Resmi C Panicker (2016)\textsuperscript{67} analysed that in districts of Kerala, like Kannur, Kozhikode, Thrissur and Thiruvananthapuram, where female workforce is engaged in non-agricultural activities have the highest urban population which in turn promotes female work participation in the area. They have also pointed out that the share of

\textsuperscript{66} World Bank Report., "Indian Urbanisation 'messy', reforms needed", The Hindu, 27 September, 2015, New Delhi.,

urban female work participation increases with urbanisation. The concentration of female non agricultural workers are high in most urbanised districts which in turn substantiate the view that urbanisation promotes employment opportunities.

In India, the share of women in economic activity is seldom considered in defining an urban area. Since 1981 census, a gender bias has been involved in defining an urban area. It is surprising that the country is not taking into account of around 26 percent of female workers in determining urban area. In Kerala the urban growth is the result of expansion of service sector.

The following suggestions were made by Jeevan Kumar D (2016) for inclusive urbanisation.

1. Social protection and social services can reduce vulnerability of poor and excluded populations. This alongside with generating decent work, prioritizes equality, equity, and investment in people, all of which are at the centre of promoting inclusive cities.

2. Focusing particular attention to migrant population is crucial. This includes removing internal mobility restrictions, providing access to basic services, addressing various forms of discrimination, tackling stereotypes and promoting intercultural dialogues and understanding.

3. Decisions and processes in cities need to be transparent, with information available to everyone, subject to public scrutiny and buttressed by free and fair dispute/complaint mechanisms.

4. The hitherto excluded and marginalised city dwellers need to be suitably empowered, so that their voices are also heard and included in the urbanisation project.

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68 Jeevan Kumar D.,"Bridging the urban Divide: Case for Inclusive Urbanisation", Southern Economist, Jan 2016, pp(7-8)
5. Urbanisation processes should be firmly entrenched in a human rights framework, while promoting the accountability of local bodies and governments.

**Reena Kumari (2016)**\(^{69}\) examined the gap between rural and urban, in terms of standard of living characterised by monthly per capita consumption expenditure and head count ratio in the poorest and the least urbanised state of Bihar, India. The disparity is visible in terms of monthly per capita consumption expenditure and head count ratio, which has tended to decrease very significantly at the district level in Bihar. The analysis depicts an interesting variation as the development is centered only in Patna. There is a need to bring poor and vulnerable people under mainstream by providing equal distribution of wealth and equal opportunity to them.

**Mada, K.U (2016)**\(^{70}\) pointed out that cities become "smart" when people living in them are vigorous, lively, clever, inquisitive of knowledge, and quick to seize opportunities evolving around. They believe in looking good, being fashionable and better groomed, and being conspicuous in society. The city build infrastructure for administration of law and order to ensure peace and tranquility, improved transport and communications: water, light, and other comforts and conveniences to meet the demands of modern civilisation for sustained development as well as for setting dispute-resolution machinery like courts of justice. If the overall economy is weak, cities with strong balance sheets and governed by nimble-footed administrators could better withstand adverse economic conditions.

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\(^{70}\) Mada K.U, "Smart City: Great Idea Floats; Best Results Evade", *Southern Economist*, March 2016, pp(43-47)
RESEARCH DESIGN

In this section, concepts used, sampling design, tools of analysis and limitations of the study are given.

Concepts

In the present study, the following concepts are used.

Urban

All places with a municipality corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee etc., known as statutory town.( as per 2011 census)

Rural

The National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) defines rural as follows:

An area with a population density of up to 400 sq.km., Villages with clear surveyed boundaries but no municipal board, A minimum of 75% of male working population involved in agricultural and allied activities.

Town

A town is a human settlement larger than a village but smaller than a city.

Hamlet

A hamlet is a small settlement too small to be considered as a village.

Metropolitan

A metropolitan area, sometimes referred to as a metropolitan region, metro area or just metro, is a region consisting of a densely populated urban core and its less populated surrounding territories, sharing industry, infrastructure, and housing.
Municipal Corporation

A municipal corporation is the legal term for a local governing body, including (but not necessarily limited to) cities, counties, towns, townships, charter townships, villages, and boroughs. Municipality an urban district having corporate status and powers of self-government or people living in a town or city having local self-government.

Urbanisation

According to Smailes “urbanisation refers to the transformation of the society including some drastic geographic economic and social change. It represents the movement of population to towns and cities, an increase in the proportion of population engaged in secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy and a corresponding change in the behavioral pattern”.

Urban area

According to the census of India, 2001 the term urban area embraces:

a) All places with a Municipality corporation, Cantonment Board or a notified town area committee.

b) All the other places which satisfy the following criteria.

1. A minimum population of 5000
2. At least 75% of male working population engaged in non-agricultural pursuits.
3. A density of population of at least 400 person per sq.km.

Same definition that was used in census 2001 has been used during 2011 census also. An urban area, according to the Census definition, consists of:
1) All statutory towns: All places with a municipality, corporation, Cantonment Board or notified town area committee, etc. so declared by state law.

2) Census towns: Places which satisfy the following criteria:
   a) a minimum population of 5000;
   b) at least 75 percent of male working population engaged in non-agricultural pursuits; and
   c) a density of population of at least 400 persons per sq km. In addition, some areas falling in the vicinity of city or town are also considered as urban areas if they are treated as the outgrowths (OGs) of the main urban unit. Such OGs are shown as urban agglomerations. As per the census definition, Urban Agglomeration is a continuous urban spread constituting a town and its adjoining urban outgrowths (OGs) or two or more physically contiguous towns together and any adjoining urban outgrowths of such towns.

**Urban Agglomeration**

An urban agglomeration is a continuous urban spread constituting a town and its adjoining outgrowths, or two or more physically contiguous towns together with or without outgrowths of such towns. An urban agglomeration must consist of at least a statutory town and its total population should not be less than 20,000 as per the 2001 census.

**Urban Primacy**

Urban primacy indicates the largest city in a country. Such a city is called a primate city. In other words, urban primacy can be defined as the central place in an urban or city network that has acquired or obtained a great level of dominance. The level of dominance is measured by population density and the number of functions offered. Higher functions and population will result in higher dominance.
Urban sprawl

It describes the expansion of human populations away from central urban areas into previously remote and rural areas, often resulting in communities reliant upon heavy automobile usage. Urban sprawl is related to developed nations, involving topics that range from the outward spreading of a city and its suburbs to exurbs, to low density and often auto-dependent development on rural land.

Urban incorporated area

It is a region of land that is not governed by its own local municipal part of larger administrative divisions, such as a township, state, parish, borough, county, city, province or country.

Degree of urbanisation

It is the percentage of population in urban areas.

Migration

Peterson defined migration as “movement motivated by the individuals willingness to risk the unknown of a new home and breaking from a familiar social universe for the sake of adventure, achievement or ideas or to escape a social universe for the sake of adventure, achievement or ideas or to escape a social system from which he has become alienated.

Women Development

A ‘bottom-up’ process of transforming gender power relations, through individuals or groups developing awareness of women’s subordination and building their capacity to challenge it.
Annual Compound Growth Rate (ACGR)

The annual compound growth rate has been used to measure the growth rate of population, sex composition, jurisdiction etc. The formula adopted is detailed below:

\[ \text{Antilog} \left( \frac{Y_t}{Y_0} - 1 \right) \times 100 \]

Where \( Y_t = \) Current year indicator

\( Y_0 = \) Base year indicator

\( N = \) Number of years.

Sex – Ratio

\[
\frac{\text{Number of females in the family}}{\text{Number of males in the family}}
\]

Child – Adult Ratio

\[
\frac{\text{Number of children in the family}}{\text{Number of adults in the family}}
\]

Earner – Dependent Ratio

\[
\frac{\text{Number of dependents in the family}}{\text{Number of earning members in the family}}
\]
Table 2.1

Percentage of Urban Population in Districts of Tamilnadu

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>District Name</th>
<th>Percentage of Urban Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tiruchirappali</td>
<td>49.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Nilgiris</td>
<td>59.24</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Thirvallur</td>
<td>65.14</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Vellore</td>
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<td>Salem</td>
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<td>Cuddalore</td>
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<td>Sivaganga</td>
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<td>Madurai</td>
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</tr>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Tiruppur</td>
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<td>Tirunelveli</td>
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<td>Krishnagiri</td>
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<td>Erode</td>
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<td>Kanchepuram</td>
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<td>Dindugul</td>
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<td>Coimbatore</td>
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<td>Ariyalur</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tamilnadu State</td>
<td></td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: District Census Handbook of various districts 2011*
Sampling Design

In social surveys, sampling design forms an important part of the study. The success of the study depends on scientifically designed research design. In the present study, Tiruchirappalli district forms the universe. Tiruchirappalli district is booming with industrial and entrepreneurial activities. The researcher wanted to make an in depth study of urbanisation in Tiruchirappalli with the past six decades. This is a micro level, descriptive and diagnostic study. Tiruchirappalli district has 49.15 percent of urban population which is nearer to 48.14 percent of the state average. (vide Table No.2.1)

Considering time, finance and manpower, the author decided to fix the sample size as 300 urban household. For a meaningful comparative analysis, the total sample of 300 units were divided into 175 households in the Trichy corporation limit and 125 households in the other than Trichy area. This classification is done having in mind the dwelling place of respondents.

As per the records of the district administration, there are 12 urban centers in Tiruchirappalli district. There was no difficulty in choosing 175 respondents from the Tiruchirappalli Corporation limit. The author selected 175 respondents divided into 125 in the Tiruchirappalli city limit and 50 from Srirangam town limit.

The remaining 125 respondents have to be distributed in the other than Trichy area having 10 urban centers. Each respondent represents a household.
SAMPLE CHART
Sample - 300 - Respondents

(Native of Trichy)
175

(Tiruchirappalli city limit)
125

(Srirangam Town limit)
50

(Tiruchirappalli city limit)
125

(Native of other than Trichy)
125

Manaparai
25

Srirangam Town limit
25

Thuraiyur
20

Thuraiyur
20

Thuvakudi
20

Lalgudi
20

Lalgudi
20

Musiri
20

Thottiyam
20

Musiri
20
Table No. 2.2

Distribution of sample respondents in the other than Trichy Area (in numbers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Town</th>
<th>No. of sample selected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Manapparai</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thuraiyur</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thuvakudi</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Lalgudi</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Musiri</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Thottiam</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>125</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Manapparai has more business activities than the other centers. So the researcher has fixed 25 respondents for Manapparai and 20 each for the other five urban centers. The five centers are more or less equal in the economic status and business activities. In the absence of number of urban households in each town area, the researcher has to adopt this method. Speaking in the statistical language, the author has adopted disproportionate stratified random sampling technique.

**Tools of Data Collection**

Having fixed the sample size, next logical step is to construct the suitable tools of data collection. Which is the right tool of data collection? The study needs both primary and secondary data. The secondary data have been collected from Tiruchirappalli District Census Hand Book for population, literacy rate and the urban amenities for six census years 1961-2011.

For survey based empirical studies, interview cum observation is considered to be the best tool. The researcher may meet the respondents at their leisure in their houses, explain the objectives of the study, solicit their cooperation and get the necessary details by filling the interview schedules. According to Pauline Young, one
of the greatest social scientists, meeting people and interacting with them and studying their minds is the best method of data collection in social sciences. Interviewing creates excellent rapport between the researcher and the respondents. With this in mind, the author constructed the detailed and structured interview schedule.

**Pretesting**

By using the schedule, the researcher interviewed 10 respondents each in Trichy and other than Trichy areas. This pretesting helped to know the wording, adequacy, validity, reliability, and comprehensiveness of the schedules. Accordingly, the schedule was revised. Large scale survey of collecting data from 300 respondents was carried out during April - May of 2015.

**Period of Study**

The secondary data is related to the period 1961-2011. Income, expenditure, savings, investment and borrowings are expressed in current prices for the year 2015-16.

**Tools of Data Analysis**

The data collected for the study is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. For these collected data the researcher prepared a code design and grouped the data for the purpose of analysis. These data were tabulated and analysed using appropriate statistical tools. The sample women respondents (300) are classified under two types on the basis of their native place, Native place Trichy (175) and Native place other than Trichy (125). The statistical tests were used for verifying the significance of hypotheses appropriately with Garret Ranking, Logistic regression and Chi-square test.
The **First hypothesis** that Pull factors excel push factors for the growth of urbanisation. It is verified by using Garrett Ranking method. The push and pull factors are the order of merit given by the respondents were converted into score by using the formula given by Garrett.

\[
\text{Percent position of rank} = \frac{100 (R-0.50)}{N}
\]

This formula is used for converting ranks into percentages of the normal curve, where ‘R’ is the rank of the individual factor in the series ranked by the individual respondent and ‘N’ is the total number of factors ranked by the individual respondents. The percent position of the rank obtained is converted into scores according to the ranking table given by Garrett (see appendix I) then the mean score was calculated for each factor, by adding all these scores of individual respondent and dividing by the sum total of respondents. On the basis of mean score of all variables, they are arranged in descending order and the ranks are given to identify the most influencing factor.

The **second hypothesis** is that Migration of women largely depends on economic factor than a social factor is verified by using by estimating the logistic regression model.

The model is,

\[
Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \beta_6 X_6 + \beta_7 X_7 + U
\]

Where, \(Y\) = Binary (Native place Trichy = 0, other than Trichy = 1)
\(\beta_0 = \) Constant, \(U = \) Error term, \(\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6, \beta_7 = \) slope regression co-efficient
\(X_1 = \) Age of the respondents (number of years)
\(X_2 = \) Community of the respondent
$X_3 =$ Religion of the respondents

$X_4 =$ Marital status of the respondents

$X_5 =$ education of the respondent

$X_6 =$ Type of family

$X_7 =$ Monthly income of family

The third hypothesis is that Urbanisation promotes decision making power of women. To test this hypothesis Chi–square test is used. The variables taken for the test is family budget, children’s education, savings, making investments, purchase of assets and planning family tours.

Limitations

As this study has been carried out based on primary data, the study has got its own specific limitations. The respondents had their own limitations in giving information. The particulars on income and assets position might not denote exact figures as migration of people is affected by economic and socio- psychological factors also the findings in one region may not apply fully to the other regions and also may not be same in all the regions.