The movement in the process of urbanization in India was largely caused after independence, due to implementation of mixed system of economy by the country which gave rise to the development of both public and private sectors. The urban population in India at the beginning of 20th century was only 25.85 million constituting 11.4 percent of India’s population in 1901. This count increased to 285.35 millions comprising 28.53 per cent of total population in 2001, and it was further increased to 377.10 millions and accounters for 31.16 percent in 2011 census. Though urbanization in India is 27per cent, its urban population exceeds the total population of USA and Brazil. Today, India has the second largest urban population in the world and more than two thirds of India lives in the 393 cities that have a population of more than one lakh. During the last 50 years, the rate of growth of urban population of India has been doubled that of the rate of growth of population. It took nearly 40 years between 1971 and 2008 for India’s urban population to rise by 230 million and it could take only half that time to add the next 250 million. According to Mc Kinsey Report, Indian cities are likely to house 40 percent of the urban population by 2030. India has seen a phenomenal increase in the number of its metropolitan towns. More than half of the total urban population of India lives in small and medium towns. In the beginning, the country had only one metropolitan city, which had increased to 35 in 1991. These 35 million plus cities account for 107.9 million urban populations in the country.
The concentration of population in million plus cities increased significantly in the last two decades to almost two-fifth of the urban population. The four mega cities viz. Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata with a population of more than 6 million each in 2001 account for almost one fourth of the population living in the cities. Another three Chennai, Bangalore and Hyderabad, have populations ranging between 5 and 10 million. As per the projections of Government of India, the urban population of the country in 2011 will be 405.26 million and 553.04 million in 2021. Thus around one-third of population is expected to live in urban areas. Another striking feature of India's urbanization has been the concentration of urban population in Class I cities. The number of Class I cities has grown from 24 in 1901 to 423 in 2001. There has been more than fivefold increase in the number of Class I cities since 1951. Irrespective of the size of towns in India, in 2011 census, the total number of towns were registered as 7935 as against to 5161 in 2001 census and giving spectacular increase of 2774 towns in the last decade. The startling fact is that the proportion of population living in smaller towns has shown declining trend over the period while there is massive growth in population of larger towns. The least developed states such as Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Rajasthan, and Uttar Pradesh have urbanized faster than national average.

Urbanization and economic growth are closely inter-linked. Cities are the engines of economic growth. They are the reservoirs of skill and
capital. They are the sources of diverse formal and informal sector employment opportunities. They are the hopes for millions in urban areas and the countryside. While Urban India accommodates less than one-third of the country’s population at present, its contribution to GDP is far larger. Central Statistical Organization (CSO) estimations indicate that this share increased from 38 per cent in 1970-71 to 52 per cent in 1999-00. The Mid-Term Appraisal of the Eleventh Five Year Plan estimates the urban share of GDP at 62-63 per cent in 2009-10. The 11th Plan document projects it to increase to 75 per cent in 2021. Since 2005-06, the country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth has gone up above 9 per cent with some fluctuations. In 2008-09, it was 6.8 per cent. It is 8.6 per cent in 2010-11. As India moves ahead to a double digit growth, obviously a key policy issue emerges as to how to rejuvenate and strengthen Urban India, which will significantly contribute and sustain the economic growth momentum through economies of agglomeration and other productivity-enhancing factors.

In countries like India, where chaotic growth of population is a major hindrance to mushroom growth of slums and slums crop up in the vicinity of urban settlements within days. It is a vicious circle of rural poverty leading to migration in cities in search of job, non-availability of respectable full time employment hence poverty leading to these migrants building temporary shelter for themselves and later many of them following and using the vacant public space for building shanties.
and settling down. This further perpetuates poverty and side by side unhealthy urban environment. In India most of the metros and other industrial and, of late, typically service towns and cities have slums around or at any other location within the city. The civic authorities ignore them, normally at the behest of local politicians, and later there is no stopping the growth of other slum related problems in the cities like crime, environmental degradation and excessive pressure on civic amenities. The cities of India are expected to be the engines of growth but their overall development depends on the quality of life in the urban areas. Therefore it is imperative to understand the dynamics of urban slums which act as a pressure on urban infrastructure and reduce its availability for those living in legal urban areas.

**Cities and Slums**

While cities are the generators of the nation’s wealth and income, there are large sections of the poor in cities, especially slum-dwellers, who are bypassed by the process of growth. An urban-urban divide is emerging as revealed by the trends in Gini co-efficient of urban income distribution encompassing various monthly expenditure classes. A critical issue of public policy is thus how to make cities ‘inclusive’ in accordance with the 11th Plan strategy of ‘inclusive growth’, and provide basic services and access to affordable shelter and employment to the urban poor, including the dwellers of slums which manifest the worst form of poverty. The backlog and current needs of the poor, including
slum-dwellers will have to be addressed along with those from future urban growth so as to prevent the conditions that led to mushrooming of slums and haphazardly grown cities and towns in the past. A strategy of guided urbanization will recognize that the urban poor, including slum-dwellers, numbering millions at the bottom of the pyramid, have a key role in the development of cities. Their number is so large that even a small increase in their productivity through intervention by governments will mean that the contribution to GDP will be huge. The urban poverty issue needs to be tackled from efficiency considerations apart from equity.

A striking feature of the trends in urbanization in India, as elsewhere in the developing world, is the shift in the locus of poverty to cities and towns. The NSSO 61st Round data and estimation by the Planning Commission using Lakdawala methodology reveals that about 81 million people lived below the poverty line in 2004-05. As per this data, the number of poor in urban areas increased by 44 lakhs between 1993-94 and 2004-05. A large part of the increase in urban population occurred in slums due to natural increase factor and inability of migrants to find space in cities other than slums. The slum population in the country is estimated at 75 million in 2001, and projected to increase to 93 million by 2011 (Report of the Committee on Slum Statistics/Census under Dr. PranobSen, the then Chief Statistician & Secretary, Statistics & Programme Implementation, 2010). The partial
Slum Census conducted by the Registrar General of India in 640 towns in 2001 revealed that about 23.5 per cent of the urban population lived in these cities in slums. Further, there existed several cities with more than 25 per cent of population residing in slums. Mumbai topped the list with 54 per cent followed by Faridabad (46 per cent), Aligarh (45 per cent), Meerut (44 per cent), Warangal (43 per cent), Amravati (43 per cent), Raipur (37 per cent), Nagpur (36 per cent), Guntur (33 per cent) and other cities. This is in spite of the restrictive definition of slum adopted by the Census of India in the year 2001. The Committee on Slum Statistics, referred to above, estimated the slum population percentage in the country at a much larger figure than indicated by the partial census in 2001 by the Registrar General of India covering 1743 towns- 26 per cent vs. 23.5 per cent in 2001.

Slums manifest the worst form of deprivation that transcends income poverty. They are characterized by acute over-crowding, insanitary, unhealthy and dehumanizing living conditions. They are subject to precarious land tenure, lack of access to basic minimum civic services such as safe drinking water, sanitation, storm drainage, solid waste management, internal and approach roads, street lighting, education and health care, and poor quality of shelter. Many of these habitations are located in environmentally fragile and dangerous zones prone to landslides, floods and other disasters that make the poor residents highly vulnerable. A significant proportion of the slum dwellers
also face social burdens and health problems worse than their non-slum and rural counterparts. Many civic bodies do not provide the required municipal services in slums on the pretext that these are located on ‘illegal’ space. Moreover, the scale of the problem is so colossal that it is beyond the means of Urban Local Bodies most of whom lack a buoyant fiscal base and subject to severe fiscal stress.

**Concept and Definitions of “Slum”**

Slums are unsystematic and disorderly growth of urban spots on public land and usually grow and sprawl over a period of time and encompass the city from all sides. Slums are more prevalent in the metros, but are slowly coming up in cities and towns of India also. One of the best planned cities in India i.e. Chandigarh which is also being afflicted with slums in its periphery. The living conditions in the slums are sub-human, with little or no access to civic amenities like water, electricity, sanitation, etc. People and animals live in the same surroundings and hence the name “Slum dog” for those poor people who live in shanties, not out of their own choice but due to the poverty situation which force them to lead a life bereft of human dignity. There is a constant fear of losing their home and meager belongings amongst the slum dwellers and they are many a times thrown out by the civic authorities but they, normally, resettle at the same location after a while. The efforts which are being made by the Government to provide alternative arrangements with all civic amenities at the periphery of the
cities are not found in a considerable extent. In spite of several programmes at different levels launched for slum clearance and slum development, the outcome of these, not very encourage and outstanding in progress. The reasons for this unhealthy space of situations are many and which we cannot say a particular.

Slums are a physical and spatial manifestation of urban poverty. People living in slums have little or no access to services such as water, sanitation, and solid waste collection. Most of the housing structures in slums are substandard and do not comply with local building codes. Often, slum dwellers lack legal ownership of the dwelling in which they reside or any other form of secure tenure. In addition, slums are often not recognized by public authorities as an integral part of the city. This is one of the reasons why there is so little data on slum settlements in many countries.

The concept of ‘slums ‘and its definition vary from country to country depending upon the Socio-economic conditions of society. The basic characteristics of slums are - “dilapidated and infirm housing structures, poor ventilation, acute over-crowding, and faulty alignment of streets, inadequate lighting, paucity of safe drinking water, water logging during rains, absence of toilet facilities, and non-availability of basic physical and social services.”

The living conditions in slums are usually unhygienic and contrary to all norms of planned urban growth and are an important factor in
accelerating transmission of various air and water borne diseases. The legal definition however differs from State to State.

**Parameters used for defining slums**

In India, the Slum Area (Improvement & Clearance) Act, 1956 (under section 3) provides the legal basis for defining or declaring any area as ‘slum’. The Act uses the following criteria for defining slums:-

a) area in any respect unfit for human habitation;

b) area by reason of dilapidation, overcrowding, faulty arrangement and design of such buildings, narrowness or faulty arrangement of streets, lack of ventilation, light, sanitation facilities or any combination of these factors which are detrimental to safety, health and morals.

**The Census of India,** while conducting the slum census 2001, has adopted the definition of slums specified/declared “slums” through State/UT or local government under any act. In addition, it also considered the following area as slum “A compact area of at least 300 population or about 60-70 households of poorly built congested tenements, in unhygienic environment usually with inadequate infrastructure and lacking in proper sanitary and drinking water facilities”.

The National Sample Survey Organization “NSSO”, 58th Round define slum as - “A compact settlement with a collection of poorly built tenements, mostly of temporary nature, crowded together usually with
inadequate sanitary and drinking water facilities in unhygienic conditions. Such an area, for the purpose of this survey, was considered as “non-notified slum” if at least 20 households lived in that area. Areas notified as slums by the respective municipalities, corporations, local bodies or development authorities are treated as “notified slums”.

It is interesting to observe that the criteria used for defining or declaring any area as slum (i.e. dilapidation, overcrowding, faulty arrangement and design of such buildings, narrowness or faulty arrangement of streets, lack of ventilation, light or sanitation) under the ‘Slum Area (Improvement & Clearance Act, 1956) are not supported with the parameters/standards. It is at the discretion of the slum declaring agency to decide randomly based the physical or infrastructural conditions of any area which entitles it to be declared as slums.

According to UNDP, the proportion of urban population living in slums is the proportion of urban population living in slum households. A slum household is defined as a group of individuals living under the same roof lacking one or more of the following conditions:

- Access to improved water
- Access to improved sanitation
- Sufficient-living area
- Durability of housing
- Security of tenure
However, since information on secure tenure is not available for most of the countries, only the first four indicators are used to define slum household, and then to estimate the proportion of urban population living in slums.

According to “UN Habitat” - slum household is defined by UN-HABITAT as a group of individuals living under the same roof that lack one or more (in some cities, two or more) of the following conditions: security of tenure, structural quality and durability of dwellings, access to safe water, access to sanitation facilities and sufficient living area.

It is important to mention that the important parameters i.e. tenure status is missed out by The Slum (Improvement & Clearance) Act 1956, Census of India and NSSO while capturing the information on status of slums, though it has been specifically emphasized by UN on its definition on slums. The tenure is important parameters as it enables entitlement of any person to have formal access to government subsidies.

Type of Slums

Slums / informal housing can also be classified according to the diverse processes of land /housing supply and varying degree of tenure security in the following manner-

a) Freehold land (inner city blighted areas,

b) Urban villages and land owned by village panchayats

c) Chaws/Bustees
d) Encroachments on public/private land (squatters)

e) Government/private leasehold land (resettlement colonies)

f) Slums on the urban periphery

g) Illegal land-subdivisions/unauthorized colonies/ revenue layouts/ gramthana layouts (where land ownership may be legal or quasi legal but land subdivision is illegal)

h) Refugee Resettlement Colonies

i) Pavement dwellers, although small in percentage, are found in large mega-cities.

The main difference is how the administrative/planning system regulates these settlement types.

These settlements differ substantially from each other not only in terms of environmental deficiencies and shelter conditions but also income and affordability of slum dwellers. There are significant untapped resources with slum dwellers could actually pay for their priorities. Slums could be graded on the basis of these parameters.

Various schemes of the Government have aimed at improving slum conditions by granting capital subsidies. The major programmes started by the Government of India towards inclusive city development, including the provision of basic services and affordable housing to the urban poor, are the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) - Basic Services to the Urban Poor (BSUP) & Integrated Housing & Slum Development Programme (IHSDP) - launched in
December 2005, and the 2 schemes entitled Interest Subsidy Scheme for Housing the Urban Poor (ISHUP) No distinction was made to grade them according to the type of slum.

**Characteristics of Slums**

a) **Lack of basic services and poor access**

This is often cited as one of the main characteristics of slums. This includes lack or inadequate access to safe drinking water and sanitation. This is a very common feature of the slums around Freetown. Such conditions are better in some areas compared to others.

b) **Sub-standard housing and inadequate structure.**

Slum areas are associated with a high number of sub-standard housing usually constructed using non permanent materials such as plastic and straw roofs. Floors are usually made of earth. Poverty amongst slum dwellers means that they are unable to afford decent housing structures. Such structures usually do not meet any building regulation requirements.

c) **Hazardous locations.**

Slums are usually found in hazardous locations such as foreshores, hillsides and river basins. The usually expensive precautions taken to secure and protect buildings in such areas are not taken. This means that such buildings and their inhabitants are exposed to environmental disasters such as flooding and landslides. There are
reported cases of lives being lost as a result of floods during the rainy seasons and also due to movements of large rocks.

d) Overcrowding and high density.

Overcrowding refers to low space per person and high occupancy rates. Many slum units have five or more persons sharing a single room, which is also used for cooking, sleeping and living.

e) Security of tenure

Most slum dwellers do not have security of tenure. This means that they can be evicted at anytime. Residents have also suggested that this is an issue that should be resolved by the land being legalized and the existing tenants granted security of tenure by the government. This could be seen as a long term strategy of maintaining the units as the occupants are more likely to invest their limited income on carrying out the necessary maintenance, knowing they are not mere tenants at will.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Urbanization is a contentious topic in India because it is a process that is already happening and yet there is a lack of planning and attention to consequences. Quite simply, it is a socio-economic force that can bring great prosperity to the nation of India, but there has been a lack of attention to the realities of urban life.

Majumdar et al. (1972) examined the use of oral contraceptives in urban, rural and slum areas in Howrah district in West Bengal. They made a comparative study of acceptability and use effectiveness of oral
contraceptives in three clinics in different settings (urban, rural, and slum areas). The major findings of the study were that in the urban area, where the program was shown before its initiation, a majority of acceptors attended the clinic prior to contact with field workers and more than a quarter attended after only one contact. In the rural area majority of acceptors came to the clinic after one contact with field workers, but in the slum area, the majority of acceptors came only after the second or third contact. The cumulative continuation rates after different cycles of use computed by the life-table method were highest in the rural area and lowest by far in the slum area. The slum acceptors showed higher drop-out rates throughout the entire period of use. The cumulative continuation rates tended to be highest in the urban area for the age groups 25-34 and for women with four or five living children. The rates were higher for literates but the difference between literates and illiterates was substantial only in the slum area. The rates were also higher in the slum area for women who joined the program after repeated visits by field workers than for those who came after, at most, one visit.

Reddy (1984) examine the differential contraceptive use among the slum and non-slum dwellers: in Hyderabad city. A two stage simple random sampling technique was used in this study designed to examine the differentials in contraceptive practice between the slum and the non-slum dwellers of Hyderabad, and the effect of a few selected variables
age, marriage duration, and number of living sons, and socioeconomic status on contraceptive behavior. A total sample of 480 couples consisting of 240 slum and 240 non-slum dwellers were selected at random. Contraceptive use was significantly higher among the non-slum dwellers than the slum dwellers. About 65 per cent of the non-slum dwellers were currently using a contraceptive method in contrast to 32 per cent of the slum dwellers. Further, 12 per cent of the non-slum dwellers had used contraceptives previously in contrast to none of the slum dwellers. The ever users of contraceptives constituted 76 per cent of the non-slum dwellers in comparison to only 32 per cent of the slum dwellers. Among the current contraceptive users, 84 per cent each of the slum and the non-slum dwellers had undergone sterilization; 15.5 per cent of the non-slum dwellers and less than 3 per cent of the slum dwellers used effective temporary methods. The need exists to encourage the adoption of the temporary contraceptive methods by both the non-slum and the slum dwellers in order to maintain proper spacing between successive children.

Mookherjee Debnath (1986) presented a profile of slums in one of the most congested and struggling of the tidal world cities, Calcutta and in the process, to underscores a crucial problem facing by the planners, that of the political of basic data on the physical, social and environmental conditions of this form of human habitat. The study reveals a spatial variation among the slums of Calcutta on the two major
dimensions of space and family size. The author noted that the formation of goals for slum improvement programmes based on selected and isolated physical criteria alone, however well intended, can serve only a limited and myopic purpose.

Shaw (1988) examined the fertility and child spacing among the urban poor in a third world city, the case of Calcutta, India. Studies of fertility behavior in the third world have relied heavily on two variables - income and education - to explain variations in fertility rates. The socioeconomic variables traditionally employed to account for variations in infertility rates are invariant. On the basis of data from 180 slum households in Calcutta, India, it indicates that in a situation where material and social conditions are comparable, cultural and demographic variables play a major role in influencing reproductive behavior. In this case study, caste and family type have a significant effect on the numbers of surviving children. As regards child spacing, the woman’s age is of paramount importance.

Mitra (1994) examines the pattern of urbanization particularly city growth in India, employment structure in the cities, impact of rural urban population movement on the urban informal sector, interlink ages between rural and urban poverty, incidence of slum population and shortage of basic amenities in various cities and the residual absorption of slum inhabitants in low productivity activities. In order to tackle these
problems it reinforces the importance of productive employment generation in the urban areas.

Chandran Rama R. (2001) attempts present the salient aspects of urbanization in India from the geographical point of view. The temporal and spatial aspects of urbanisation at the national and intercity levels form the main focus of the work. The author emphasizes the process of urbanisation and the nature of interdependence among urban centres and their hinterlands. The author discusses the history of urbanization in India from pre-historic times to the present. The author explores the location aspects of urbanization. The author devoted two chapters to study the cities and their relations with its surrounding areas. This is done at two levels- the area of dominance of the city and the peripheral area around the city where the direct impact of the city is felt in day-to-day life. The study also examined the fundamental issues involved in framing a national urbanization policy.

Nguyen Minh Thang and Dang Nguyen Anh (2002) study accessibility and Use of Contraceptives in Vietnam. Accessibility of contraceptives is an important factor in use of family planning. Because contraceptive access in Vietnam varies sizably by region and because one method (the IUD) predominates in Vietnam's contraceptive method mix, a better understanding of the accessibility of family planning services in the country could help program planner’s increase use. They use data from the 1997 Vietnam Demographic and Health Survey on
5,310 currently married women of reproductive age were used to examine factors related to the accessibility of family planning services. The effects of individual-level and community level factors were analyzed jointly. In this study, it had been seen nearly 84 per cent of currently married Vietnamese women. 100 per cent of those in urban areas and 80 per cent of those in rural areas lived within one kilometer of at least one source of family planning services in 1997. Commune health clinics and drugstores were the major providers, with 55 per cent and 47 per cent, respectively, of women located within one kilometer of such sources; these were followed by community health and family planning workers (40 per cent and 27 per cent). A multiple regression analysis showed that ready access to any source of family planning significantly reduced nonuse of modern methods (odds ratio, 0.6) and current use of traditional methods (0.6). Likewise, access to a greater number of sources of family planning, reduced nonuse of modern methods (0.9) and current use of traditional methods (0.9). The increased availability of contraceptive methods and information could increase use of family planning in Vietnam.

Kayembe P. et al. (2003) studies the prevalence and determinants of the use of modern contraceptive methods in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo. Contraception on five hundred females of childbearing age (15–49 years) who were selected through a stratified sampling procedure. The interview collected socio-
demographic data, knowledge, perception and current use of modern contraceptive methods. The result showed Condoms appear to be the most widely known modern contraceptive method, the pill was cited by only 28 per cent, a noticeable proportion reported unwanted pregnancies. The prevalence of the utilization of modern contraceptive methods (barrier and hormonal methods) was estimated at 7 per cent, with the male condom being the most commonly used method (reported by 74.3 per cent of those using a modern method). Hormonal methods were used less often. The current use of a modern contraceptive method correlated with having discussed contraception with someone and having ever used a modern contraceptive method. An increase in the level of knowledge on modern contraceptive methods through mass and interpersonal communications could be one of the key strategies to increase the utilization rate of modern contraceptive methods in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Teenagers should be considered a priority group since there is evidence of unmet needs among them.

Sunil Kumar Karn, Shigeo Shikura, Hideki Harada (2003) presents and discusses primary data from a survey of 1,070 households in four poor settlements in Mumbai comprising slum- and pavement-dwellers and squatters on the living environment and health conditions. The study attempts to examine the consequences of socio-economic and environmental factors in terms of income, literacy, sanitation and hygiene for morbidity. The needs of the urban poor and their priorities
are seen to be hierarchical. They need first assurance of being allowed to stay where they are and then provision of basic amenities of toilets, water supply, sewerage and drainage.

A strategy analyst Hari Sud (2006) discussed poverty and slums in India, and firstly pointed out that “twenty five per cent of Indians live on less than a dollar a day and seventy per cent live on less than two dollars a day”. With this kind of a statistic, it is not surprising that many of India’s citizens are forced into slums due to a lack of opportunity. This cycle is perpetuated due to children growing up in the same environments generation after generation - youths who lack the ability and resources to change their circumstances. This is a fundamental problem that India has become world-renowned for, and an infrastructure and housing failure have let such an awful reality persist.

Pranati Datta (2006) of the Indian Statistical Institute conducted a population study that illuminates many of the same concerns as stated by Narain. Datta also examines concrete and current dynamics of urbanization. Datta shares the same opinion as Narain that mega-cities were created to the ultimate detriment of both the people and economy of India, which led to “virtual collapse in urban services” The residual effects of such unregulated and expedited urbanization are representative of problems that have plagued many urban environments - namely “housing, slum, water, infrastructure, [and] quality of life”. This is more or less the obvious, and Datta goes on to explain the crux of the
problem. In an attempt to categorize levels of urbanization, Datta cites three phases of urbanization: the “initial” phase, the “acceleration” phase, and the “terminal” phase. The first is a stage in which society is centered upon agrarian production, while the second is representative of a society undergoing an economic restructuring highlighted by increasingly levels of urban population. The third and final phase is characterized by an urban population of “70 per cent or more”, in which any overall population growth correlates with urban growth. Datta identifies India as being in the “acceleration” phase, and aptly points out that nearly all developed countries across the globe are in the latter two stages of urbanization. This frames urbanization as a prerequisite to stability and economic success, and he supports this claim with the fact that in 2000 the urbanization statistic for developed countries was 76 per cent, while only in 40 per cent for developing countries. Despite the relationship between development and urbanization, Datta articulates the fundamental reality of India’s urbanization, and that is a strong sense of imbalance. Urbanization has created prosperous populations within mega-cities and yet there is vast inequity, as is evident in the proliferation of slums. Datta points out that one of the explanations for this is that urbanization has been characterized as a “rural push” as opposed to an “urban pull”. Deplorable economic conditions in the agrarian sector and the glorification of mega-cities have created a sense of false hope, and all that is waiting on the other side has been
“poverty, unemployment, [and] exploitation”. There is a strong emphasis on the unprecedented pace of urbanization within India, which is the underlying factor that has given urbanization such a negative connotation. Yet, Datta explains that there is an opportunity for change, and that change is going to come in the form of policy implication. Datta cites a “redirection of investment” for cities and regions that have been “neglected” thus far. To counter the deplorable effects of mega cities including Calcutta, Delhi, and others, Datta articulates that there needs to be a “redirection of migration flows”. Finally, there is the imperative need for “proper urban planning” that would tackle the issues of infrastructure, development, and restoration. Datta does not elaborate on the feasibility of this, but needless to say the author has identified the difficulties of urbanization and how such adversities could be addressed.

A recent study conducted by the McKinsey Global Institute (2010) documents the essentiality of urbanization in India, and views it as “the most cost-effective vehicle to expand access to basic services”. The institute notes that the productivity that can be generated from urbanization is for a population that has grown organically within cities meaning that migration from rural areas has not been a strong force, as approximately “20 per cent of the increase in urban population is driven by direct migration”. This is an important point because there needs to be a strong emphasis on the quality of services within the city limits, as
this will be the environment that will produce the subsequent generations of the Indian workforce. An urban awakening is a poignant phrase to describe the socio-economic status of India, as the McKinsey Global Institute’s report cites an annual increase in rural employment of only 0.6 per cent, while there is a 3.6 per cent annual growth in the cities. The services sector will serve as the occupational foundation for the Indian urban population, and thus urbanization is inextricably linked to the regional growth of India. Despite the historically organic growth of urban centers, cities are still seen as an escape from a poor agricultural lifestyle. While much of India remains rural, those rural areas that are adjacent to urban centers are shown to have “10 to 20 per cent higher incomes than the rural average”. The institute’s report stresses a higher quality of life as cities “allow for interactions that promote productivity” and “offer the opportunity to significantly lower the cost of service delivery”. The revenue generated from cities will allow for the expansion and maintenance of urban services, and the report identifies urbanization as a process that accompanies agricultural productivity. This can be accomplished through a surge in occupations that are non-agricultural, which will bring agrarian workers to the city, and consequently allow for a better balance in the impoverished rural areas. While the institute’s report does present a plan for the immediate consequences of urbanization, there is overwhelming philosophy that urbanization is what will bring India success and stability.
Goswami Mihir, Kedia Geeta (2010) studies the socio-demographic and environmental profiles as well as magnitude of morbidity among urban slum dwellers of Ahmedabad. The major findings of the study are as follows.

- There were no sanitary latrines and drainage facilities at studied slum. There were 987 females per thousand males and 903 females per thousand males in below five year age group.
- The literacy rate was 16.8 per cent and 5.6 per cent among males and females respectively. Among five years above age males, 27 per cent, 9.7 per cent and 7.4 per cent had a habit of smoking, tobacco chewing and alcohol intake respectively.
- Among five years above age females 4.36 per cent, 10.9 per cent and 0.84 per cent had a habit of smoking, tobacco chewing and alcohol intake respectively.
- Out of 233 eligible couples, 11.16 per cent and 24.46 per cent were adopted spacing and permanent methods for contraception respectively. 28 per cent males and 33.7 per cent females were either suffering from or have a history of one or more illness within previous two weeks.
- The morbidity rate for both sexes was 30.88 per cent.
- Anemia was found in 19 per cent of females of age group of 15-44 years.
Respiratory tract infections and diarrhea were present in 7.4 per cent and 3.7 per cent of studied population respectively.

The incidence rates for respiratory tract infections and diarrhea were found higher among 0-4 year age group children (15 per cent and 10.6 per cent respectively).

Ranganath T.S and Poornima C., (2011) considers that the availability, accessibility, acceptability and affordability of maternal services are important to reduce maternal morbidity and mortality. To achieve MDG-5, urban slums need improvement, as slum indicators are below urban average. The objective was to study the utilization of maternal services. The cross sectional study was done in all urban slums in the urban field practice area of Bangalore Medical College and 320 postnatal mothers were interviewed. Among the 320 mothers interviewed, only 40.9 per cent have utilized maternal services completely. About 56.6 per cent have registered in the 1st trimester. Lack of awareness was found the major reason (49.0 per cent). Mothers with IFA tablet consumption were by only 65.6 per cent, major reason (44.5 per cent) for refusal was the side effects. Only 59 per cent had their 2nd postnatal visit. There is poor utilization of maternal services. Awareness is needed in slums by IEC activities.

The World Bank (2011) shares many of the same concerns as the two aforementioned authors, yet it is an international organization that is actively attempting to curtail the negative effects of urban growth, and
sees urbanization as an “integral part of economic growth”. The World Bank stresses the economic assets of Indian urbanization despite all of the criticisms. The organization provides the statistic that there is less than one-third of the population in urban environments, and yet those domains account for more than 66 per cent of India’s GDP and 90 per cent of government revenues. The World Bank points out the specialized problem that, India has because while this statistic may be seen as promising, slums “now account for 1/4 of all urban housing”. In Mumbai for instance there are slums in close proximity to major infrastructure and economic centers. This is representative of great urban inequity and a housing crisis that has engulfed much of India. In line with Datta’s population studies report, the World Bank finds “strategic policy” to be the only solution to the quagmire. Governance, financials, inequity, public services, infrastructure, and the environment are all broad issues that the World Bank seeks to address through the implementation of public policy. The World Bank has engendered and endorsed several projects to be proactive about the problem, and one of the most prominent is the Mumbai Urban Transport Projection (MUTP). The program utilizes significant funding to bolster transport services, and currently is changing the urban landscape in one of the world’s most densely populated cities.
Sawhney Upinder (2013) analyzes certain demographic attributes of the slum population in India, the public policy response towards the same. It also reviews certain programmes designed by the government to control the growth of slums and the efforts to rehabilitate the slum-dwellers. It concludes that the policy of urban development must focus on slum clearance and rehabilitation of the poor and public-private partnership mode is a way out for integrated urban development. To create ‘inclusive cities’ in future there is an urgent need for improving the local government capacity to meet these challenges and ensure that the allocated funds reach the target population. There is a dire necessity for ‘good governance’ at all levels of the government. The ideal situation can be reached if institutional framework for appointing a regulator for urban development can be worked out.

Statement of the Problem

During the plan periods, India has made significant progress in accelerating economic growth and reducing poverty. Per capita gross domestic product (GDP) at constant prices has trebled over a 30-year period, rising at annual rates ranging between 4.1 per cent (1973-83), 4.9 per cent (1983-93) and 6.1 per cent (1993-2004). The incidence of poverty as measured by the headcount ratio has declined from 54.1 per cent in 1973-74 to 27.5 per cent in 2004-05 and the numbers of the poor from 321.3 million to 301.7 million during the same period. Aiming at inclusive growth, the Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-12) has fixed a
target of 10 percentage points reduction in the headcount ratio of consumption poverty, via income growth, employment expansion, higher levels of investment in health, education, water and sanitation, and child nutrition, and directly-targeted poverty reduction programmes.

Urban areas yet to be received much attention in terms of the planning, development and management despite the fact that cities and economic development are inextricably linked. Because of high productivity of urban areas, economic development activities get located in cities. Accordingly, it is desirable that human settlements are provided with necessary planning and development inputs so that the orderly growth and development is ensured. This would also be necessary for ensuring efficient functioning of human settlements for improving their productivity and for providing desirable quality of life to its residents in order to cater to their physical and socio-economic needs. The urban development strategy for any state thus assumes importance of not only its economic emancipation but also its physical as well as social well-being.

Significance of the Study

It is implicitly or explicitly assumed in poverty studies that slums account for most of the poor in the cities. Indeed, most of India’s urban poor live in overcrowded and unsanitary settlements, commonly known as slums and squatter settlements, and usually do not have access to safe and secure shelter and basic infrastructure and services. They are
forced to live in illegal and informal settlements because they cannot afford formal shelter, being excluded out of the housing markets. It is, however, important to realize that slums do not house all the urban poor, nor are all slum dwellers always poor. Income and employment deprivation may go together with deprivations in the area of housing, services (education, health and environment); such that the combination of deprivations makes it very difficult for households to get out of poverty.

Urban development as being a state subject, governments at the state level/local level have the responsibility of declaring an area as a ‘slum’. There being no standard tangible indicators for notification, there is lot of subjectivity in notification of slums. An area can be designated as a ‘slum’ under the State Slum Clearance/Improvement Act when the Competent Authority is convinced that the area is a source of danger to health safety and convenience, or when buildings are found to be unfit for human habitation due to dilapidation, overcrowding or lack of ventilation, light or sanitation facilities. The definition of ‘slum’ under the Act is quite loose and a liberal application of the law may cover substantial parts of cities as ‘slums’. On the other hand, ‘declared slums’ may not include newer squatter settlements and settlements outside the municipal boundary and therefore may result in underestimation of the slum population.
It is truism that the urban growth due to various factors has been taken in an unprecedented manner. The chaotic growth of urban population has been resulted into mushroom growth of slums of varying sizes. Undoubtedly, these slums are becoming the most vulnerable and blighted areas of towns/cities. It appears to be no change in the basic level or improvement in the features of slum settlements despite several decades of programmes for the environmental improvement and betterment of the quality of life of slum dwellers. Slum dwellers need not perennially be at the receiving end of selected doles but must be made part of the urban economic and social process with adequate opportunities for improving their lives, while contributing what is acknowledged to be a major share in the economic activities of the towns/cities. Upgradation of slums and improving the living conditions, of the urban poor, the so called slum dwellers has to be recognized as part of the regional/national development process.

Cities without slums' is a slogan of urban planning, which however desirable, is believed to be unreachable. But it is a serious thought of urban planning and development concern. Certainly the degree of effort to upgrade slums to a more habitable level is of paramount importance. Clearance or upgrading slums is not a problem of individual urban settlement, but it is ubiquitous and a national problem. Improvement of the environmental situation, education standards, better civic conditions, planned housing and consciousness
of health and improving the standard of living and quality of life in general are very important to eradicate the slums.

Geographically, a slum is an area of any size possessing quite contrasting spatial, structural and socio-economic characteristics of urban environment. Though slum is a part and parcel of urban sprawl, it has its own spatial identity functional behavior. Being a part of the urban Spread and environment analyzing the site and situation of slums as well as their spatio-socio-economic dialectics is of paramount importance for clean urban environment and urban development. It is in this perspective that the present study of “Urbanization and Slum Development in Kurnool City, Andhra Pradesh” is an attempt with a view to provoking more detailed and profound information on origin and evolution of slums and spatio-socio-economic dialectics of slum dwellers. It is hoped that this diagnostic study will help to evolve both prophylactic and curative measures and ultimately to upgrade the slums and improve the quality of life of Slum dwellers of Kurnool city.

The Study Area

The present study area Kurnool city is one of the biggest urban settlements of Andhra Pradesh occupying 19th place in the size urban population. This was the capital of former Nawabs, capital of Andhra state from October 1953 to 1st November 1956. As per the provisional population statistics of 2011, the population of Kurnool reached to 478,124. Starting with a total population of 25576 in 1901, the city
reached more than four lakh population, indicating more than 18 times increase in the last hundred and ten years period. The city has been witnessed with a giant increase of urban population the last four decades which is evident from the fact that the urban population increased from 1, 00,815 in 1961 to 478,124 in 2011 indicating more than four times increase. The spectacular increase of Kurnool urban dwellers has not been merely due to natural growth but due to heavy influx of rural population. This phenomenal increase of urban population has largely contributed to the growth of slums and it has become a major problem to be talked by local administration.

**Aims and Objectives of the Study**

In the present study, an attempt is made to study the Kurnool city, with a special reference to slums and their structural and socio-economic dimensions. In this endeavour, it is aimed to examine;

1. The historical growth of Kurnool city.
2. The spatial distributional pattern of demographic characteristics of Kurnool City.
3. The physical morphology of the town and its sprawl.
4. The origin and evolution of slums of Kurnool City.
5. The structural and functional characteristics of slums and slum dwellers, and
6. The socio-economic dimensions of development of slums of Kurnool City.
Hypotheses

1. Large scale of rural exodus is the main factor for the growth of urban slums.

2. Slums grew at a faster in during the regime of the New Economic Reforms and has widened the gap between rich and poor.

3. The state Government Policy has been conducive to improve the socio-economic conditions of Slum dwellers.

Database

The present study is based upon both primary and secondary data. The secondary data pertaining to ward-wise population, land use, slums, etc., has been collected from Census Hand books, Government records, etc.

The primary data relating to the structural and socio-economic characteristics of slums and slum dwellers has been generated with the help of pre-tested interview schedule. Here, slum dweller is the basic and real operational unit for micro analysis of slums. It helped to understand the ground realities about the quality of life slum dwellers. The selection of sample slum dwellers has been done on the basis of random sampling procedure. A pre-tested interview schedule was prepared and filled up through interview method from each respondent to acquire first hand information on various socio-economic' aspects of slums and slum dwellers.
Methodology

In the present study, both cartographic and statistical techniques are employed to make the study partially qualitative and descriptive and partially quantitative and analytical. Most of the secondary data is represented by thematic mapping methods. The primary data are analyzed with both simple and complex quantitative techniques. Using primary data, only two methods of analysis are made, namely, simple frequency and percentage analysis and principal axis factor analysis.

The purpose of Factor Analysis to be made in the present study is to interpret the structure within the variance-covariance matrices of the multivariate data collection made on the socio-economic conditions of slum dwellers of Kurnool City.

Limitations of the Study

The study, it may be admitted, has certain limitations. In fact, the scope of the study is restricted to know the socio-economic conditions of slum dwellers in Kurnool city. The study is confined to the census data of 2001 as final population statistics are not released by Registrar General, Census of India. Besides, the primary data collected from the respondents with the help of a Interview Schedule through Survey Method may not be accurate as none of the beneficiaries are in the habit of maintaining proper accounts/records with regard to income generated, number of man days of employment generated etc. Some of the beneficiaries were hesitant in furnishing the required data and
information when it relates to their income and assets. In many cases, the beneficiaries could not remember their past operations and even if they do so, they were unable to give correct figures of income. So the data cannot be immune to built-in, biases in the responses obtained from the beneficiaries. Though much care is taken in obtaining correct information, there is bound to be some degree of error in the data furnished and hence, in its analysis. Besides, the data were collected from a limited sample of 320 slum dwellers in Kurnool district. The conclusions drawn are restricted to the survey findings and any generalizations need to be cautiously applied.

**Scheme of Presentation**

The present study is presented in seven chapters. The first chapter - **A PERSPECTIVE ON THE RESEARCH PROBLEM** - deals with a brief outline of the problem of study, objectives of the study, review of literature, importance of the study, scope, methodology and sample design, data base and limitations of the study.

In the second chapter- **HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY REGION- KURNOOL CITY**- an attempt is made to present the history of Kurnool city and its geographical features.

The third chapter**- URBANIZATION AND SLUM SCENARIO IN ANDHRA PRADESH** presents a brief profile of the state and trends of urbanisation and development of slums.
The fourth chapter - **DEMOGRAPHIC STRUCTURE OF KURNOOL CITY AND ITS EVOLUTION** - describes the population structure and its dynamics since 1901 to present.

In the fifth chapter - **SPATIAL DIALECTICS OF SLUMS** - critically evaluates the spatial and temporal growth of slums and their origin and evolution on Kurnool city.

In the sixth chapter - **SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF SLUM DWELLERS: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS** - analyses the physico-socio-economic conditions of sample slum dwellers, and their livelihood opportunities.

The last chapter - **SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION** - presents the major findings and conclusions of the study. Based on empirical data and its analysis, an attempt is made to suggest certain measures for the improvement of conditions of slum dwellers.
References


