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RE-ENGINEERING VILLAGES UNDER GLOBALIZATION: A REVIEW

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Abstract:

Major changes occur in the villages' social structures, demographic make-up, and land usage, mostly moving from residential to commercial and industrial uses. Urban village transformation is primarily attributable to land acquisition and the resulting changes in the livelihood patterns of the landowners, as well as to the increase in land value brought on by strategic locations and the demand for residential space, both of which encourage landowners to build higher structures both horizontally and vertically. The villages that were integrated into cities are now highly commercialised and high-density towns. Unplanned and uncontrolled expansion, congestion, and high-density built-up areas put stress on the available infrastructure and amenities, using a lot of resources, upsetting the urban ecosystem, and creating social instability.

Keywords: Resources, urban ecosystem, demography, social instability, globalization.

Introduction:

An urban village is a village that has developed urban features as a result of the loss of its agricultural foundation owing to the process of acquiring land holdings for public use or the conversion of the village into residential or industrial colonies. These are the rural communities that were enmeshed in urban boundaries while big cities were being developed. These communities were historically rural and still exhibit some distinctly rural traits, but they are sometimes referred to as urban since they are situated in an area that is clearly delineated as an urban region with a significant urban impact. Similar to metropolitan regions today, the bulk of the workforce in these communities works in non-primary occupations.

Urbanization, economic expansion, and sociocultural change:

A city's development is influenced by a number of variables. The different variables that contribute to the physical shape and structure of the city include economic growth, socio-cultural transformation, and population growth. The majority of cities have grown where an older centre formerly stood, either as an addition to the city or as a new route around the city. The tendency of cities is to grow and engulf their rural

surroundings as they become bigger. There are three main phases that communities go through, when they transition from rural to urban:

1. Rural: Villages that are situated far from urban areas and are not expected to become urbanised very soon.

2. Transitional: It is suggested that villages be included to the Master Plan's zones for urban growth and land acquisition.

3. Urban: Villages that have already been incorporated into an urban setting and that are given to the municipality for general care and upkeep.

Urban Encroachment:

As soon as the people realised that their land was a valuable resource, they began to encroach on all of the open places. Even the circulation corridors had been overtaken, making it almost difficult for cars to enter. According to the Gurgaon Municipal Corporation's 1963 Notification, construction regulations in the "Lal dora" region are laxer than those in the nearby developed areas. The foreigners purchased the rental space for businesses by taking advantage of the general laxities. The locals' stable means of subsistence comes from the rent, they get.

Rural Urban power dynamics:

When rural regions are absorbed by urban areas, a lot is destroyed and lost. The village settlement has undergone changes and transformations to take on new urban forms. Villagers fight valiantly to live in an urban setting that is imposed upon them. Rural communities are struggling to adapt a new identity and status in the modern metropolitan environment as a result of urbanisation pressure. Although urbanisation is an inevitable and important process, its effects on the surrounding rural settlement should be carefully considered. Urban villages contribute to the growth of the surrounding urban areas, which are often built on land that was formerly owned by villages. These urban settlements provide migrants, who are mostly from lower socioeconomic groups, cheap housing. Homeless city people are drawn to areas with public amenities and infrastructure. Low- and middle-class people and even white-collar professionals are choosing to live in these urban villages due to a lack of housing options and the resulting high rent speculation. Urban villages demonstrate how the mixed land is a fundamental aspect of settlement's organic expansion. The results of poor planning include large-scale growth, economic activity, and unauthorised building construction.

India has moved away from agriculture as a source of jobs in a big way over the last 20 years. The International Labour Organization says that 215 million less people worked in agriculture in 2016 than in 2004. (World Bank, 2019a). According to Mehrotra et al. (2014), and Abraham (2017), the number of jobs lost in agriculture during the same time period was much higher, at over 40 million.

Some long-term studies of villages (Himanshu, & Stern, 2016) show that non-farm jobs in rural areas are becoming more important as villages become more connected to regional, national, and international economies. Even though there are other jobs available, it seems clear that people are being forced to leave agriculture.

There have been many reports of problems in agriculture. The main causes are low agricultural productivity, farmer debt, bad harvests, and general instability (Bhoi & Dadhich, 2019).

Possible reasons include the effect of automation (and digitalization) on larger farms and the growth of large-scale agribusiness on smaller farms that aren't as productive (Barman & Deka, 2019). In any case, if the smallest number of people in a family during this time was 5, then about 200 million people have stopped farming and found other ways to make money.

The structural shift of employment out of agriculture:

The growth of CTs:

There are now more Census Towns than before (CTs). For the first time, these towns meet the criteria for the Indian Census to call them "urban." They have at least 5,000 people, more than 400 people per square kilometre, and more than 75% of the male workers have jobs other than agriculture. Between 2001 and 2011, 91 million more people in India lived in cities. One-third of this increase was caused by new Census Towns (Pradhan, 2017; Shaw, 2019). Between 1961 and 2001, the Census usually found a few hundred CTs all over the country. But between 2001 and 2011, a record number of 2532 new CTs were made.

The growth of CTs, which must have at least 75% men who don't work on farms. This makes sense because the agricultural sector is losing jobs. But because the size and density of a CT's population are also important factors, the shift in employment is not fully reflected in CT data. When we looked at the main census data, we found many more villages that aren't CTs because they have less than 5,000 people. But a large and growing number of people who live in these communities work in fields other than agriculture. It's important because it shows that, even though there was a big jump between 2001 and 2011, there are a lot more communities with over 75% non-farm activity than CTs (where there is a decline, for example in West Bengal, this is in part because of reclassification of many of these villages as CTs in 2011).

The growth of 'non-farm villages':

On the Indo-Gangetic Plain, where most people used to live in rural areas, these "non-farm settlements" are becoming more and more common. For example, the number of people who died went up by 450 in Odisha, 350 in Bihar, almost 500 in Uttar Pradesh, and 500 in Jharkhand.

As India has moved from rural to urban areas, the rise of CTs and "non-farm villages" as well as overall labour data show how people's ways of making a living have changed. But migration is a very important third part of this change. The circular labour movement has been an important part of the lives of many rural families for a very long time (e.g., De Haan, 2002; Deshingkar & Farrington, 2009; Tumbe, 2012; Vartak et al., 2018). Seasonal migration has been a way for rural people to make money when farming didn't bring in enough, especially in the north and northeast, which are poor (Keshri & Bhagat, 2012).

Effect of seasonal or cyclical pattern of migration in metropolitan areas:

It's important to keep in mind that seasonal and circular migratory streams often cross paths and can be hard to differentiate. Both types of migration involve short-term, often repeated moves that don't involve a permanent change of location. Circular migration is often described as "a short time away from the usual place of residence, followed by a return to that place" (Deshingkar and Farrington, 2009, 1). This idea says that every seasonal migration can be thought of as a circle. It shouldn't be a surprise that the two forms are often used interchangeably in writing. But there is a big difference between the two. In the past, seasonal farm work has been linked to the rhythms of the agricultural cycle. When there aren't enough people to work in farms nearby, rural families leave their towns to find work. It is often used to make up for what farmers don't make. People sometimes move from one place to another based on the type of business that is there. For example, people who work in brick kilns might leave after the winter crops are picked and come back before the monsoon (November–May). On the other hand, cyclical migration doesn't have to happen at the same time as agricultural seasons and can happen outside of them.

Internal (domestic) migration:

People are travelling across their own country at a rate that has never been seen in the last few decades. This is especially true when it comes to migration of seasonal workers (Tumbe, 2018). Even though the Indian Census and other data sources like the National Sample Survey show a significant increase, they don't catch up with most of this change. Based on data from the National Sample Survey and the India Human Development Survey, the best guess we have right now is that the number of labour migrants went from 15 million in 2007 to 200 million in 2012. Since migration data is hard to get and analyse, this number seems too high. But there's no denying that people moving within their own country to find work has grown a lot in recent years.

International labour migration:

The number of Indians going abroad to work has also gone up. Statistics from the United Nations show that the number of people moving from India to the Persian Gulf has more than quadrupled to more than 9 million (2019). Between 1990 and 2000, the number of people who moved almost doubled. The same states, like Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, that send a lot of people to other parts of India also send a lot of people abroad (International Labour Organization, 2018). Everyone agrees that all of these different kinds of migration have a big effect on the economy.

Circular (male) labour migration:

"This pattern of [circular] movement has been going on for more than 100 years," says De Haan (2002, p. 115). "It has happened in places where jobs were available for a long time." This has to do with the case of the Indian. This is part of the reason why most cities don't grow very quickly in most countries. Also, it shows how little early theories about rural-urban migration really fit India or the rest of the global South, especially when it comes to economics (Lall et al., 2006). Even though people in India were promised long-term jobs, they kept going in circles. This is interesting because it shows how close the migrant worker is to his or her family and community back home. The family chooses to stay in the same place because they have close ties to the local family and community, such as planned (future) marriages and sharing resources. This again shows how important it is to put the needs of the family before your own. Families can help by sending young men to the city and "investing in a child who might come back." In the end, male individual's job migration meets the needs of the household and the household has a stake in the neighbourhood.

But the data needs to be carefully looked at and its location needs to be understood better. There may be a link between the huge drop in agricultural jobs and the huge rise in all kinds of labour migration. Both of these things happened around the same time. In a similar way, the fast growth of Census Towns and so-called "non-farm communities" shows how many people stopped farming but doesn't say anything about how people now make a living. It's hard to find trustworthy information about cyclical migration and how it affects people's health, which makes the problem worse (De Haan, 1997a). India is definitely changing a lot as people move from the countryside to the city, but there are still some big problems that need to be fixed.

The relationship between urbanization and economic development:

According to the study, urbanisation is good for economic growth and well-being around the world (Scott, 2017). The reason for this rise is that people are leaving low-productivity jobs in agriculture for higher-productivity jobs in the secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy in cities. The economies of scale and agglomeration dynamics help these places, and they often need them. Because of this, the shift from working in agriculture to working in the secondary or tertiary sectors often happens at the same time as urbanisation and population growth in cities. The rapid urbanisation and industrialization of the West at the end of the

19th century and beginning of the 20th century has had a big impact on these ideas. Similar things have happened all over East Asia, most notably during World War II in China and Japan (Nijman, 2019).

Individual rational choice:

It seems less important when you think about the situation of many Indians when they move from the country to the city, where their options may be very limited and decisions are often made as a family, instead of each person. Because it cares more about the balance between migrant flows and (un)employment rates in cities, it cares more about how migration affects urban labour markets than it does rural economies (Piore, 1979).

'New labour migration economics':

In the 1980s, it became very popular. It also said that migration should be thought of as a family strategy and that the focus should shift from the individual to the family or household. Because of this, there were more and more signs of circular labour mobility.

The sustainable livelihood framework:

Here, household strategies are seen as a response to these outside factors (like job openings or changing pay scales), a reflection of the family's resources (like land, money, social networks, and education), and a measure of how well the family is doing. According to this method, there are three main ways to make a living in rural areas: farming, working in non-farm jobs in rural areas to make more money, and migrating (Deshingkar & Farrington, 2009). This method puts research on livelihoods at the forefront and looks objectively at how agency and structure can explain changes in livelihoods. In other ways, it avoids the excessive voluntarism of structuralist approaches and the determinism of structuralist methods. It also avoids the narrow focus on formal employment that most economics research has by looking at many different ways to make money. Last but not least, this model looks at the things that cause and change migration (or of the absence of migration).

Conclusion:

Moreover, we think that permanent circular movement will be more important than seasonal migration as agriculture becomes less important as a source of jobs. In the early 1970s, studies of India's seasonal migration of workers said that it was short-term, cyclical, and timed to the annual agricultural cycle (e.g., Nelson, 1976). When farming was slow, most of these seasonal workers moved to other places to work in construction, quarries, fish processing, unofficial jobs in cities, and other places. Many studies in the 1980s and 1990s, also focused at seasonal migration, but it became harder and harder to tell the difference between seasonal migration and more permanent cyclical mobility as time went on. Deshingkar and Start (2003) call this a "continuous transition between the different types" of migration. This makes the problem worse. Most cyclical workers aren't expected to work in agriculture anymore. Instead, they are expected to work in other industries.

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