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Urbanization in Northern Corridor Economic Region in Malaysia

Noraniza Yusoff

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Preface

This book discusses urbanization in Malaysia and focuses on the northern area of Peninsular Malaysia. The data used in this book on urbanization in NCER is based on research conducted through the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (SO Code 13228).

Research on urbanization involves many aspects in the worldwide scope. One of the studies was performed by the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, in 2014, which found that population growth and urbanization have been occurring for a long period without interruption and will result in the addition of 2.5 billion people to the world's urban population by 2050 with nearly 90% of the increase intensely focused in Asia and Africa. In the relatively near future and forthcoming decades, urbanization will increase the size and spatial or geographic property of areas being scattered over the world. The relative amount of the world's population living in urban areas is likely to increase, reaching 66% by 2050.

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Introduction

There are many available literature studies on urbanization that concern the definition of urbanization, urbanization process, urbanization regarding countries or regions, and growth in urbanization. Moreno in 2017 indicated that since 1990 the world has seen a rise in the number, amount or degree of the process or activity of collecting its population in urban areas. This general trend is not novel, nevertheless occurring without interruption, and has been readily attracting attention due to the never-changing values of urban inhabitants. This urban transformation has led to cities being located in the central part of the development plan. Urbanization is one of the most important general tendencies of the past and present century, providing the groundwork and an impelling force for global change. Cities have become a positive and powerful force to deal with full development of a sustainable economy, advancement and an economic state of growth with rising profits and more employment. Cities require a series of actions to advance innovation or tending toward innovation, the utilisation of economic goods to satisfy needs and the investing of money or capital for profitable returns in developed and developing countries. Cities can become the leader in how to deal with many of the worldwide questions of the twenty-first century, covering poverty, social or economic disparity, unemployment and so forth, and these are the series that link all sustainable development goals. City densities and economic conurbation unite the energy, science, technology, social and economic results.

The research methodology utilised in this book is a quantitative approach to collect and analyse data for basic research. Time dimension was used for execution of surveys through questionnaires. The findings showed that the majority of the respondents agreed with the questions asked during data collection concerning urbanization and the role of urbanization.

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Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia, for funding this study under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS), S/O Code 13228, and Research and Innovation Management Centre, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, for the administration of this study.

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Synopsis

This book focuses on urbanization in the northern area of Malaysia and also on the urbanization paradigm, the rise of urbanization as well as strategies of urbanization. There are five chapters in this book. Chapter 1 is the introduction and it presents the background of urbanization and the study area (the Northern Corridor Economic Region). Chapter 2 discusses the paradigm of urbanization by describing the notion pertaining urbanization. Chapter 3 demonstrates the rise of urbanization, including the progress of the urbanization process in the world. Chapter 4 discusses urbanization in the Northern Corridor Economic Region and describes the results of research regarding urbanization in the Northern Corridor Economic Region that demonstrates descriptive statistics. This chapter also explains the research methodology employed in the study (i.e., quantitative approach). The findings showed that the majority of respondents agreed with the statements concerning urbanization and the role of urbanization. Chapter 5 describes the strategy of urbanization, implying the technique to address the urbanization problem.

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Introduction

Noraniza Yusoff

Abstract

Scientific literature shows numerous publications on urbanization, including books, magazines, journals and other types of articles. Knowledge on the urbanization field is changing and developing over time through worldwide collaboration projects and conferences, which lead to interesting prospects and directions for future study. Importantly, investigation indicates trends in scientific outputs and operates as an option approach for indicating worldwide study patterns in urbanization. The significant output of scientific publications on urbanization in the Asian regions proves that urbanization research needs a trans-disciplinary method. Consequently, the scope of this book is to focus on urbanization, comprising economic changes; social changes; cultural changes; and the function of urbanization, namely reducing poverty, trade, advantages and opportunity, the rise of consumption, as well as high population levels. Urbanization is related to the urban concept, and recognition of urban features should be performed with the city culture as the main point, city history as the expansion, and city characteristics as the foundation to indicate the incorporation of city features by urban planning, architectural design, landscape design and building. Evidently, there are several meanings of urbanization, for example, the traditional meaning and contemporary meaning.

Keywords: urbanization, economic development, knowledge changing, insight, limitation, scientific literature, scientific publication

1. Introduction

Scientific literature on urbanization in the 2000s involves books, for instance edited books concerning global urbanization and cities, prospect for the cities, governance of cities, questions on urban theory, history of urbanization, urbanization in Asian countries, urbanization and sustainable development, urbanization in western countries and so forth. Magazines have covered the challenges in urbanization, urbanization model, urbanization framework and so forth. Journals have described urban planning, urbanization and inequality, urbanization and sustainable growth, infrastructure in urbanization, rapid urbanization and so forth [1]. Publications cover the research findings, essays and so forth. Scientific literature comprises scientific publications that report original empirical and theoretical investigations in the natural as well as social sciences and under a scientific discipline that is typically shortened in the literature. This is related to academic publishing, which refers to the process of inserting the findings of one's studies in the literature. Original scientific study published for the first time in scientific journals is named primary literature. Patents and technical reports, for minor study findings and engineering and design work, can also be regarded as primary literature. Secondary sources encompass review articles and books. Tertiary sources

comprise encyclopaedias and identical works aimed for the wider public [2]. Sarma [3] portrayed that scientific literature text mining has the prospect to perform an important function in more correctly ascribing the rank of dissimilar disciplines by recognising “linchpin results”, which are expected to be of great value as they concentrate on similar research studies.

Knowledge on the urbanization field is changing and developing over time. According to Gu et al. [4], the represented growth in the research on urbanization in China focuses on the guidelines and path for urban development in China, the features of Chinese urbanization, the mechanism driving the growth of Chinese urbanization, the process of Chinese urbanization, the spatial trends of Chinese urbanization, the urbanization in rural regions in China, the contrast of urbanization in China and other states, and globalisation and regional urbanization. The important academic activities and crucial stages regarding Chinese urbanization comprising documents, activities and circumstances of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China (CPC), the State Council, National Development and Reform Commission, the State Ministry of Housing and Construction, the State Ministry of Civil Affairs, the State Ministry of Science and Technology, and National Fund on Science, as well as big worldwide collaboration projects and conferences, summarise that the studies of Chinese urbanization have different features. In other words, international scholars have performed numerous investigations on Chinese urbanization, whereas the studies produced by Chinese scholars in the discipline primarily characterise practicability and the linkages among Chinese and international scholars as well as the implementation of worldwide practice in China to generate satisfactory benefits. There are various shortcomings in the studies of Chinese urbanization, for instance, the vagueness of the concept of urbanization, the lack of basic statistics, the focus on the study of true occurrences and the disregard of theoretical discoveries, the emphasis on regional urbanization and the lack of investigations in the national and worldwide context. China is in the transitional stage from state socialism economy to laissez-faire economy, bringing challenges for the direct establishment and application of the model of urbanization that exists in developed capitalist states. The domestic model of urbanization formed within the circumstance of preceding socialism economy is irrelevant. Consequently, the development of Chinese urbanization confronts a series of theoretical questions. In comparison with the western developed states and most developing states, Chinese urbanization confronts more difficult contexts and more challenges. The theories and model of urbanization formulated in both developed and most developing states cannot be directly employed in China. Furthermore, the investigation aim in China is to shape distinctive theories on urbanization founded on true circumstances and attributes in this area and the study should implement a multiple method concentrating on the effect of the advancement of community, economy, population, politics, culture, environment, technology and public strategies on Chinese urbanization.

Wang et al. [5] performed a bibliometric analysis of published urbanization research from 1991 to 2009, founded on the SCI and SSCI database. The research found scientific outputs, subject categories and significant journals, worldwide cooperation and geographic dispersion, and temporal patterns in keyword utilisation in urbanization studies and examined the connections among urbanization publications and urbanization rank and provided a replacement presentation of study developments, which is regarded as the direction for future study. The number of article outputs increased after 1991, concurrently with an increasing cooperation index, references and citations. Environmental sciences, ecology, environmental investigations, geography and urban research were commonly utilised subject categories and landscape and urban planning was the most common journal

in urbanization investigations. The United States of America was the biggest supporter in worldwide urbanization study, as the United States of America generated independent and cooperative publications. The geographic dispersion of urbanization publications was correlated to provinces with high economic development in North America, Europe and Pacific-Asia. A keyword evaluation indicated that the United States of America and China were nodes, reported land usage's important status and indicated great concern in ecological and environmental questions in urbanization studies. Generally, urbanization study was highly correlated with the urbanization levels even though there were dissimilar trends and fundamental processes throughout dissimilar states. This is the first research to quantify worldwide investigation patterns in urbanization. The investigation indicates trends in scientific outputs and academic cooperation and operates as an alternative approach of indicating worldwide study patterns in urbanization.

Significant output of scientific publications on urbanization in the Asian regions was studied by Friedmann [6] who reported primarily for students of Chinese urbanization that were not sinologists. Explaining the studies of these entities should utilise four theories. The first theory is that China is a prehistoric urban civilization, and the processes documented nowadays never existed before. Therefore, China's urbanization needs be investigated within this duality element, bringing together the historical continuities and the distinctive features of citizen generation. The second theory considers that urbanization is an order of multidimensional socio-spatial processes of no less than seven dissimilar and intersecting aspects, all with vocabulary and customs of scholarship. The investigation of China's urbanization therefore needed a trans-disciplinary method. Theory number three indicates that urbanization comprises rural-urban interrelationships; however, dissimilar with numerous previous investigations, these interrelationships should be analysed from an urban instead of rural viewpoint. Eventually, and very crucially, China's urbanization, even though interlinked with the globalisation processes, is to be realised primarily as an internal process contributing to a mainly Chinese shape of modernity.

New scientific insights, highlighted gaps, conflicting results and under-examined areas of urbanization research indicated by Gu et al. [4] demonstrated that during the 1960s to 1970s, the younger generation of the United States of America historians questioned the western-based theories from one point of view and, from another point of view, strongly supported empirical research founded on the true circumstances in China. A representative from the Department of Anthropology at Stanford University, implemented Chinese-founded dimensions in research and founded the central place theory of Christaller, undertook a sphere probing throughout 1949–1950 on Gaodianzi, a market 25 km from southeast Chengdu in the Sichuan Region, interviewed a large number of abroad mainland migrants, and probed numerous local records, and then published the study on marketing and social structure in rural China in 1964. He subsequently, after many attempts, published the study on regional urbanization in China throughout the nineteenth century and in late Imperial China in 1977. The majority of geographers examined Chinese urbanization from the viewpoint of historical geography. For instance, Chang 1961 and Chang 1963 researched the geographical dispersion of cities throughout the Qing Dynasty and the historical pattern of urbanization in China. Trewartha 1952 investigated the root and role of Chinese cities.

The scope of this book is to focus on urbanization, comprising economic changes; social changes; cultural changes; and the function of urbanization in reducing poverty, trade, advantages and opportunity, the rise of consumption, as well as high population. Economic changes encompass the transition from agriculture to industry, urban settlement, permanent residents, business institution, dense

settlement and so forth. Social changes include social relations, social institution, better healthcare, better education and so forth. Cultural changes comprise changes in the way of life and culture. The range of research on urbanization in the global area comprises cities, climate, industrialisation, landscape, wellbeing, employment, film, economic, religion, conflict, telecommunication, governance, community, education, agriculture, values, power, internet, conformity, infrastructure, dietary, health, water, energy, information system, suburb, tribe, empowerment, poverty, culture, civilization, globalisation and so forth. A selected topic from the published body of knowledge and further research should be correlated with urbanization and this is one of the questions in the urban topic. Brenner [7] studied how “urban” has turned into a keyword of the twenty-first-century economic, political, and cultural argument. Nevertheless as this profoundness has aggravated in social science and in the public domain, the conceptual and cartographic particularity of the urban has been significantly reduced.

Areas of disagreement in the literature and research limitations implied by Kipfer [8] confront arguments regarding widened and condensed urbanization with traditional statements to time and space. For instance, the study considers the level to which ideas of widened and condensed urbanization enable the researcher to understand the dynamics of pipeline politics in Canada, notably indigenous arguments levelled at infrastructure projects. Scott and Storper [9] indicated that there has been an increasing argument in current decades regarding the scope and contents of urban theory. The argument has been denoted by numerous distinct arguments regarding the existence of cities, consisting of statements that “urban” is an inconsistent concept, that urban community is nothing lower than modern community altogether, that the urban scale can perhaps no longer be isolated from the worldwide magnitude, and that urban theory has previously been profoundly lessened by the largely specific denseness of the cities of the northern hemisphere. All cities can be realised with reference to a theoretical model that integrates two important processes: the dynamics of conurbation and polarisation, and the emergence of a connected interrelationship of locations, land uses and human linkages. This similar model can be utilised to discover numerous distinct variations of cities and to differentiate the integration of urban occurrence from the remnants of societal fact. Urbanization is a leading characteristic of the world that scholarly objectives adaptable to this question remain to spread certainly as contradictions increasing as also the way certainly cities supposed be conceptualised and researched.

Literature review identifies the relevant research that appeared in the *Art and Social Sciences Journal* [10] articles on urbanization and these included topics on well-being, employment, film, economics, religion, conflict, telecommunication, governance, community, education, agriculture, values, power, internet, conformity, infrastructure, dietary, health, water, energy, information system, suburb, tribe, empowerment, poverty, culture, civilization, globalisation and so forth. Evaluation of conflicting evidence, assumptions, errors and misconceptions as well as the most convincing and scientific contribution was reflected by Turok and McGranahan [11], which described the linkage between urbanization and growth as an important strategy interest particularly in Africa and Asia. The statements and proof assumed that accelerated urban inhabitant development assisted the growth of living conditions. The important result was that the growth impacts of urbanization and the extent of conurbation economies are very different. There is no simple linear correlation between urbanization and economic development, or between city size and productivity. The prospect of urbanization to encourage development relies on the beneficial way that the infrastructure and institution relate. Reducing obstacles to rural–urban mobility allow economic development; however, the

profits are expected to be much greater with encouraging strategies, markets and infrastructure investments. Cities' expected usage predictions are the fundamental way for investing in public infrastructure and executing encouraging land strategies. Governments are expected to derive methods of allowing patterns of urbanization that lead to development, poverty decrease and environmental sustainability, instead of motivating or hindering urbanization.

The presence of conurbation economies does not imply that urbanization increases economic outputs. The profits of denseness can be counterbalanced by increasing overpopulation; overcrowding; overloaded infrastructure; tension on ecosystems, for example, watercourses and air quality; greater costs of living and greater labour and property costs in cities. These negative externalities increase as cities enlarge, particularly assuming urban growth is risky and there is inadequate public investment to sustain and enlarge important infrastructure. Dysfunctional arrangements, overcrowding, decreased power and unstable water services increase business costs, lessen productivity and prevent private investment. The stability among the conurbation economies and diseconomies has a significant impact on whether city economies continue to develop, weaken or start to decrease [11]. The importance of urbanization in this area was covered by Schmid [12] who found in the last decades that urbanization has turned into a global occurrence. Urban regions enlarge and interlink as new shapes as urbanization increase. Recent urban arrangements are continuously growing. A sufficient understanding of global urbanization should come from the empirical and theoretical motivations from the variety of urban experiences. Urbanization should be viewed as an open process, indicated as much by present urban trends as well as by continuous innovation and inventiveness.

The focus on economic development in the Northern Corridor Economic Region is more than that in other areas. Athukorala and Narayanan [13] suggested that the Northern Corridor Economic Region (NCER) has the prospect of leverage on the underlying forces of the state of Penang, namely worldwide connectivity, a developed business ecosystem with a powerful range of multinational companies and a large skill circle for the purpose of correcting the broadening interregional and urban-rural growth disparity. The share of Malaysian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (%) from NCER in 2010 to 2015 was 15.8%. Economic corridors have grown in popularity over the preceding two decades as a medium for sub-regional economic growth. This is one consideration of the prospect for fostering equal development between provinces throughout states that share common territories as well as between provinces inside states with important regional earning inequalities. Cities are important hubs for economic connectivity in the execution of economic corridors. However, correctly developed knowledge pertaining to the growth prospect and the requirements for formulating and executing economic corridor programs, and evaluating the effect is deficient. Economic corridor growth policy is an indication for outward-oriented economic growth. The meaning of economic corridor implies a united model of economic growth inside a selected geographical region, which locates trade-associated infrastructure at the centre; however, it continues to comprise interconnected questions of public strategy, regulations and operational practices required for fostering economic expansion and advancement inside the selected region. Nguyen [14] shows that in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), causal linkages between urbanization and economic development and urbanization positively affect economic development. Nevertheless, the linkage between urbanization and economic development is non-linear. Urbanization attains a following that can hinder the economic development. Urbanization has the prospect to quicken the economic development, and this prospect relies on the formation of encouraging agencies and investments in suitable public infrastructure.

A different approach from other studies was specified by Gough [15], whose majority study was performed inside the model of a particular investigation project, usually of approximately 3 years' timeframe. Subsequently, the period allocated to gathering empirical data in the field was restricted and seldom involved more than 12 months. The data was utilised to facilitate empirically grounded considerations of a broad range of urban processes and contributed towards conceptualisations of worldwide urban complexity. Therefore the restricted data offered merely an overview of the urban processes at a particular point in time. Cities and their populations are in a continuous condition of flow, which most urban investigations are incapable of documenting. Implementing a longitudinal method can produce rich empirical data that contributes to the true viewpoint towards human understanding of worldwide urban complexity at spatial and temporal scales. This book represents research performed through quantitative methods for data collection analysis using cross sectional surveys that are similar to previous investigations, for instance, Kasraian et al. in research entitled "Development of rail infrastructure and its impact on urbanization in the Randstad, the Netherlands" in 2016. The survey technique to gather data was the questionnaire method. The direction of the book in scientific research is correlated with the potential of this book to make an important contribution to urbanization in regional development, specifically economic corridors. This book highlights the value of scientific research that attempts to follow the quantitative method for data collection and analysis. According to Rapoport [16], who believes that this builds on the empirical observations about the way ideas become incorporated into the accepted launch of sustainable urbanism and circulated internationally, the scope of this book is to develop a conceptualisation of economic development, social development and cultural development ideas with a focus on the economic corridor. This book explains urbanization and also the urbanization roles, explicitly focused on the people and processes involved in making the urban processes more 'global'.

Supportive work in the same direction was undertaken by Hadi et al. [17] who studied the Malaysian urbanization transition and focused on the urban region. Discussion included the challenge of urban life in the mega urban province centres on preserving the quality of urban living, connectivity to improved quality employments, accommodation, education, personal safety, health and facilities in a globalising world. The study also provided a long-term perspective of expansion and advancement in the global economy, and the style of economic development and social growth dispersed from fundamental economic activities in the west into the developing world. The transformation in the world economy encompassing the investigation timeframe was a continuity of a historical arrangement following the sixteenth century. The shifts in the global economy from 1945 to 2025 under six catalysts impact the existence of the global production arrangement, growing more appropriate for city expansion and advancement in Malaysia. Shifts in global production following 1945 enabled the expansion and advancement of mega urban provinces in Malaysia. The six catalysts are the altering existence of inter-state arrangement, the framework of global production, the framework of global manpower, the trends of global human welfare, social cohesion of the states and the framework of knowledge.

This book helps manifest urbanization concerning economic development, social development, culture development and so forth. The United Nations [18] portrayed the process of urbanization as having historically been correlated with other significant economic and social transitions, which have resulted in a larger geographic mobility, a lower rate of fertility, longer life expectancy and increased inhabitant ageing. Cities are significant enablers of growth and inhibitors of poverty in both urban and rural regions, and the focus of national economic activity,

government, commerce and transportation, and offer important connections with rural regions, among cities, and throughout international territories. Urban life is frequently correlated with greater rates of literacy and education, improved health, higher connectivity to social services and increased chances for cultural and political engagement. Urbanization is strongly correlated to the three pillars of sustainable growth: economic growth, social growth and environmental security. Mega-cities are remarkable for the size and focus of economic activity.

2. Definition of urbanization

Urbanization is the movement of a large number of residents into comparatively limited zones and the creation of cities [19]. Urbanization is the growth in the quantity of residents residing in localities and a widening of urban transition in cities. Urbanization can be interpreted as an action of reallocation from the hinterland to towns and cities that encourages changes of inhabitants. Anthropologists differentiate across culture and urbanization. Culture is identified in the ancestry of a feature of a nation and contributes to the stability of a nation. Urbanization is merely a transformation in placement of the residents from rural to urban regions and also large scale reallocation of inhabitants from the poor societies to the affluent nations, but urbanization also contributes to transformation in culture, character, social linkages and global prospects. Urban changes generate an urban social arrangement that is different from rural regions [20].

To determine the meaning of 'urban' is very complicated. As can be interpreted from the documentation, there is no particular meaning for 'urban'; instead it has been interpreted distinctly in numerous states and by a variety of fields [21]. Urban regions are defined as densities of resources in a location that is facilitated by forces arranged in movement by clustering economies, but that does not interpret as an economic achievement. Clustering economies are a requirement for the presence of a grouped labour market reverse and advancing relations involving firms, and knowledge after-effects. The fundamental proves to be important assets are utilised, the extent of distinct stakeholders communicate and the way synergies are utilised. The market possibly not generally attain this entirely [22].

The accurate demographic meaning of urbanization is the growing equity of inhabitants residing in urban regions (and thus benefitting the livelihood in rural regions). Largely, urbanization is the consequence of net rural to urban migration. The stage of urbanization is the distribution, and the range of urbanization is the range at which that distribution is shifting. This meaning makes the impacts of urbanization different to those of urban inhabitants' development or those of the physical enhancement of urban regions, both of which are frequently considered as being similar to urbanization. The phrase urbanization is also applied for the enhancement of urban land consumptions. The traditional meaning for urbanization is a change in accommodation trends from scattered to more condensed accommodation. Several of the enhancements of urban land consumption are the outcome of a change from concentrated to more scattered accommodation. In practical terms, the phrase urbanization is being utilised to refer to two contrasting spatial changes in accommodation trends, probably to have contrasting impacts on the land accessible for economic activity [23].

Several aspects of urban transformation in current decades are unprecedented, comprising the global stage of urbanization and the scale of its urban inhabitants, the amount of states that are increasingly more urbanised and the scale and amount of very big cities. The growing amount of mega-cities with 10 million or more settlers appears to be a reason for interest; nevertheless there are comparatively fewer

dwellers (17 by 2000). Dwellers comprise less than 5% of the global inhabitants and the majority are in the world's vast economies. In spite of the fact that quick urbanization is viewed as a drawback, essentially the more urbanised a nation, the greater the average life expectancy and the literacy range and the more substantial the democracy, particularly at a local stage. Cities are also midpoints of culture, inheritance, social, cultural and political invention. Several global rapidly rising cities over the past 50 years have also had the foremost standards of livelihood across the nation. The range of urbanization and of urban inhabitants' development weakened in the majority of sub-regions of the world in the 1990s. Mexico City had 18 million citizens in 2000, not the 31 million expected 25 years earlier. Kolksts (previously Calcutta), Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Seoul, Chennai (previously Madras) and Cairo are examples of several other big cities that by 2000 had fewer settlers than had been expected [23].

Two aspects of the quick development of the global urban inhabitants are the growth in the number of big cities and the traditionally unprecedented scale of the vast cities. In 1800, there were approximately 2 'million-cities' (cities with 1 million or more settlers) (London and Beijing subsequently known as Peking), and by 2000, there were nearly 378. In 2000, the mean scale of the world's 100 vast cities had approximately 6.3 million settlers, contrasting with the 2 million settlers in 1950 and 0.7 million in 1900. De-urbanization is a decline in the fraction of the inhabitants residing in urban regions. In the 1970s, in a variety of high-income states, there was a setback of long-recognised urbanization patterns nationally or across various regions as there was net migration from big to micro-urban midpoints or from urban to rural regions. This was termed counter-urbanization, in spite of the fact that several of these cases were more precisely explained as demetropolitanisation due to inhabitants' changes from big metropolitan midpoints to modest urban midpoints or from middle cities to suburbs or commuter societies. Several of the modest cities that stimulated big migration movements increased adequately to emerge as metropolitan midpoints. The rural to urban migration movements that generate urbanization are largely a reaction to these economic transformations. Various migration movements can be regarded as exemptions, for example, development in places containing retired citizens or in the tourist industry. Urbanization has been reinforced by the quick development in the global economy and the gross global output and of employees in industrial and supply companies [23].

As scale alone does not represent the characteristics of the city, social scientists have used different methods in clarifying the city and urbanization. The city is bigger physically and demographically than rural towns and villages and in the majority of cases is more compactly inhabited, in spite of the fact that it should be noted that concentration has declined in several American metropolitan regions because of the growth of the suburbs because of the car. Cities are also non-uniform, comprising different social ranks, ethnic and racial clusters and other inhabitants. By highlighting the relative aspect of the meaning and preventing particular standards, for instance, inhabitant's limit point, it is probable to contrast varying urban communities. Therefore, while Uruk in the third millennium before the Common Era (BCE) had only 50,000 citizens, it is possible to recognise the identical function the city performed to that of first millennium Common Era (CE) Rome with a million citizens. With reference to this cause, the method is also beneficial as it highlights the roles accomplished by the city for the broader community [24].

The methods to clarify the city are restricted by the inability to calculate the entire variant of places in linking: as dichotomies among "city" and "country", "urban" and "rural", and even "occidental" and "oriental" are central to these meanings. All of the methods for clarifying cities and urbanization benefits have similar restrictions. Categorising the city according to other accommodations is essential

but neglected is an empirically provable method for clarifying the city. The city exists due to the biggest amount of accommodation being known as “cities”. In the centre of the urban-rural continuum are various types of accommodations that fulfil various parts of the standard for “city” status in a given community and part of this makes relative, as well as historical, study extremely complex. For the purpose of relative work to be significant, a meaning of the city that integrates lessons from world-systems theory is favoured. Assuming relative urbanization and the city in this approach, then there are numerous characteristics of modern cities discoursed by scholars that have analogues in ancient cities [24].

Evidence for particular characteristics of cities found in non-capitalistic contexts is proof that these characteristics are not particular to capitalist or modern economies, but are the effect of the process of urbanization. Specific occurrence comprises networks of cities referred to as urban arrangements, mass productivity, societal stratum, ideologies of cultural domination, and the encouragement for enhancement of the arrangement. Therefore, urbanization does in reality precede cities. A world-systems method on the development of cities would view the growth of the world-system as a precondition for the development of cities, and possibly name this process “urbanization”. Perceived as a network of societal and cultural exchange, with cities as main nodes in that network, this specific method represents the coevolution of cities with related occurrence, for instance, societal stratum, and more significantly represents the growth of specific “urban” occurrence before the development of cities [24].

Increased urbanization, for example in Pakistan, is a result of both external and internal migration to the cities and natural growth. The study on urbanization is complicated due to dissimilarities in clarification of urban societies in distinct settings and lack of recent census data. Urbanization in Pakistan places considerable needs on governance arrangement and strategies, reducing poverty, delivering education, housing, transportation, occupation, public health and additional infrastructure at an increased stage. Norms of urban governance demand efficacy, transparency, engagement, accountability, societal equality and safety for all individuals at a variety of stages. Economic development, human advancement and increased urbanization can be planned and administered effectively utilising the above norms and variables and only then would there be a chance for good governance in Pakistan. There are several approaches to interpret urban inhabitants, for instance by inhabitant concentration, inhabitant intensity, governmental, administrative and political boundaries or economic roles. Various states explain the urban inhabitants as those citizens residing across specific administrative and governmental districts. Inhabitants’ scale or inhabitants’ concentration is the main parameter used for categorising urban inhabitants in other states. The highest significant problem in investigating urbanization is that there are no worldwide criteria for the categorisation of urban settings. All states/countries throughout the world distinguish between urban and rural inhabitants; however, the worldwide meaning of urban region is dissimilar between states and, in specific cases, it even differs over time in a specific state/country. There is an inadequacy of orderly and recent demographic statistics. Census data is the important source of information on different metropolises but consequently censuses are essentially undertaken once every decade and the data takes more than a year to be examined and circulated [25].

Developing states currently have more urbanization difficulties than developed states. Developed states urbanise at a relatively slow speed. The United States was 40% urbanised in 1990, 70% in 1960, and more than 75% in 1990. This slow speed significantly differs to that in several developing states. For instance, the Republic of Korea was 40% urbanised in 1970 and 78% urbanised by 1990. This slow speed,

together with the comparatively high GDP and education per capita at the start of the state, permitted time for the advancement of the political and economic organisations and market tools vital for effective urbanization and a sensible quality of urban life. These comprised mechanisms for the internal governance and financing of cities, intergovernmental systems, regulatory and financial tools for intercity interactions as well as transport networks, a civil delivery system with technical specialists in urban and territorial strategy as well as supply allocation and organisations for effective operating of national and local retail as well as markets. With reference to quickly urbanising developing states, the social learning demanded to adjust rural organisations and governance to urban ones appeared to be an interrupted course, bringing little space for occasional experimentation and modification [26].

In a market economy, city scale signifies a trade-off between the scale production advantages of local occupation development and the cost of livelihood increases of local inhabitants' development. Enhancements in commuting technology, which decrease local costs of livelihood and local knowledge gathering, which emphasises scale economies, propose that effective city scales grow over time. As commuting technology continues to increase and human capital investments grow in developing states, the scales of cities will continue to increase well into the twenty-first century. Simultaneously, national inhabitants' development implies that the demand for the number of cities to accommodate inhabitants' will increase. Commonly, both the scale and number of cities developed with national inhabitants' development in majority states over the past century [26].

Most jobs in a city (55–60%, typically more) are involved in non-trade commodities/productivity, for instance, housing, local retailing, local supplies and local government. Moderate scale and modest cities are expected to be reasonably concentrated in the outputs and to various extents, the supplies created for export to other cities or abroad. For output dealing localisation economies, cities that concentrate due to an increase in a distinct industry do not assist own-industry productivity, even though it contributes to the intensification of cost of livelihood. Specific outputs encompass natural resource consumption and weight decrease in productivity, subsequently proposing the hinterland area. Specialisation also broadens to the supply sector for market and transport node towns, federal government and education midpoints as well as farming supply towns and specific locations of health, recreation as well as common commercial supplies. Moderate scale cities (below 750,000 citizens) perform an important function in standardised manufacturing. In 1992, this was 34% of the inhabitants of the United States metropolitan regions and 35% of the manufacturing occupation. This figure was calculated for 44–54% of the whole occupation in food, textiles, pulp and paper, wood outputs, petroleum, non-metallic minerals and basic metals industries [26].

Moderate scale cities are underrepresented (below 27%) in high-tech tools and headquarter activity and possibly activities under urbanization economies. This condition is dissimilar with specific supply groups in big metropolitan regions. Even though the primate cities of New York, Chicago and Los Angeles have nearly 12% of the national inhabitants, these were 40% of investment safety supplies, 19% of banking supplies, 20% of holding and other investment supplies and 19% of legal supplies. Several outputs demand a varied and consequently large local environment to expand. These comprise high-tech outputs, Research and Development, high-fashion clothing in general, publishing, special-order mechanisms, financial supplies, company headquarters and specific commercial supplies such as broadened advertising and placement supplies. Big metropolitan regions create outputs but there is also relative specialisation, namely various focussed financial and international export market supplies as well as other focussed high-tech environments.

Small skillset salary migrants are an attractive labour pool for producers, for instance, clothes manufacturers that want vast local output markets and low-priced labour. For recent outputs or plants, advancement is quickened by location in big metropolitan regions, which provides a midpoint of information exchange. Recent plants (i.e., inexperienced) enhance the opportunities of sustaining by positioning in an environment affluent with external information regarding technology, suppliers and markets. An effective provision of economic facility demands focus in just one or two cities (possibly mega-cities previously), saving on spending that would move rather to connecting cities or growing other cities. Particular condensed investment stimulates immigration and industrialisation of main mega-cities and increases urban density. With related economic development, the state expects to grow various suitable organisations and a poll of skilled technocrats. Subsequently, the state is expected to be capable to invest in hinterland regions, permitting other main urban midpoints to grow and as well as moderate scale cities [26].

Urbanization is a process that is a frequent outcome of economic advancement. Recent industries in urban regions produce recent employment chances, fostering the change of labour from rural to urban regions [27]. Several concepts exist concerning the way urbanization can be explained as a process. Realising that this process impacts billions of citizens and their forthcoming advancement in a spatial approach is essential to address the associated questions, for instance, human quality of life [28]. Societal urbanization relates to the process of societal transformation after urbanization, the transformation of behaviour, connection, value judgements and material spiritual way of life of the individuals. In this process, the migratory individual is shifting into an urban individual by shifting his behaviour and applying to the urban culture. Evidence is abundant that urbanization is a sociological process and it directly impacts societal urbanization if regarded that it controls and reforms the sociocultural and socioeconomic arrangement of the city. In the setting, the process of societal urbanization in a city with urbanization is disfigured and abnormal. The city connects its citizens by identical cultural codes. Consequently, the standard city identity is represented and applied to all the city residents. This identity of urbanism shifts when the citizen has immigrated to the city in time, in a socio-cultural meaning. The concept of urbanization demands that the settlers of the city live a life that complies with the rules to prevent behaviours that interrupt others [29].

The transitions of cities across the last decades because of technological and economic transformations have resulted in vast effects in urban periphery and inner-city regions. In several cities, the migration of fundamental economic activities towards peripheral regions is a complex challenge for authorities, urban planners, urban designers and scholars. The concept of urban area or territorial urbanization, which is a regular urban problem, was created in 1902 by Wells who explained that the words 'city' or 'town' were outdated because of the advancement of interacting facilities in the time due to railways, roads and telegraphs as well as the telephone network that was expected to incorporate, in a functional cohesion, the urban nuclei of large regions [30].

The city governments and planners must aim for citizen centric urban designing, economic advancement, cheap housing, quality life style, energy efficacy, effective transport and ecological connectivity while designing and growing the neighbourhood into a smart city. The citizens' engagement could be concentrated in growing the local facilities based on citizens' concerns. The high consumption of technology should cause the city planners to grow digital facilities for a region to fulfil a smart city vision. The availability of important resources, effective transport and connectivity, employment chances, health and education amenities are the important drivers for the sustainable development of neighbourhood positions concerning

economic, societal and environmental factors. The effective urban organisation can also account for fostering the diffuse application of more sustainable urban behaviour. The advantages of urbanization should be available to big cities and to the neighbourhood positions instead of implementing a smart city vision to fulfil the aim of growing a smart nation in the future [31].

Urbanization is the process of inhabitants converting from rural regions to urban residential regions of distinct kinds. Urban regions refer widely to cities and towns and in the majority of cases, cities also comprise towns and there are a large number of towns in existence. Urbanization is a consequence of social, political, economic, cultural and technological actions and is a highly complex dynamic process [4]. Urbanization is a process categorised by more and more citizens residing in urban regions and is one of the highest significant transitions the world has experienced in current decades. In spite of the fact that the urbanization process is broadly recognised as related with growing stages of national productivity and greater per capita GDP, poverty continues to be a continual characteristic of urban life, for instance in India, which subsequently results from overpopulation of these cities arising in dividing social and physical arrangements. The urbanization and industrial transformation causes a shift in the economic arrangement and a skilled polarisation and this situation impacts the disparity among the social groups of the community [32].

Counter urbanization signifies the last stage in the first cycle of urban advancement, and is accompanied by a second cycle in which urbanization and spatial density control continually [33]. Urbanization refers to the transformation in scale, concentration and heterogeneity of cities. Urbanicity refers to the effect of residing in urban regions at a specified time. To categorise the unusual function cities perform in maintaining health, judgement of the meaning of 'urban' is useful. In the beginning of the twenty-first century, comparatively modest cities occurred in isolation, precisely set aside from other urban regions by large below-average-inhabited spaces for instance Las Vegas. The majority of cities, for instance New York City, are part of an extensive compactly inhabited region that remains uninterrupted for miles past the city midpoint. This standard condition is categorised by the rising convergence of urban and suburban regions in the United States. Gradually, enhancement of both inhabitants and of characteristics of urban livelihood in the peri-urban regions occurred. In spite of the fact that a threshold inhabitant scale fosters demographic analyses, it is possible that areas with less than 50,000 citizens, particularly in sparse largely populated areas, also benefit from the numerous features of cities [34].

Consequently, world statistics on urbanization rely on international meaning dissimilarities of 'urban'. Combining the problems, the meaning of 'urban' has transformed gradually in distinct approaches in distinct states. Subsequently, 'urban' in distinct contexts can comprise city midpoints, peri-urban fringe cities and compactly inhabited isolated areas. In spite of the fact that this lack of equal meaning possibly restricts inquiries of the matter is unusual in urban versus nonurban livelihood and the connection to health which highlights the dynamic existence of urban as a construct and the capacity which the process of urbanization besides the situation of being urban are significant judgements. The varied meaning of 'urban' suggests that a basic set of features, driven by inhabitant scale, concentration, heterogeneity and distance from other specific midpoints, is standard to urban regions and forms the situations of livelihood across these regions [34].

Both the process of urbanization and the situations of urbanicity demand to be interpreted to investigate urban situations and the approaches that impact health and well-being. Urbanization is the process that encompasses the growth and development or decline in scale of cities. The process of urbanization clearly means 'urban' instead of the dynamics of clustering individuals. Urbanization comprises

the recognition or damage of recent buildings or neighbourhoods, advancement or reduction of transportation paths and the immigration as well as emigration of citizens, which transforms racial and ethnic structure. The process of urbanization causes growth in unusual characteristics of urban regions that merit discrete investigation. Urbanicity refers to the emergence of situations that are specific to urban regions or on a larger scale than in non-urban regions. Inhabitants' concentration and the availability or lack of transportation networks are characteristics of cities that possibly control the health outcomes of hazards. Consequently, the urban setting of specific cities can impact health and change the impact that unexpected stressors place on a city. The urban situation at every specific point in time can specify the context of urbanization and is a strong determinant of urban situations in the future. Urbanization can impact characteristics of a city but these similar characteristics can react with or alter the processes that cause urbanization [34].

Quick urbanization has frequently been undertaken in the poor or negative economic development areas across various decades. Urbanization is a temporary occurrence containing several states that are currently completely urbanised [35]. Throughout 1880 and 1929, industrialisation and urbanization increased in the United States more than ever. Urbanization dispersed out into the countryside. Citizens condensed into micro-regions and this quickened economic activity consequently created more industrial development. Industrialisation and urbanization strengthened one another, increasing the velocity with which specific development was undertaken. Significant territorial dissimilarities occurred in urbanization due to dissimilarities in the existence of industrial development. Throughout 1880 and 1900, factories inclined to apply electric lighting continued to use previous sources of power for the operation. Electric power for factory operations was introduced rapidly throughout 1900 and 1930. Both these advancements, along with the vast supply of immigrant employees resulted in the industrialisation of cities [36].

The emergence of low-priced and commonly accessible electricity had a primarily significant impact upon the physical layout of American cities during this time. Horse-drawn carriages became superseded, making travel easier and quicker. This led to an emergence of suburbanization, a great deal of recent towns in the neighbourhoods of American cities—the place that the wealthy and intermediate class citizens could move to avoid the problems of modern urban life. Apartment houses made it possible to condense citizens into micro-urban regions and consequently live nearer to the workplace. Affluent citizens could purchase space and disconnection from one's neighbours, whereas the intermediate class citizens that refused to live in suburbs and that were missing the space benefited from the rapid urbanization. Evidence is hard-pressed to acknowledge industrialisation or urbanization from 1880 to 1930 due to these patterns before and after this period. Similarly, industrialisation and urbanization are wide-reaching, and they involve whole industries and locations that comprise a massive rate of books and other sources [36].

The addition of more roads and car parks is rapidly introducing more cars onto the roads. The rising need for cars was subsequently defended by the government. Conversely, the railway network decreased in length and the amount of stations dropped until 1960. During this time, urbanization involved big urban enhancement for the purpose of house development. According to the socio-economic and spatial viewpoint, many people preferred and facilitated car ownership and consumption and this led to quick economic development and enhanced distances between home and work locations, spreading suburbanization [37]. Currently impoverished but urbanised countries cannot depend on public proficiency. The whole association among government efficacy and urbanization is important but this signifies only the well-known association between public sector proficiency and income. Between states with lower stages less than \$5000, there is no association

between governmental efficacy and urbanization. Traditionally, urban development needed sufficient advancement to develop and transport important agricultural surpluses or an efficient government to construct a kingdom. There have been occurrences of weak mega-cities in the last 30 years. An uncomplicated urban model reflects that in restricted economies, agricultural affluence causes more urbanization but that in an unrestricted economy, urbanization increases with agricultural helplessness. The difficulty of growing global mega-cities is that poverty and impoverishment governance decrease the capability to overcome the negative externalities that come with concentration [38]. European urbanization occurred primarily in the nineteenth century, with larger costs of spatial relationship, poor economies of level and a smaller elastic supply of labour to the urban sector than in the current less developed countries (LDCs) [39].

Urbanization is one of the highest significant anthropogenic effects on natural landscape, whereas the urban landscape trend can signify the urbanization process and its ecological outcomes. The landscape trend across the urban-rural gradient signified the distinct urbanization levels and the broadening urban borders in Pudong New District, which could be referred to as class stage landscape ratios. The transformations in landscape trend across the gradient proposed that the quantitative analysis of landscape dynamics, particularly the landscape metrics bond with cross-section analysis, could be a strong instrument to investigate urban morphology, urban arrangement and ecological outcomes across urbanization [40]. In the gradient, the strong positive connection between income and urbanization is identical without the source of urbanization. In reality, equations on income per capita and urbanization levels are unconnected to the percentage of resource exports in GDP or the percentage of manufacturing and supplies in GDP. Urbanization is dependent on income per capita throughout all countries [41].

In Malaysia, the urbanization of capital in the past 30 years has allowed Malaysia to apply industrialism as implies to contribute account the third global to first in 2020. In the process, industrial properties have grown in economically designed regions near to or across connected regions of prevailing main cities. Cities in Malaysia are influenced with disagreements. Cities are the midpoints of modernity, culture, economic development and social advancement, and carry over the civilization, providing chances to citizens from rural regions and further afield. Cities develop in scale at a quick rate. The urbanization of capital internationally has allowed Malaysia to produce a structural change in its economy from resource abstraction, cultivation agriculture and import replacement to manufacturing of outputs for the global markets. Through applying industrialism, Malaysia can develop a program to cut out the poverty and reliant disorder left by years of western imperialism. The advancement effects of industrialism are the diffuse transformation in the state, evident from the physical environment to the citizen's way of life that is improving the cultural stability [42].

Housing properties quickly grow to match the development, providing accommodation to the growing number of employees in the industrial parks. Commercial and supply outputs supply the vital demands of the citizens, whereas the transport network connects all sectors to one another across the city and with other urban midpoints across a bigger urban area. Eventually, the city and industrial parks combine with others to shape mega urban agglomerations. The Penang-Bukit Mertajam-Sungai Petani in the north, the Lembah Bernam-Lembah Kelang-Lembangan Langat across to the Lembangan Linggi in centric Peninsula, and the Pasir Gudang-Johor Baru urban park in the south of the Peninsular Malaysia are instances of these mega urban agglomerations. By 2020, acknowledging that the fostering powers remain to produce additional development, it is forecasted that these main urban parks will develop into mega urban built-up parks, closely incorporating other

modest cities. The modest ideas from Eastern traditions, for instance the Kukaku Seiri from Japan, are either more recent or more local and can influence planning thoughts in the state. The idea of shifting a Malaysian city into a figure of Chicago or London cannot be considered. The arrangement designs were marked subject to the 1976 Act for all local governments. The notion of extensive planning is associated with restrictions, which are technical competencies in formulating the programs. Arrangement plans that formulate at the conceptual stage become the expectations of the localities supported with local plans that elaborated spatially distinguished implications of fulfilling the aims [42].

Urbanization can explain a particular circumstance at an arranged period, notably the fraction of total inhabitants or region in cities or towns and the term can explain the gradual growth of this fraction. Urbanization is not simply a modern occurrence, but a quick and historic transition of human societal fundamentals on a world scale, consequently the majority of rural culture is being quickly transformed into a largely urban culture. Urbanization is currently influencing depleted water and land resources, producing challenges among the urban and agricultural sectors. Urbanization is where inhabitants relocate from rural to urban regions, permitting cities and towns to develop. This can also be named as the innovative growth of the number of citizens residing in towns and cities. This is widely controlled by the paradigm that cities and towns have attained stronger economic, political and social distance contrasted to the rural regions. Urbanization is merely interpreted as the change from rural to urban community, which is prompted by social, economic and political advancements [43].

Industrialisation, social factors, modernisation and economic chances contribute to urbanization or growth in the number of citizens relocating from rural to urban regions. Causes of urbanization include, first, migration (citizens relocate from rural regions to the town or to industrial regions due to the comparatively stronger chance of employment) and, second, commercialisation concerning commercialisation and trade with the common viewpoint that the towns and cities provide stronger commercial chances and payoff compared to the rural regions. Industrial development is the main reason of urbanization. This has broadened the occupation chances. Rural citizens have relocated to cities because of stronger employment chances. Several social factors, for instance inducement of cities, stronger standard of livelihood, improved educational amenities and demand for status also encourage citizens to relocate to cities. There are various social advantages characterised by life in the cities and towns. In the rural sector, citizens have to rely primarily on agriculture for sustenance. Urban regions are categorised by advanced technology, more facilities, communication, medical amenities, et cetera. In urban regions, citizens also accept transformations in the methods of livelihood specifically residential habits, attitudes, dressing, food and beliefs. Currently, 54% of global inhabitants live in urban regions, a fraction that is projected to grow to 66% by 2050 [43].

Urbanization is widely connected to modernisation, industrialisation and the sociological process of rationalisation. Urbanization can explain a particular situation at a set time, specifically the fraction of total inhabitants in cities or the growth of this fraction over time. The phrase urbanization can signify the stage of the urban process relative to total inhabitants or it can signify the level at which the urban fraction is growing. Urbanization grows economic development and globalisation, standard of livelihood, education but this produces inequity in the market, due to the increased needs of the increasing inhabitants [44]. Inhabitants' transformation and urbanization are interconnected processes in time and space [45]. Urbanization should be regarded as a process motivated by dynamics related with technological and institutional transformation. Whereas urban accommodation increased in

several areas before the nineteenth century, the fraction of the world inhabitants living in urban regions continued to be low. Historical evidence shows that urban development in the preindustrial age was constrained by two factors: first, the shortage of excess energy supplies, typically food, to feed non-agricultural inhabitants and, second, an incapability to monitor infective and parasitic diseases, which expanded in compactly inhabited accommodations. Restriction on the accessibility of food supplies accompanied with rising disease constraints in urban accommodations introduced a natural ceiling on urban inhabitant development and consequently urbanization in the preindustrial age [46].

A mix of technological and institutional inventions in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries started to mitigate these restrictions. Whereas these raised typically in Europe, the people were subsequently distributed global via colonialism, trade and in the post-colonial duration, international advancement support, consequently context in movement an inevitable process of global urbanization. Several of these inventions have generated both mortality decreases and improvements in inhabitant development and economic advancement, causing the incorrect summation that economic advancement is the result of urbanization. In spite of the fact that there is no connection between structural changes in labour markets and rural to urban migration, the historical record shows that enhancements in disease prevention and food safety reinforce urbanization. Whether the beginning of the demographic shift is an essential or adequate situation for the urban shift to take place is complex to gather from cross-state study. Urbanization and urban development could take place merely via rural to urban migration in a setting of zero total inhabitant development and rapid economic development [46].

The tendency to relocate from rural to urban regions has been a characteristic of human attitude because cities have existed even if migrants stayed to avoid the higher levels of morbidity and mortality in the countryside. The significant impact is that every realistic model of the urbanization process should predict a various continual level of rural to urban migration, with all other matters being identical. Urbanization should be perceived as a world historical process motivated by technological and institutional transformations that mitigated the excess and disease restrictions that limit urban inhabitant development in the preindustrial age. These transformations were first seen in Europe and consequently dispersed, even though differently via domination and trade. This traditionally rooted perception of urbanization is dissimilar to the conventional perception that urbanization is a by-product of industrialisation. Mortality decreases and broadened access to surplus food supplies are preconditions for urbanization [46].

Quick urbanization has been a global occurrence in the twenty-first century. Economic advancement has been considered an important factor for growing urbanization, for example, acknowledged from the analysis of the patterns and trends of the urban situation between the main states of India. The stages of urbanization are great in industrially and economically developed states. The speed of increase in urban inhabitants has been great in underdeveloped states. Appropriate recognition of the patterns, spatial arrangement and density of urban inhabitants between the states, particularly in recent decades, is vital for urban governance as well as other programmes for the advancement and management of urban regions [47]. Urbanization is said to grow internal needs, which is important to foster economic advancement of the state. The need for facilities and accessible public supplies in the cities is expected from the growth. Urbanization and economic development can be regarded as interconnected processes. Development and industrialisation have produced recent workplaces that promote citizens to relocate from rural to urban regions, which consequently has enhanced production in agriculture. The advancement of urban regions encourages internal needs via the growth in the

need for facilities and the growth of income [48]. Urbanization is one of the highest significant occurrences of the world today. The livelihood urbanization refers to the development of urbanization via micro-towns that have less than 20,000 inhabitants. There are four approaches across which the urban inhabitants increase specifically reproductive process; migration or movement of citizens from rural to urban region; growth of recent towns via identification of recent urban accommodations by Census authority [49]. In short, urbanization implies changes from traditional or rural areas to modern or urban areas.

3. Characteristics of urbanization

The characteristics of urbanization are related to the characteristics of 'urban'. The recognition of urban features should be done with city culture as the standpoint, with city history as expansion, and city characteristic as the foundation to indicate the incorporation of city features by urban planning, architectural design, landscape design and building. Urban roads labelled with historical pictures and streets can signify the incorporation of local culture. Architecture design can also signify the local culture, for instance, architectural approach of rural society. In China, according to the viewpoint of distinct cities in Shaanxi, Xi'an and Xianyang, city features have been developed on the long pattern and wide gathering of Qin, Han, Tang history and culture. Baokı, Weinan, Yanan, Yulin should understand the local culture components to illustrate city features, for instance the publicity of Xifu culture of Baoji, the heritage of conventional opera of Weinan, the red culture of Yanan, the earth building of Yulin, Ankang, Hanzhong, Shangluo can possibly produce urban recreation culture based on the natural landscape to recognise incorporation of urban planning and mountains as well as water; simultaneously, the historic town's architectural characteristics should be granted more significance [50]. In the educational context, urbanization produces unequal economic arrangements in urban schools and these disparities have numerous significant outcomes for urban students [51].

Urban founded communities require the urban region to have unique features that can manifest its cultural assets and setting features. Urban features have been an evaluating criterion for many years. Xi'an is city of important features with obvious roles and sections in distinct blocks. The northern region of Xi'an is a common name for modern industry in Shaanxi accepting the economic and technical advancement region as the company and hosting advanced machinery manufacturing as the major industry. The southern region of Xi'an accepts Qujiang New District as its company with conventional architectural approach and rapidly rich cultural industry. The western region of Xi'an has a strong basis on arising industry, high-tech industry, information industry and creative industry depending on the Xi'an High-tech Industrial Development Region, which signifies the benefits of scientific and technical cultures, generation and modern city features [50].

The eastern region of Xi'an formulates the green run of Xi'an to re-emerge water and the ecological setting with Chanba Ecological Region as the operators. Nevertheless, other cities in Shaanxi do not have important features similar to Xi'an. These cities have an identical architectural approach with further flat-kind apartment buildings, identical road labels and scenic artworks in public spaces, and long terrace buildings. The perception of thousands of cities with similar structures and possibly in time is more substantial than ever before, which results in the city acknowledgement decreasing greatly [50]. There are three distinct standards by which cities can be interpreted [22]:

1. Organisational proficiency specifically on the location grouped as a city for organisational intentions
2. Physical variables notably the concentration of buildings, of citizens or of other variables for instance the fraction of every unit of region spread over hard surfaces or the concentration of light discharges
3. Functions concerning the conduct of households and firms to unveil the territories of the specifically urban region

Cities described on the physical standard are mostly easy to collect data from for allocation names as organisational cities are experiencing various drawbacks. There are drawbacks if international comparisons are made due to varying trends among states in accommodation trends signifying institutional dissimilarities and historical or topographical ones. Furthermore, the trade-off among easiness for collecting data and precision for recording urban facts possibly mistake extremely distant on the angle of easiness. The outcome is that developed regions tend to have larger concentrations but functionally cities rise throughout protected green regions. This is dissimilar to a state, for instance Belgium and Switzerland, containing land consumption planning that is not constrictive to urbanization as it tends to disperse as citizens view less densities and further personal livelihood space. The drawback of utilising organisational units if drawing comparisons between states is also important. For instance, in France there is a generally employed physical meaning of cities, specifically the clustering. This usage, as its basic determinants, involves the physical length between buildings. In France, planning is reasonably constrictive and permits urban advancement to take place at the physical restriction of urban regions as well as experiencing comparatively small total inhabitant densities, adopting the concept that clustering creates properly interpreted trends of physically different cities [22].

In Belgium, the whole region from Antwerp to Liege is one city. Similarly, clustering does not create the comparatively full meaning of cities if employed by the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. Land consumption planning policies purposely prohibit incremental and constant enhancement of cities. This shows that to have largely valid international comparisons, it is beneficial to define the consumption functional meaning of cities. For instance, in the comparison between the scale of London and Paris, specifying the outer restrictions of the two states based on containing employees travelling to other employments in the occupation nodes creates a larger dissimilarity to the predicted scale of London than it does to Paris. The physically interpreted clustering of Paris in 1990 had inhabitants of 9 million contrasted to the inhabitants of 11.4 million in its functional urban region. The functionally interpreted urban region was 25% bigger than if interpreted morphologically. In London the comparative figures, adopting the similar standard, were 6.7 and 12.5 million respectively. Consequently, the functionally interpreted London was approximately 90% bigger than if interpreted morphologically [22].

Defining cities functionally has the extra attractiveness that it permits the recognition of urban nodes and urban hinterlands. The urban nodes typically concern employment densities, in spite of the fact that increased inhabitants' in the urban hinterlands caused a further largely residential region with the outer network commuting to the node. Consequently, this produces probable path urban development and spatial trends as well as whether there is decentralisation and suburbanization of inhabitants or centralisation. Another benefit of functional meaning is that it regards inhabitants that economic factors place. Firms, if selecting locations, consider access to facilities and labour. Citizens mostly choose locations based

on employment accessibility. None of these decisions are expected to be severely impacted by organisational territories or the place of unbuilt land protected from urban advancement via the value of access to that possibly capitalised into house prices. For instance, firms have excellent access to London's Heathrow airport if placed approximately 40 km to the west of London compared to any other place in London. Only a functional meaning of London would record the indication [22].

4. Function of urbanization

The function of urbanization is correlated with the function of cities, which is associated to urban areas as poverty mitigation mechanisms. The significance of urban areas in fostering economic development, poverty reduction and mitigation, as well as energy and natural resource preservation has not been larger. To some extent, this signifies the reality that the majority of global citizens are expected to be urban by 2007. Transitional or Eastern Europe is the only global area where the urbanization rate is expected to be negative, associated with a total inhabitant decrease, urban regions are expected to drop by 12 million citizens by 2030, with the majority of the decline in Russia, producing distinct urban difficulties. In the developed cities of the world, inhabitants' development is expected to decelerate, with the exemption of areas in North America, for instance, cities such as Phoenix and Las Vegas in Southwest United States of America, and cities that prompt vast movements of international migrants, for instance, Toronto. Cities in Western Europe and Japan are expected to be categorised by comparatively steady inhabitant numbers [52]. Tripathi [49] indicated that urban midpoints are enablers of development and drivers of modernisation as well as advancement and that urbanization as a process of shifting is responsible for territorial advancement, has been correctly reported. Urbanization is one of the highest significant occurrences of the current global situation and has stimulated a fairly vast amount of interest from scholars on the drawback.

The impacts of the drawback are evident. Because most African urbanization to 2030 has already taken place, generative migration assimilation policies are significant. However, urban development in Latin American cities is expected to amount to only 39% of the current urban inhabitants, signifying in the original position, poverty mitigation policies should be granted greater focus. In spite of this, the greatest absolute national growth is expected in China and India earlier in the rural urban shift process. Urban development in India to 2030 is expected to be 86% of the present urban inhabitants contrasted with 64% in China. The reality that Africa is the poorest landmass but is also the landmass with the highest urbanization rate leads to big city construction difficulties and simultaneously supplies important economic chances. If urbanization is generative, that is migrants are productively assimilated, rural urban migration is related with rapid big increases in national economic achievement, as the urban paths of China and North America show. In spite of the fact that urbanization levels and increases in urban inhabitants are expected to be greatest in Africa, it is the global area with the largely restricted resources that has to deal with quick urbanization, a process that demands high capital investment and technical as well as management skills [52].

Cities are places of big advancements and affluence in several regions, creating wealth and chances for several inhabitants. Nevertheless, cities are also home to lower benefited clusters, categorised by poverty and a similar chance for enhancement. Growth in urbanization is largely obvious in the development of the largest cities. The large number of citizens in cities also supplies a big and condensed customer market to address with substantial chances of range. Cities supply

the budgetary force, owning banks, insurance corporations and stock markets. Supported by communication networks, cities are essential cores in international financial movements. Cities have political force; central cities are the dwelling place of the country's federal government in practically every state, whereas other main cities frequently function as the place for sub-state authorities. A large range of objections and revolutionary rebellions are consequently initiated and staged in main cities. Cities are the locality of social and cultural transformation. Across the social context, the chance for comparative namelessness and the existence of citizens with identical behaviours as well as views external to the citizen's family relationship clusters and conventional social networks generate growth in dynamics that encourage recent as well as modern thoughts and manifestation [53].

5. Questions on urbanization

Previous studies on urbanization found numerous problems and drawbacks, for instance *Arquitectura and Territoria* [54] indicated that in other states such as Latin America and the Caribbean, a series of difficulties that medium-sized cities should overcome to assure the stability in the forthcoming years were presented. Those difficulties comprise restricted mobility, poor urban designing, disparity and lack of conformity with labour as well as construction rules, joblessness and weak institutional and fiscal capability. These situations weaken cities' stability and decrease the quality of life of the settlers. More than 80% of its inhabitants presently live in cities and this picture is forecasted to attain 90% in 25 years. As part of this process, distinct urbanization patterns can be verified throughout the area notably slow development ranges of mega-cities because of lower rural-urban migration and larger intra-city migration; high development ranges of mid-scale cities; and urban steps accelerating inhabitants. Recent advancement in secondary cities provided recent chances to develop in a more sustainable and equal approach compared to solving prevailing difficulties in cities. Big cities, categorised by inhabitants exceeding 6 million, were rapid rising urban midpoints in the 1990s. Following this, partly modest cities have also experienced rapid increases, whereas the bigger cities have stabilised the inhabitant numbers. Urban designing is an important tool for the advancement of a sustainable city. In Latin American and the Caribbean, the tool has frequently been defeated by restricted public institutional abilities, overcome by steady stakeholders and restricted by modest resources arising in programs that have not been executed or implemented. This leads to a lack of designing that has caused unpredictable, small concentration dispersion with concurrent larger facility allocation costs.

The majority of municipalities in Latin American and the Caribbean have design obligations but are frequently restricted to a fundamental road configuration and land consumption rule that do not cover a more comprehensive urban development model. This deficiency is an important component to real designing, notably a vision of the future city founded on an analysis of its assets and liabilities, a tool for sustainable advancement and resources to accomplish significant outcomes. The lack of designing signifies numerous difficulties, beginning with the lack of information and poor arrangement between distinct stages of designing as well as the lack of a conceptual realisation of the metropolitan area. Due to several cities outperforming the genuine political organisational frontiers, there is a rising demand for a territorial mission and arrangement while improving a territorial authority to execute a further difficult designing model that consists of behaviours exceeding frontiers. Quick urbanization has also caused insufficient mobility arrangements to supply the citizens of Latin American and Caribbean cities. The restricted allocation of

formal transportation has permitted the development of informal group transport, which is frequently categorised by small ability units and ineffective paths. Small concentration development has caused high transportation costs notably in time and income. Consequently, transportation costs are growing as citizens utilise additional time in traffic and the municipality has to allocate more resources to this region. For instance, enhanced private motor vehicle possession has resulted in larger crowding. Additionally, in various regions, inhabitants' densities are too low to justify public transportation. In these cases, public transport frequency is decreased and prices enhanced as well as the distances to be travelled are relatively longer. The four or five family associates that must use buses to work and school must travel additional hours, several additional miles on distinct transportation options, thus spending a growing quantity of money from the household income [54].

Low between-organisational information and arrangement create planning that demands numerous levels of internal and external arrangement. National, territorial and municipal governments align between the staff to perform the distinct stages of government and specify the advancement as well as progress of cities. Planning demands arrangement among distinct organisational stages encompassed in the meaning of norms and allocation of supplies as well as fiscal institutional elements of land rule. Commonly, national stakeholders establish national highways, own public lands, rights of approach, and public amenities. Consequently, rules concerning urban planning that impact municipalities are interpreted at a national stage. A uniformity test process is essential by which national or state and province agencies possibly assure that local strategies adhere to national rules and plans as well as national plans need to integrate local and territorial demands into the decision-making. Accordance with the national or subnational authorities and other non-municipal organisations possibly exists while water boards, services or public amenities districts and supra-municipal management entities exist in a restricted number of cases. This municipality of workers' demands a further attempt of partnership and communication between all stakeholders provided to assure the conformity and the uniformity of missions as well as rules. Deficiency of planning implementation can be examined in constructions that are built exceeding the authorised height, lot restrictions, and the rise of ghettos. However, every drawback demands particular and distinct stages of remediation. Implementing construction regulations demands an additional restricted action, whereas solving the development of informal accommodation demands investigations but also further significantly social and economic strategies to address the essential drawbacks [54].

Arranging and planning the urban dwellings should begin with a comprehensive mission that is not merely the total of thematic questions, for instance, housing, mobility or facility, but considerations of the supplementary and interconnections as well as effectiveness in the provision of insufficient public goods and resources. Nevertheless, several Latin American and Caribbean cities lack that kind of vision when producing plans. Low maintenance of housing in several historical nodes has caused social destruction as the intermediate classes have relocated to the suburbs. If ghetto strengthening schemes are executed, ascertaining if the inhabitants remain poor is a further difficult question as it demands long-term social strategies that continue to exceed the capital investment spending related to urban and housing enhancements. The emergence of recent methods of housing strategies, for instance, incremental housing strategies, can cause enhancements in housing stock, but this relies on the family economy and investment to achieve a sufficient quality stage, with the efficient enhancements of livelihood situations involving years [54].

There continues to be an unresolved problem. Nevertheless, presented with the preceding discourse, this produces questions on the place and the way to describe the partitioning border among the city and the remaining geographic space. With

particular source to the city that regardless of the persistence or indivisibility of geographic space and of the fact as the total for that matter as well as there are varying ranges and statements of empirical occurrence, principal processes and political concerns that become essential to differentiate particular units and stages of relationship across the totality of global space as a total. Furthermore, there is no strict border that differentiates the urban land link from the remains of geographic space but instead an arrangement of spatial levels in which people relocate from the one to the other. This does not imply that the urban land linkage and the dynamics are imaginations, and at the same time, the slow and unequal decline into one another does not imply that the people do not exist as recognisable elements in their own right. The obvious deduction from these observations is that the people usually have substantial space in practice as to the way the people differentiate the spatial scope of the urban land linkage but that the foremost is to interpret it in every specified example in an approach that maximises our capability in addressing the matter specified, for instance, economic advancement, public transport, ethnic dispute, neighbourhood decay, urban political policy and so forth [55]. In principle, the people have no choice but to comply with the pragmatic guideline that has usually been applied by geographers and to place the border of the section in an approximately possible approach relative to accessible data [55].

6. Urbanization in the Northern Corridor Economic Region

Across the Ninth Malaysia Plan, five territorial economic corridors were created between 2006 and 2008 to deal with inconsistent advancement throughout the state. The Northern Corridor Economic Region (NCER) was set up in 2007 as one of the economic corridors to supply equality development in the four states in the northern area of Peninsula Malaysia namely Kedah, Northern Perak, Perlis and Penang. The area has displayed powerful economic advancement, with a yearly GDP development level of 5.8% contrasted to Malaysia's 5.4% between 2010 and 2014. The GDP development was mostly determined by the supplies and manufacturing sectors as listed [56]:

1. The supplies industry is the greatest GDP creator for all the four states, with authorities' supplies as the greatest subsector builder.
2. The manufacturing industry is the second greatest GDP creator for Kedah, Penang and Perak.
3. The agriculture industry is the second greatest GDP creator for Perlis.

In the 9 years following the implementation of NCER, important transformations have occurred, for instance enhancement of the NCER scope, for example in 2014, the district of Manjung was integrated into NCER; and in 2016, the Northern Corridor Implementation Authority (NCIA) Council permitted the expansion of NCER's frontiers to include the whole state of Perak. Second, transformations in national and world economic situations for instance decline in fuel price, decreasing of Malaysian ringgit, as well as economic downturn in China and decreasing foreign investments. The five key aims are as follows [56]:

1. Improving openness into an equal community. NCER is involved in assuring the reasonable dispersion of economic and social chances as well as economic and social advancement to all citizens.

2. Reconfiguration development and production in important industries. The aim is for NCER's important industries to quicken economic development while administrating sustainable development. A steady and varied economy that creates high-value commodities and supplies is expected to produce high-paying employments related with an advanced area.
3. Reinforcing infrastructure to support linkage and development. Properly planned and built facilities, comprising public transportation and internet access, supply the assisting ecosystem vital for increasing livelihood standards and for economic enhancement.
4. Promoting skill advancement for an advanced area. The knowledge and skills of the labour force shall be consistently grown, as skill is an important catalyst for the area to maintain sector needs and transform these into knowledge-intensive and high value-added economic activities.
5. Solving investors' demands. Recent and prevailing investors shall be supported and fostered to assure engaged investments are fulfilled. Execution difficulties shall be solved and forthcoming reinvestments be promoted via strong participations.

Manufacturing remains one of the most important accomplishments of the Malaysia economy, entering constant development regardless of complicated economic situations. In 2015, the sector was estimated at RM243.9 billion, to constitute 23% of local gross domestic merchandise production. The electrical and electronics (E&E) sector remains an important determinant of the Malaysian economy, with an important proportion of the state's manufacturing production, occupation investment and exports. The Machinery and Equipment (M&E) industry has also been increased by the rising medical instrument manufacturing sector that is expected to supply RM17.12 billion in income and produce 86,000 jobs by 2020. These sector performers are situated in high-development agglomerations in the north corridor and are manifestations to the area's aggregate of construction skill, encouraging ecosystem and grown commercial context. Further, NCIA expects to continue to improve the industry with high-end non-public industry involvements that are expected to assist Malaysia to maintain the competitiveness benefit. As NCIA shifts into the execution of Stage 2, the people are continuously on the outlook for approaches to adapting north corridor's components of economy to sustain the competitiveness benefit in manufacturing. This is essential to enable the north corridor to continue to enhance its capability in accelerating the execution of cutting-edge, value-centred manufacturing [56].

The aims of important regions configuring manufacturing are to grow high value-added activities, for instance, plan as well as Research and Development for the E&E industry and to facilitate the advancement of rising manufacturing industries, for instance, the med-tech as well as aerospace and sustainable components industries. The policy is to strengthen the sector correlations and grow the value-adding aspect in the manufacturing sector, with the policies expected to be interconnected and executed through planning [56].

Economic corridors have earned a reputation over the preceding two decades as instruments for sub-territorial economic advancement. This is based on calculations of the prospect or fostering equality development between areas throughout states that share common borders and between areas across states with important territorial revenue inequities. There is no common meaning of the economic corridor. By extracting features frequently recognised in a variety of economic

corridor plans and associated strategy reports, the meaning of economic corridor is an incorporated framework of economic advancement across a specified geographical region that locates trade-associated infrastructure at the basis, but continues to consist of interrelated questions of public strategy, rules and operational practices demanded for encouraging economic progress and advancement across the specified region. Facility advancement encompasses growing transport paths that physically connect the regions and areas, as well as recognition of intermodal amenities. For the purpose of attaining the intention of incorporating the specified area across the national economy and internationally, it is significant to establish concern to growing a corridor as the centre of the regional transport facility. Improving the commercial context to facilitate entrepreneurial abilities demands a multidimensional method consisting of skill advancement, assisting public private partnership (PPP) assuring labour markets are open to foster the mobilisation of labour throughout the areas, and fostering industrial groups [13].

This is significant to integrate strategies and plans in a process of consultation and arrangement with the private industry, both to support in the planning of suitable strategy treatment and to supply reactions on the execution of strategy treatment. Strategies demand to be properly planned by considerations of the prospect network impact of investments with particular priority positions to foster clustering. This demands improvements in the technology and skills of prospect providing firms, and fostering the mobilisation of labour throughout and between distinct districts. The NCER and East Cost Economic Region (ECER) show ambitious attempts at growing economic corridors that broaden throughout numerous states. The NCER is precisely the case deserving of investigations on calculated basic conceptual cause. The state of Penang has the prospect to be the physical corridor to this area, which consists of four states with distinct resources and at distinct levels of advancement. This consequently supplies a perfect case study of the function of an economic corridor in connecting the agricultural hinterland with the modern industry of the economy. Furthermore, NCER is at a comparatively advanced level of execution, as contrasted to the ECER. The ECER, dissimilar, is still at a comparatively beginning level and the economic activities of the states are different as well as broadness of context that is seen in the NCER. Moreover, the urban midpoint, Kuantan, does not have the stabilisation and the access that Georgetown in Penang has for the purpose of role efficiency [13].

The four NCER states account for nearly 16% of the whole national production in Malaysia. Between the four states, Penang accounts for the biggest share, approximately 6.6% between 2010 and 2015 followed by Perak at around 5.4%, Kedah about 3.3% and Perlis approximately 0.5%. Concerning per capita revenue, there are remarkable dissimilarities, Kedah is the most impoverished between the four states. Penang's per capita revenue is nearly 16% larger than the national average. The per capita revenue of Kedah is around 47% of the national average. The comparable estimates for Perlis and Perak are approximately 58 and 64%, respectively. Identical dissimilarities are indicated by the data on the level of urbanization and the occurrence of poverty founded on the national poverty statistic. Penang has the smallest occurrence of poverty in the territory and nationally. Poverty levels in the other states range from 3.5 to 6%. Penang has a more varied manufacturing industry as contrasted to the other three states. Electronics, electrical commodities, and other associated outputs account for a greater share of manufacturing in Penang, while processed food and other resource based outputs are of greater significance in the other three states. Electronics has emerged as an important output in manufacturing in these states. This appears to signify the dispersal of productivity networks to the other states from Penang. Penang currently accounts for more than 90% of total electronics and electrical elements created in the NCER area [13].

The manufacturing industry in Penang accounts for a third of the manufacturing occupation. Working class production of manufacturing in Penang is larger compared to the other three NCER states. This appears to show that Penang has a comparatively well-grown skill base that is NCER possibly force for territorial advancement. Salary per employee in Penang is larger due to employees having larger skill-sets but this signifies that there is space for the dispersal of comparatively more labour-intensive productivity processes far from Penang, to other parts of the NCER, if other demanded requirements notably logistics, infrastructure and skill advancement are fulfilled.

Penang Port is along the Straits of Malacca, one of the most congested shipment routes in the world. This is appropriately located to function as the logistic gateway for the NCER area and Southern Thailand as well as currently being the third-biggest harbour in Malaysia based on overall capacity. Across the imperial age, Penang was the first harbour of release of ships from Europe and India to the Straits Settlements. This historical benefit has been lessened by the rising scale of ships utilised in global shipping. Big ships transporting cargo of 18,000 20-foot equivalent units (TEU) demand a depth of 14.5–16 m [13]. Penang Port's present depth is nearly 11 m in the northern waterway and nearly 12 m at position, and this can only manage 5000 TEU ships. To increase the depth to 14.5 m would cost 300 million Malaysian ringgit. Specified big investment is not demonstrated due to Penang Port not being geographically properly located to compete with Port Klang for stimulating larger ships. Presently, Penang Port operates mostly as a supply harbour for large container ships from Southern Thailand, primarily in the shape of rubber and rubber-founded outputs. There is additional prospect to prompt commodities from the northern territory of Southern Thailand to Surat Thani exceeding its presently attain that stops at HatYai closer the northern edge of Peninsular Malaysia. Commodities from the NCER comprise solar-powered panels created in Penang, rubber gloves from Kulim and tires from Taiping. There is essentially no container from northern Ipoh or Perlis. Prospect catalysts in need for the harbour comprise goods from the recently recognised Batu Kawan Industrial Park and automotive components imported for vehicle installation in the north. The international airport in Bayan Lepas, Penang, is the second biggest airport for air containers in Malaysia following Kuala Lumpur and the third most congested traffic airport following Kuala Lumpur and Kota Kinabalu. Penang airport improves Penang's function as a main productivity midpoint across the global production networks (GPN). This has been providing a main port for electric and electrical commodities primarily components and elements from the Free Trade Zone industrial regions. Above 80% of the total electronics and electrical commodities exported from Penang is in air containers. This is the port for high value to weight electronic elements from Kulim High Tech Park in Kedah, which is located approximately 44 km away [13].

The NCIA outlines the agency from an act of Parliament, the NCIA Act 2008 (Act 687). Subject to the Act, NCIA has the ability to gain details and data as clarified by the Authority from all authority agencies, organisations and companies as well as other corporates and individuals running across the NCER. This can produce suggestions to the state and local agencies on local government roles as well as supplies, comprising local planning, monitoring as well as rules and the endorsements as well as monitoring of whole construction activities. NCIA supports investments by supporting investors in fulfilling investment prerequisites and attainment important endorsements. Furthermore, this acts as the primary aligning factor to examine the accomplishment of specified projects. The four states of NCER form a natural building for economic company. Kedah, Perak and Perlis are primarily agricultural hinterland states, established with vast land and wealthy natural resources that continue to be completely utilised. Penang, granted the strategic

position and productive advancement via world economic incorporation across the preceding four decades, has the opportunity to accomplish the function of the hub and knowledge port in the economic corridor for the purpose of connecting the advancement disparity between the constitutive states [13].

It is not possible to produce an accurate evaluation of the consequence of the NCIA operations in the area because of the scarcity of information and the apparent delay encompassed in the materialisation of the projected consequences of the investment projects. However, certainly at this level, two significant overviews deserve attention. One overview is that the specified influence of important components essential for a profitable corridor advancement pathway port and airport, logistic infrastructure and industrial groups cannot assure accomplishment except there are proposed attempts to incorporate these matters towards an aggregate to accomplish the important developmental aims of the area. The NCER has a main pathway port and airport in Penang. Substantial resources have been invested in transport logistic infrastructure that connects the important associate states. These are personal opportunities unaffiliated to one another. Specified attempts possibly comprise reinforcing the access of the pathway port and airport to the designed recent development cores in a variety of components of the hinterland via multi-modal correlations, utilising prevailing industrial groups to benefit the advantages of clustering, as well as ensuring cheap housing and commodity transport networks are accessible in the rising recent urban midpoints to capitalise on the synergies among urban as well as industrial advancement [13].

The second overview is that simply acknowledging that a supra-state agency can efficiently examine the incorporated advancement of the corridor is insufficient; equivalent interest must be granted to this formulation and powers provided to perform tasks efficiently. The NCER is an example of the way the demand for the whole executing agency was acknowledged but insufficient interest was allocated to incorporating this in an approach that produced efficiency. Whereas every territorial advancement opportunity that decreased agent edges, exists in states or nations, demands a supra-state or national agency to not merely organise planning and execution but to assist in standardisation of individual state or national concerns to meet the fundamental aim of shared development, the authority must collaborate with the associated states and be allocated with abilities to control conformity from all stakeholders. The NCIA is the agency monitoring the advancement of the NCER and has adequate agency by approach of the NCIA Act and because the Prime Minister is the chairperson [13].

Nevertheless, the entire engagement of the associate states has not been achieved, primarily Penang that does not frequently view monitoring on project preferences arranged by the NCIA. This supplies various insights on the way the supra-state agency should be arranged. The NCIA must have sufficient involvement of staff from important planning authorities from all the associate states. There must be an obvious identification of projects that states are expected to execute through the agency. The NCIA needs to participate in opportunities that contribute immediate advantages to the area as the total instead of each specific state. Investments in large supplying road, rail, air or sea connections are expected to drop across this category. Growing industrial groups that correspond with the competitive benefit of specified states are expected to be in accordance with this goal, and supplies are connected with other regions that possibly supply complementary supporting supplies, even though this implies fostering movement of citizens, commodities, or supplies through borders [13].

Poverty increases metric; however, are foremost remaining to state opportunities defended by state financing except there are projects that reduced through-out state frontiers that possibly attain this goal. The NCIA is essentially a state

organisation by innovation in which federal authorities and state stage stakeholders have a restricted function to perform whereas all NCIA executed projects are governmentally financed on a personal basis. This has conferred an unwarranted lack of control in state charge and hinders the functional liberty of the NCIA. It is complex for the NCIA to develop strategies and to efficiently capitalise the progress and advancement prospect of the states for the purpose of remedying advancement disparities and the rural urban gap as proposed in the original economic corridor plan [13]. The government of Malaysia is rapidly realising the accelerated challenge in a number of sectors. The territorial plan has been broadened to the NCER [57].

7. Conclusion

There are several meanings of urbanization, such as the traditional meaning and contemporary meaning. Urbanization (traditional meaning) refers to a change in accommodation trends from scattered to additional condensed accommodation. Several of the enhancements of urban land consumption lead to the outcome of a change from concentrated to larger scattered accommodation. In practical terms, the urbanization term is used to imply to two contrasting spatial changes in accommodation trends, probably to have contrasting impacts on the land accessible for economic activity. Furthermore, this term possibly explains a particular situation at a determined period, notably the fraction of total inhabitants or regions in cities or towns or the phrase possibly explains the growth of this fraction over time. Urbanization is a modern occurrence and a quick as well as historic transition of human social bases on a world range and consequently the primarily rural culture is being quickly substituted by a mainly urban culture.

Cities identified on physical standards are almost as easy to gather data for in resource terms as administrative cities are but experience various disadvantages. There are drawbacks when it comes to international comparisons due to varying trends among states in accommodation, notably signifying institutional dissimilarities and historical or topographical elements. Furthermore, the trade-off among simplicity for gathering data and accuracy for capturing urban reality can lead to skewed data. The function of cities is associated with urban regions as poverty mitigation machineries. The importance of urban regions in driving economic development, poverty prevention and mitigation, as well as energy and natural resource conservation has never been larger. In part, this shows the fact that the majority of the world's citizens are expected to be urban by 2007. In other states, for instance Latin America and the Caribbean, a series of difficulties has been presented that cities, particularly intermediate cities, must address to assure sustainability in the coming years. Those difficulties include restricted mobility, poor urban planning, disparity, lack of compliance with labour and building regulations, unemployment and weak institutional and fiscal capacity. These conditions undermine cities' sustainability and decrease the quality of life of the settlers. More than 80% of these inhabitants currently live in cities and this figure is projected to reach 90% in 25 years.

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia, for funding this study under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS), S/O code 13228, and Research and Innovation Management Centre, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, for the administration of this study.

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Paradigm of Urbanization

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Abstract

Urbanization is related to the urban theory and model. Urban theories describe important views on the advancement in thought of the city. Urban theory is currently acknowledged in academic spheres for the aim of defining the occurrence in the city and objectives to supply a common recognition of city living in distinct methods. This concentrates on the important features of the urban living and deals with the urban context. The urbanization principle is also related with capitalist or market economies, particularly poverty as it is not affected by urban processes but rather by the difficult powers that result in revenue dispersion in an economy signified by private estate, competitive markets and salary working class with income. To evaluate the quality of urban development and demographic transformation as well as the importance of economic advancement, it is essential to clarify a theoretical model, especially if empirical analysis is able to explain the urbanization principle by evaluating the prospects and exhibiting related strategy choices.

Keywords: advancement, model, theory, urban, urbanization

1. Introduction

The urbanization principle is related to urban theories. New research encourages the formation of new models [1]. The new urbanization theory adopted by many countries comprises basic realities, practices, experiences, lessons and requirements in development [2]. Recently, development was performed based on the classical and modern theory [3]: for instance, the urban system theory that applied to all levels of urban society [4]. European areas adopted the cyclical urbanization model to explain past and future levels of growth [5]. The accessibility of information pertaining to city and urban systems created the probability for the recent science field based on the city [6]. The urban system should explain population dispersion and spatial earning dispersion [7]. Knowledge of modern urban theory originated from biology and economic disciplines [8]. The key researcher responsible for describing urban theory is Henri Lefebvre [9]. Urban theories describe important views of advancement in the thoughts of the city. Urban theory is recognised in academic spheres for the aim of definition on occurrence in the city and objectives to supply a common realising of city living in distinct approaches, concentrating on the vital features of the urban living and deal in the urban context. Urban theory can be regarded as a subgroup of social theory; however, it is a mutual theoretical word that social theory and urban theory hold. However, the first differentiation that the researcher is supposed to report is that urban living is not worldwide and urban drawbacks are a mix of myths and actions. All urban theories address one or more elements, namely culture, consuming, conflict and society. Culture comprises arrangements of beliefs, together with the physical built setting (buildings, bridges, streets and parks and the

contents), communication (newspapers, books, television, radio and the Internet), conventional cultural productivity (art, theatre, literature and orchestral music) and popular culture (movies, fashion, comic books and popular music) [10].

2. Urbanization paradigm

The urbanization paradigm is correlated with capitalist or market economies and particularly poverty, which is not affected by urban processes but rather by the difficult powers that lead to revenue dispersion in an economy signified by private estate, competitive markets and salary working class. Similarly, in spite of the fact that researchers frequently consider urban agencies as units of monitoring in a variety of statistical practices, people consider counties or states as having a similar aim. This does not allocate these practices in an accurate urban definition. The assumption that every occurrence being undertaken in a city is urban is regardless of the additional standard responsible for economical deception. Political consequence in the city demands to be deliberately reviewed to differentiate the primarily urban elements from the rest. Especially, the unusual and indigenous shapes of politics focus on the urban land link. The constraints produced by competition for land consumption, the recommendations to ensure connectivity to positive externalities and to prevent the impacts of negative externalities, the rent-seeking conduct of estate proprietors, and the demand to secure or raise specific sorts of urban standards for instance clustering economies, among other differences, all produce continuously changing spheres of urban social occurrences [11].

The urban land link arises in the sphere of dynamics of clustering and related processes of land consumption categorising, therefore producing an interlocking network of locational activities across a shared gravitational force. In capitalist arrangements, important components of the urban land link are under the condition that the regulation of private estates is consequently commodified namely private estates marketed as a commodity. In other kinds of social arrangements, land consumption choices are inclined to be oriented by distinct types of mechanisms, restricted or non-existent personal estate rights or collective governments of possession, for instance ethnic or tribe regulation. Across the city, interconnected units of economic productivity generally form distinguishing groups interlocked by belts of dwelling activity. Regions in the outer city are sources of food, resources and goods that are not created internally and this provides the markets for the city's marketable concentrated outputs. These regions are portrayed both by the hinterland of the city and other cities as well as areas at additional distances. However, in primitive periods, long-distance commerce was a feature of several cities as manifested markedly by the case of Classical Rome. In the 21st century, cities are connected with one another in an internationally incorporated arrangement of commerce and information exchange as seen in a rising world pattern of cities and city areas [11].

There are three main shortcomings of the postcolonial urban theory: notably this overstated claim concerning Euro American epistemological inclination in existing urban analysis, this vastly optional argument of modernism developmentalism and the powerful methodological engagement to theoretically unregulated comparativism. All of these topics are basically subdivisions of a single meta argument of an arranged lack of comparison in the angle of perception in advancement and in representation. Recognition of the strong function of economic powers in forming the urban landscape is not to promote every kind of scientism of urban history with all cities finally combining to a state of attained modernity. People acknowledge that the empirical paths of advancement of individual cities diversify both across the southern and northern hemispheres as well as across single states/countries. The features of cities grow constantly. With all of this variety, the important question

forms regarding the way particular shapes and stages of economic advancement form particular variations of clustering as well as a high concentration of land consumption, in other words the urban land link and the way this consequently channels back following those similar shapes and stages [11].

The properly travelled but narrow road portrayed by relative and typological techniques contributes a number of legal regulations to the social scientist's instrument. Nevertheless, assuming contrast is to be efficient, this cannot continue on the foundation of theoretically unreported selections regarding cases for contrast or the particular indicators that are unconnected for evaluation. Earlier conceptual work regarding these topics is vital if relative methodologies are to be created other than by chance important outcomes. This primarily implies that the people demand to have a level of conceptual clarification or insight regarding the questions within evaluation in appropriate contrast to continue in an approach that illustrates consequent thoughts if distinct empirical conditions are carried into connective valuable one another. The city granted its basis in clustering. This condensed institutional and political layering creates problems that are particular to the urban sphere both as an element of scientific investigation and as a range of human political and economic living. This is the reason advocates of *cityism* are incorrect in the definition of the city as no portion greater than an ideological fallacy [11].

It is intended to organise the pattern and shape of factual probing cities induced through the abnormal inclinations in the recent urban theory that can be identified again to be an unimportant belief of several current analysts in the capability of summarised philosophical thoughts. The people cannot be denied philosophical thoughts about the endeavour of urban theorists. The people are merely conscious of how essential philosophically founded significance and clearness are to feasible social analysis. The people's interest is concentrated typically on the poor control of post structuralist philosophy in urban academics. The people focus on the excessive interpreting framework that post structuralism licences and the inclination to force out analytically centred forms of social and particularly economic investigations that advocate a conceptually unproductive investigation for specificity and localism. The ontologies of linearity supported by post-structural theory are similarly destroying urban academics, particularly in the refusal of variable angles to the extent in an approach that efficiently moves the city aside as an arranged socio-geographic subject [11].

The model has a great approach in the common equilibrium estates. Generally, input and output prices are specified internally and consequently relationships of supply and demand are important for resource provision. Neoclassical productivity roles are considered and price-responding needs and incorporated household arrangements are emphasised. A current equilibrium is strived for, containing factors between and across sectors, reducing the level of payoff as well as profits variations, under the condition that variety restricts. Maximisation at the micro-economic stage is implemented in firms and households using a Walrasian tatonnement process, independently optimising the payoffs and utilities and consequently signifying an effective provision of economic resources [12].

3. Urbanization model

The urbanization model is synchronised with the urban principle. Urban citizens are hired in the modern industry, gaining a revenue of y per duration. Rural citizens are recruited in a conventional agricultural industry and gain a revenue of $y_A < y$ ($y_A =$ year of assessment). Currently, unemployment is not considered available in any industry. Agricultural land obtains a tenant of r_A . Within the presumption that is comfortable, the residential area is built with land solely. The price of the

residential area exposed by rural citizens is merely r_A . Urban land, notably housing prices, is specified referring to the common model. In this model, locational equilibrium demands that customers residing in distinct portions of the city attain a similar utility stage regardless of dissimilarities in transportation cost per mile: x signifies radius length from a dwelling to the midpoint of the city and r implies urban land tenant; the budget restriction of a representative customer is $c + rq + tx = y$ [13].

The theory of network, notably information, is made up of the community and regulation theory because of a recent method in the sociology of the city, which is typically categorised by leaving “ideological” ideas of urban and urbanism in the viewpoint. Furthermore, with specific shortcomings and problems in the field of social sciences, the urban and urbanism concepts propose a high probability for important analyses of social relations, processes and manifestations that categorise the spatial unit known as the city. The key point is the conclusive deterministic feature of the capitalist style of productivity, provision and density of surplus value as well as gathering and enrichment of capital. Referring to the traditional realisation, a city is every urban region with accommodation comprising paved streets, squares and city parts, parks, government and infrastructure as well as educational and health organisation buildings, banks, media, religion facilities, shopping malls, theatrical institutions, museums and so forth. The lack of rural, clearly agricultural productivity is a vital feature of this type of accommodation. Nevertheless, the duality of urban and rural is fairly arguable as well as particularly insufficient for a scientific probe into the idea of city. Furthermore, one matter in theories founded on this duality, because the scholar is idealised, is that each of the relevancies rests somewhat directly or indirectly in proving the current state of capitalism [14].

It is possible to define various villages in the Alps as urbanised accommodation, due to a large quantity of the preceding elements that specify an urban region. Whereas from another standpoint, there are various accommodations formally called cities or portions of cities, notably suburbs and so forth, which have both urban and rural features and so cannot be regarded as urbanised due to various portions or elements of agriculture. Each of them is exactly the rural region and accommodation in the context of various city regions. Various types of suburbs can be identified particularly in post-socialist states. In the case of the regional agency of post-socialist states, one can possibly remark that nearly all of these agencies experience specific transformations in the organisational sections in the past 20 years, whereas the stage and kind of the local autonomy varied from one another. A modest example is Poland, which is a state with the biggest region of all post-socialist states excluding Russia and was founded on the transformation from 1999. The region was fragmented into 16 counties, from the 49 counties that existed before then. The counties comprised regions of cities and towns, whereas the capital and other cities had no particular meaning as a particular regional unit [14].

Occurrence in post-socialist states’ regional agencies supports the suitability of regarding a city as a particular distinguishing regional unit with personal political ability and economic activity. In the majority of cases, the matter was a specific duplication of the arrangement of the developed western capitalist states, with the implementation of the neoliberal model of social praxis having a significant function. The shift from the socialist to the capitalist community has unavoidably resulted in the transition of an organisational unit and rearrangement of the ties between distinct stages of political ability. The difficulties of each regional transformation and the importance of each regional shift created a beneficial database for interpretation and analysis. The problem is founded on the probabilities of sustaining these difficult arrangements based on the supremacy of the largest cities notably comprising the capitals, which are regarded as the midpoints of the density of surplus value [14].

Specified world resource restrictions, for instance China's urbanization, cannot and should not implement the advancement model portrayed by the United States of America or model A as it is known as and the model of stagnation as well as advancement regarded as model B. China needs to comply with the Scientific Outlook on Development as an urbanization model, referred to as model C. Every state has an opportunity for urbanization due to the process of urbanization and the configuration of cities as well as the main infrastructure installed; however, it is difficult to create large transformations. It is frequently complex for advancing states to avoid the inclination of model A. In the beginning of the 1990s, Western states supplied a one-size-fits-all economic transformation and support program to Latin American states via the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. These states executed the Washington Consensus, which applied the notions of model A. The major plans comprised weakening authorities' rule and influence, accelerating the advancement of cities, lessening social expenditures and fostering privatisation. The de-growth project is not feasible because of the notion of model B. First, this does not address the desire or the demand for capital. This led to an increase in a greater instability of advancement among affluent and impoverished states as well as among affluent and impoverished citizens. Supplying social protection was economically unsuccessful. The scale of high-quality manpower declined. Consequently, the economic crisis was expected to deteriorate further. This is due to the source of rapidly increasing disparity in the capital's constant pursuit of profits [15].

Second, the theories demand that economic abilities leave the conventional monopolistic energy sector and style of productivity that contribute to affluence in the long term. Evidently, if all the main developing states grow using model A, not only expected food and resources, but transportation will be incapable to meet the resulting demands. Nevertheless, the vital view in model B or the de-growth project rests in reducing all the constraints on the motion of capital with urbanization, motorisation and industrialisation contributing negative outcomes and replacing democratic activity with the choice of capital. The small income group is reported to be accepted in poverty and focused on religion and to stimulate neglected to the affluent life of the wealthy strata. This was expected in the end to reach the objective of the capitalist democracy in developing states. The city was expected to broaden the range of productivity. The first example of this was the dispersing of the subprime lending downturn beginning from the United States of America. Capital was expected to increase labour production and resource tenancy to the highest scale possible and this was expected to lead to areas containing larger earnings or capital. The harmful effect in the challenge of survival of the fittest was expected to unavoidably strengthen in a community created on the basis of the doctrine of the motion of capital [15].

Model C attempts to enhance the livelihood of the public and facilitate social stability instead of seeking earnings with capital. Specified thoughts need to yield the radical objective and catalyst of social productivity actions. This implies that a recent policy expected to be applied will have a greater human focus and maintenance of intergenerational equality in the agency of economic productivity and the dispersion of social affluence. There are several types of visible consuming: one-shot consuming and excess consuming, which is expected to be substituted by modest consuming. The consumerist culture that has affected modern community is expected to be aligned slowly and dominated by conventional benefits of conserving and usefulness. The recent social contract for resource usability of consumption but not depletion is expected to slowly equilibrate with the shortcomings of the conventional buying and selling market transaction model. An upgrading economy promoting reuse is expected to occur, which is exercised during the process of productivity, consuming, recycling and renewal among the producer and the customer. The process of urbanization, which is necessary for sufficient

security, requires the supply of non-renewable resources with positive externalities and excellent conventional cultural as well as economic models; for instance, species variety, conventional agricultural farming techniques, natural geomorphologic characteristics, historical and society characteristics and cultural inheritance. The consciousness of modern eco-civilisation is expected to be activated widely, followed by the ancient ecological viewpoint of the harmony of human beings and heaven as well as to be expected in the invention of this field [15].

Model C is a recent kind of urbanization model that, within the notion of maintaining advancement, produces complete consumption of high efficacy in the market mechanism while being capable to remunerate the negative impacts at a small cost. This recent model rejects and exceeds model A and model B. This is a significant revolution in the fields of economy, politics and community. China has political parties and a state administration arrangement that do not have their own concerns. Various political parties in the West agree that if a recent energy revolution is to take place in the world, this can lead to a quickly developing China. This is due to the majority of Western states not having the legislative unit that possesses the ability to make decisions and the executive unit that possesses the power to implement without the influence of external interest groups. In China, the Communist Party of China (CPC), the ruling party, regards questions and implements work from the vital earliest limiting point of accomplishing, sustaining and growing the concerns of the citizens. This type of disconnected position allows the CPC to assume the obligation of starting and advancing the recent energy revolution and the transition of the model of urban advancement [15].

The next 15–20 years are expected to be a constant advancement period for China's urbanization. The present public possession arrangement of urban and rural land needs to be maintained and enhanced. Rule and command need to be reinforced in urban and rural planning to facilitate the approach for urbanization. China is currently assisting with the urbanization of 21% of the global inhabitants with merely 7% of the global productive land. This shows the large amount of capital needed to capitalise land resources for the quick advancement of urbanization. High interest needs to be allocated to protection and conservation of farmland and an urban advancement strategy of denseness and variety needs to be executed persistently. The drawback affected by economic globalisation needs to be resisted and modern industrialisation should be facilitated provided that production of a recent hidden agenda for human resources, allocations and technology has emerged rapidly. Cities of developing states are exposed to the threat of becoming deprived. The aim is to accelerate the advancement of a recent type of industrialisation in which human capital and information technology are used to shape the recent hidden agenda of urbanization. Primarily, greater investment demands should be produced in science and technology. Foreign scientific and technological invention groups and overseas Chinese scientific and technological staff will be introduced on a large scale. This need, together with considerable employment advantages as well as good livelihood and working conditions, will create situations for advancement and growth of national innovational capability [15].

To evaluate the quality of urban development and demographic transformation as well as the importance for economic advancement, it is essential to clarify a theoretical model, especially if empirical analysis is able to explain the urbanization principle by evaluating the prospect and exhibiting related strategy choices. This new model was set up as highly analytical which the model can examine urban growth and demographic change as possible. Simultaneously territorial, sectoral and household particulars were eradicated from the model. Specified particulars can contribute to "realism" in human reasoning and this was expected to create a small analytical overview. The researchers have predetermined the model as empirically applicable.

At each stage in the model development, comprehensive consumption information was accumulated by the World Bank, the United Nations and national authorities and from various econometric research from developing states. The model was formulated to analyse a small earning rising economy that drops across the micro-state classification. The latter refers to a smaller land area, inhabitants or economic market, and that the state is a price player in global markets. The state must not be significant in export markets that it can materially control global prices [12].

Considering this premise, states with basic output exports that are significant in the domestic economy, and which comprise a significant share of global consumption, for instance oil, copper and tin, cannot be properly represented by this model. The model should be used to provide further ideas for the common problems in advancement economies, notably the sources of development and structural transformation, the factors of physical and human capital gathering, the implication of development on the dispersion of earning, the function of technological advancement, et cetera. The model has also been formulated to provide solutions for problems that are different from traditional, notably the function of energy imports, the factors of land consumption, the clarification for the growth in urban land prices, the effect of housing market conduct, the function of spatially non-marketable supplies on migration and others. Furthermore, the model has been formulated for accomplishing strategy “counterfactuals” and as a consequence, various authorities’ strategy measurements have been included in the framework [12].

One can differentiate between marketable and non-marketable supplies; marketable comprising several destination of particular supplies that available food, drinks, petrol and so forth. This is probably the first, multi-sectoral framework to acknowledge non-marketable supplies but this is the first spatial dichotomous framework that concurrently highlights the significance of non-marketable supplies as a control on migration attitude. The existence of non-marketable supplies was an outcome in the urban rural cost of livelihood variations. Because migrants move in reaction to enhancements in projected profits altered for cost of livelihood variations, non-marketable supplies can maintain a significant effect on the level of urban development. For instance, quick urban development is expected to increase the comparative shortage of housing and supplies because of the short-term growth in tenants and the long-term growth in land tenants. As a consequence, the city is expected to be reasonably less attractive to prospective migrants. Moreover, recent house construction and social overheads function to lessen the level of generative capital gathering in the city and consequently decrease the level of development of employment in the modern urban industry, thus decreasing the attractiveness of the city. Urban development has integrated in this counteractive ability, which can create history. Whereas the development and advancement theory has yielded important improvements in implementing labour diversity towards this notion, a symmetric remediation of capital is seldom standard. Capital has multi-industry consumptions, and commonly capital is considered to be flexible. Nevertheless, this primarily signifies a migration standard. Our model clearly faces a portfolio of diversity of capital stocks comprising first generative traditional capital, notably plant and machinery; second, unproductive capital in dwelling arrangements, namely housing, and third, human capital notably training and skills gathering [12].

Capital stocks consisting productive conventional capital, unproductive capital, and human capital are financed out of a standard savings group and under the condition that restriction of capital market segmentation and recent investment is based on the largest yield. Components of portfolio selection are consequently addressed in an easy framework regardless of the financial assets. Furthermore, the economy’s important provision of saving among generative and unproductive consumptions follows conventional neoclassical principles, excluding the agencies

facts of the undeveloped Third World capital market restricting that provision. These capital market restrictions comprise [12]:

- a. The lack of a mortgage meaning that the whole housing cost needs to be self-financed.
- b. The lack of the household borrowings market meaning that private investment in human capital is eradicated.
- c. Demographic constraints on the stock of prospective trainable labour, consequently preventing firms' investment in human capital and facilitating payoff to human capital to continue.
- d. The stagnation of physical capital once adopted, facilitating this for the level of yield variations throughout industries to remain constant for long periods of time.

These capital-market shortcomings cause extensive problems for authorities' strategy to eradicate ineffective resource provisions and market failings typically caused by the destabilising effect of productive development. This framework permits humans to disintegrate the sources of the market failings and to assess the advantages of the authorities' treatment. Generally, advancement models involve very easy standards for land consumption, which are limited to agricultural productivity and clarify the development as external. This intervention is suitable for several aims but this is objectionable in a framework with a focus on urban development and urban drawbacks. In this framework, maximal land consumption is openly faced. In spite of the fact that people do not utilise the urban economist's land-gradient role, the people want clarification of the level of urban sprawl on farmland at the city's profit. This urban land consumption standard has significant impacts. Urban development is expected to be cheaper than the price of urban land mostly because of the standards for dwelling arrangements and social overheads. Because the land is static, this shares similar features to non-marketable supplies [12].

Therefore, originating internally specified land consumption and tenants is an important control of the sectoral cost of livelihood dissimilarities with an increasing effect on rural urban migration and city development. In particular, the model addresses two further urban drawbacks: first, the pressure between increasing urban inhabitants' concentrations and suburbanization. Secondly, the remarkable growth in urban land values is broadly examined in the Third World. The demographic model is expected to be elaborated on regarding urban and rural age timetables of mortality, fertility and migration. The demographic model specifies urban and rural manpower distributions whereas the economic model specifies manpower demands as well as the equilibrating mechanism for combining demands with distributions over time. Demography emerges specifically in a particular direction: (a) from the control on the stage of need and the configuration particularly via housing standards; (b) by specifying manpower development, notably age; (c) by the effect on territorial accommodation trends and land consumption; and (d) by altering the dispersion and availability of recent investment or capital creation via the urban rural remittance mechanism. Inhabitant development ranges are specified as originating externally due to the stability of the variety of demography timetables. In spite of the fact that accumulations in inhabitants' development can transform because of inter-sectoral migration [12].

The ultimate differentiating characteristic of the framework is the ability to stimulate the advancement and selection of standards. The framework is not formulated to represent the conduct of a particular small earning state. A case study method is more suitable to this. Specifically, the aim has been to record the

important characteristics of a Third World community includes developing and underdeveloped countries as well as states that are price takers in international markets (nearly 50 states accomplish this standard). This is a framework that represents Third World states. In growing the theoretical standards, the people have profited importantly from the outcomes of comprehensive empirical analysis from a sample of 22 specified states. This study used data from the World Bank, the United Nations, the International Labour Office, state studies, and the common economics publication. The people perceived that theorising accomplishes sensitivity to empirical fact. Furthermore, a framework of theoretical method that cannot be scientifically performed is not widely used. In several examples, the theoretical standards have been subjected to this restriction. The current literature concentrates on modelling urbanization, demographic transformation and economic development [12].

One or more historic measurements indicate traditionally related conditions that are expected to be diversified and the arising outcomes have been analysed. People want to reside in rural areas because of a strategy that is contrary to facts. Examples of these strategies that are contrary to facts are as follows [12]:

- a. Government strategy in settlers' accommodations. Various states have worked to restrict the scale of urban settlers' accommodation, perhaps by the aggressive destruction of poor dwelling zones. The effect of specified strategies can be recorded in the model in a variety of approaches.
- b. Government education strategy. The demographic framework is expected to be prepared to address transformations in government educational strategy via the effect not on the out-of-school level but on the levels of entry towards the formal education system. Over a disparity, the specified strategy is expected to have an effect on the stock of urban trainable labour and consequently the level of enhancement in the stock of incompetent working class. This need controls immigration levels and urbanization.
- c. Government and union strategy into the salary disparity among modern and informal supply industries. The economic framework implies a nominal salary disparity among modern industry working class and the informal urban supply industry. Variants in this disparity can be examined in the framework and this effect on the dispersion of income, migration and urbanization assessed.
- d. Energy shortage and the Organisation for Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). Imported raw goods include fuel, and the price of this import is originating externally, as specified in global markets. Transformations in the price of specified imports can be examined in the framework and especially, the control on the internal price arrangement, the level of urbanization, development and dispersion.
- e. Urban property taxes. Very modest Third World economies have urban property taxes, but deliberation across the consumption should increase particularly in the case of increasing land shortage, significant capital earnings in land, and the existence of unused lots in condensed urban midpoints. The framework permits the analysis of the effect of specified strategies on urbanization, tenants and earning dispersion.
- f. Inhabitants' strategy. The demographic framework will address mortality and fertility as exogenous variables under the condition that variations across areas and consequently under the condition that variations accumulate as urbanization progresses. The current framework can investigate several of the economic effects of

the government inhabitant strategy. This work is expected to be particularly useful in determining the effect of increasing inhabitants on Third World urbanization.

- g. Government strategy into financial organisations and the effect on migrants' remittances. Urban migrant remittances, notably as a share of earning to rural households, originate externally in the framework. The remittance level is expected to be controlled by the accessibility of financial organisations to foster transmittal. The framework is prepared to search for the effect of specified transformations on the arrangement of need and other important endogenous variables in the arrangement, particularly migration and urbanization.
- h. Foreign assistance and government behaviour into saving self-sufficiency. Several states are accepting a further distorted perception of foreign support and multinationals' investment. Because personal and public foreign capital is granted exogenously in the framework, the people can readily analyse the effect of decreases in these assistance packages. The people can analyse the magnitude to which domestic investment reacts to transformations in foreign assistance.
- i. The function of the export tax and import duty. The common stability effect of export tax and import duty strategies can be simply examined in the framework. Endogenous variables of concern comprise dispersion and the rural emigration level from agriculture.

The people economy comprises eight industries, all of which create a single homogenous good or product. These industries have a particular spatial position, urban or rural, and create marketable and non-marketable goods. The differentiation between marketable and non-marketable is important to the cost of livelihood variations between areas and therefore possibly significant to the migration process and to urbanization. The marketable and non-marketable differentiation is related to the international transaction and specialisation selections open to the economy. During the time that the incorporation of non-marketable supply activities is well-known in the publication of calculable common stability frameworks, the researcher experienced that particularly significant in the comprehension of the development disparity, urbanization process still have not obtained the focus accordingly. There are two goods generating industries in the framework, notably manufacturer and basic outputs, both of which are marketable internationally and inter-regionally. The empirical counterparts are the manufacturers industry M comprises both mining and manufacturing because these industries have widely comparative technological features [12].

The basic output industry A comprises agriculture, forestry and fishing. The M industry is an urban activity whereas the A industry is rural. No attempt has been made in the document entitled "Modeling urbanization and economic growth" to differentiate between the livelihood and commercialised farming industries, in spite of the results accomplished in case study applications of the framework. Delivery industry activities are emphasised in the framework, particularly those that are not marketable between places. There are six supply industry activities. The modern capital and skill intensive supply industry (KS) includes, as the empirical counterpart, the communication of electricity, gas, water, transportation, communications, protection, education, other government supplies and building of urban high cost housing stocks. Whereas the output of the KS industry cannot be marketed internationally, this can be marketed inter-regionally. This is particular to urban places and is an important activity providing the ultimate need that should be produced by the government industry. Specified need situations are discussed further below. The KS industry can be projected to be one of the industries causing

development in the growing economy, a characteristic frequently disregarded in advancement frameworks. There is only one specified housing activity in the rural industry (H, RS) because housing stocks have a primarily small cost with a labour-intensive arrangement. The framework is expected to grow to allow housing tenants to be fewer in rural regions, consequently supplying the farm industry with a cost of livelihood benefit. Comparatively low-wage rural working classes possibly generate consequences. However, high location tenants connected to insufficient urban land are expected to strengthen the renting variation [12].

There are two housing activities in the urban industry, notably: a larger cost housing industry (H, KS) built by modern, comparatively capital-intensive techniques and utilised by larger earning communities; and a lower cost housing industry (H, US) built by conventional working class using intensive techniques and therefore producing lower quality housing for the urban poor tenants. Connectivity of this small cost housing, the government's behaviour towards settler accommodation, and therefore the stage of urban tenants expected number are significant in migration decisions in the framework. There is a continuum of housing units in terms of quality. The duality integrated in the framework signifies a significant element of that continuum, the varying existence of building technology and the distinct costs signified. Because housing signifies the highest significant asset in the household's portfolio and is responsible for the majority of the household's investment activity, the people perceive this as significant to explain the existence, particularly in the urban region, of migration and asset gathering, associated with housing, possibly more significant to the process of advancement and structural transformation [12].

Technological situations and factor inputs indicate in the same way as all model of economic dichotomy, other models highlighted productivity dichotomy. Therefore, the eight sectoral activities display distinct levels of technical advancement, factor intensity, distributional characteristics and alternation elasticity. This is considered when the productivity process in all industries, notably excluding rural housing, can be explained by a constant, twice distinguishable, single valued role. Conventional physical capital (K_i) is utilised in agriculture, manufacturing and the modern delivery industry, in spite of the fact that this is particular to a specified industry once adopted. Unskilled labour (L_i) is applied in all industries excluding housing, and is mobile, under the condition that migration regulations are discussed later. Skilled labour (S_i) is used in the M and KS industries only, whereas land, R , is applied as an input in both agriculture and urban housing. These four factors of productivity are homogeneous. Productivity is under the condition that continuous payoffs to measure and decrease marginal levels of alternation are considered to predominate. Shared outputs are isolated and exogenous economies and diseconomies are not available. This considers that factors that increase technical transformation utilise capital, skills and labour but not land. Therefore, every industry is similar to a big firm or sector obtaining a productivity role and displaying maximal conduct [12].

Specified conduct signifies cost reduction, which concerns inputs and income optimisation regarding outputs. The elasticity of change between capital and skilled workers is expected to be significantly smaller than between incompetent workers and composite capital, therefore implying the capital, notably skill complementarity hypothesis. The impact of this hypothesis is that quick physical capital gathering in the modern industry leads to an increase in the need for skilled workers. Aggregation tends to multiply income disparity in the framework. The framework permits domestic intermediate inputs, in spite of the fact that this is perceived as being of low significance. The output of conventional supply industries is considered as only fulfilling the ultimate need, a sensible premise controlled by domestic, personal supplies and highly worker intensive small cost housing building. These two industries do not enter into the inter-sectoral productivity movements. The identical is true of

housing supplies, or the tenants' flow produced by housing stocks. The encouragement for the increase of the persisting inter-sectoral productivity movements is to acknowledge the direct and indirect output combined with transformations caused by need or supplying transformations in a specified industry [12].

One of the important concerns is to calculate patterns in the dispersion of revenue and profits. By concentrating on direct factor specifications only, and specified factor intensity dissimilarity throughout industries, overestimations cause transformations in factor needs if these direct factor specifications caused by the input output connections are disregarded. Prices of manufactured and agricultural commodities are specified externally by the bond controls of global market prices and the state's commercial strategy. Large supplies of skilled and unskilled workers are externally granted at every point in time in the static framework. This is not true across time because skills are increased internally and unskilled workers lessen in reaction to long-term demographic abilities. In spite of the fact that total worker supplies are granted by preceding history in the static model, this is not granted for the dispersion of the manpower across space and throughout industries. The following analysis of the migration attitude is integrated in the model that specifies worker provision. The current analysis is expected to concentrate on worker needs and salary determination in the unavailability of migration abilities. This framework is able to produce an endogenous profits arrangement in four attributes: rural incompetent profits, urban conventional industry incompetent profits, modern industry incompetent profits, and skilled profit. The salary dispersed across these occupation classifications is expected to be specified by the endogenous abilities of market needs, supplying and the migration process. The velocity of urbanization is expected to be specified by a similar set of abilities [12].

Efficacy factors are allocated to the marginal value outputs utilising not only the worker but also the physical capital. Capital immobility after tax levels of return demand are not equal among industries. Once investment is inputted to a specified industry and utilised to increase the capital stock, the recent stock of capital emerges specific to that productivity activity. Consequently, every economic activity that assists in enhancing the level of payoff in one industry, comparative to another, is expected to produce a level of payoff variations, a disequilibrium characteristic of the majority of growing economies and this is frequently termed as market downfall. The present combination of generative investment commodities can be given publicly among industries. Private investors and government agencies are considered to give present savings, notably disregarding allocated monies for housing investment to decrease the level of return variations. The levels of payoff variations decrease, but are not only the net payoffs on prevailing capital, because these are specified typically by the sectoral capital stocks that are fixed in the present [12].

Private and public entities shape the outlook of forecasted levels of payoff based on investments that are expected to function to increase sectoral capital stocks in the future. Therefore, the variations decreased by present investment provision decisions are known as ex ante net or after tax levels of payoff or quasi-rents. This is particularly the case when the present net investment combination is inadequate to equalise these quasi tenants and variations among ex post levels of payoff remain constant or grow over time. Nevertheless, various readers prefer to view additional proof of capital market segmentation and inefficient financial intermediation adopted into the framework. Capital market shortcomings in the skill attainment process are currently in this framework; the lack of a mortgage market; and the immobility of present stocks of physical or generative capital. Both contribute to market remediation restrictions. Each of these capital market characteristics can create the related stylised information of Third World advancement, continual level of payoff variations, industries deprived for funds, large dependency on self-produced

funds, high reinvestment levels, narrow inter-sectoral savings movements and an urban investment inequity. Growing government spending can be fulfilled in this framework only by the enhancement of the *KS* industry, for instance, education, health, protection, communications. Increases in the *KS*-industry's output signifies enhancement in investment specifications, for instance, the construction of school buildings, medical amenities, harbours, airports and roads [12].

By definition, specified investment is urban founded. There are other abilities in this framework that can create the situation of the rural industry deprived for funds. In the following matter, this percentage level is expected to be interpreted as the average net, notably after taxes, excluding devaluation specifications level of payoff to generate physical capital. The significance of a skilled manpower constraint relies on the reaction of skill gathering to need situations. Skill creation levels are dependent on three abilities in the standard: the stock of trainable urban worker, the comparative shortage of skills (calculated by the skill premium that provides incentives for training) and the stage of government spending on formal education that controls the freedom from difficulty with which trainable workers can be transformed into skilled workers. Several Third World economies have an oversupply of formal school graduates. The standard that complies is configured for a different of Third World situation, because the framework can produce affluence or shortage of those formally schooled. In every case, the stock of trainable workers is expected to be restricted to urban employees only. Therefore, rural employees with no educational training should first relocate to urban regions prior to being regarded for training. This supplies an incentive to relocate. Education is more reachable in the city. The head of the household can relocate to protect the education of the children, notably a reason possibly mistermmed as places of entertainment in a city [12].

The training is to be financed by the sectors that employ skilled workers because of inadequate funds signified by capital market shortcomings, or because of the lack of efficient private schooling sector or both. Individuals cannot earn connectivity to training unless selected for specified training by firms that deem this beneficial to create specified investments. The entire cost of the training is, consequently, supported by the sectors instead of the individual. Notably, trainees accept the time cost of training, but only in discontinued entertainment. Moreover, the people supposed dealing the two sectors as if in secret agreement on the training investments, and none sector attempts to acquire a free ride merely by recruiting recently skilled employees follows the other sector that has yielded the essential investments. Both sectors invest in training, if beneficial. These industries collectively share the profits of that investment. The processes encompass first identifying the payoffs to investment in training, notably the need for skills, and second identifying the costs of training, notably the supplying of skills, and third, identifying the supplying of trained employees [12].

The training activity can be priced and therefore the total investment standard calculated. These investment standards emerge based on the present saving pool. The economy consequently collects three types of long-term assets, notably physical capital, housing and skills. The *KS* industry depends largely on skilled employees selected directly from the formal education industry, notably clerks, bureaucrats, teachers and doctors, whereas the *M* sector commonly depends on working class employees that obtain skills through employment training. Nevertheless, the reduction is not completely incompatible. Public education is specified to some extent by authorities' investment decisions, and consequently the formal education utilising *KS* industry can be perceived in a similar light as the *M* industry. Substantial training can be used in authorities' activity to transform the formally educated student to an employee of more immediate consumption. Therefore, the training activity has another cost to the companies because unskilled urban manpower is reduced in value by the training activity [12].

The unskilled worker shortage can affect the short-term growth in costs as a consequence. To the degree that rural worker supplies are elastic, the urban unskilled worker shortage is not likely to remain for the longer term. The framework of skills gathering exhibited to this level is characterized by one of companies investing in vocationally focused training based on the revenue optimising calculation, with the function of an exogenously specified cost of training roles. Whereas this model does not represent the cost role, transformations in this can importantly control the level of skill gathering. These transformations are expected to originate typically from authorities' education strategies. The formal education arrangement is not manifestly designed in the economy. Education is created across the KS industry, together with several other authorities and private suppliers. Nevertheless, an accumulation does not prevent an investigation of the effect of authorities' education strategies that can be portrayed in the framework by changing the cost of the training role. For easiness, regard the case containing the share of education in the government's budget as continuous, and two option strategies are examined. There are two opposing consumptions to which land stocks can be placed in the framework, notably: farming and urban dwelling land places. One can predict that urban dwelling places comprise, in fixed fraction, factor place specifications and public land, notably parks, roads and schools [12].

The fixed fraction premise is expected to simplify the analysis substantially because the people can concentrate solely on the need for dwelling places. Moreover, one can predict the wasteland available in the rural region. This wasteland has no opposing consumption and has no integral place value, but can be utilised for rural housing building. In the real world, wasteland can be utilised for both urban and agricultural enhancement via drainage, remediation and filling. These activities encompass investment, and to face land gathering endogenously demands the obvious initiation of urban and rural land supplying roles, evidently challenging to gather investment for and challenging with other investments in housing, training and physical gathering. The urban housing market is important to migration attitude and therefore to the analysis of the urbanization process. One of the restrictions on urban development in the Third World is the accessibility and cost of urban housing, because the housing is for the informal, worker intensive, owner resident type of settler accommodation common in rapidly broadening Third World cities or more considerable residential units built by capital intensive methods and tenancy in a formal housing market. Every important framework of urbanization needs to accept this probable source of restrictions to urban development [12].

Restrictions can hold a variety of forms, but the people especially concentrate on two restrictions. The price for the sale of farm produce direct from the producer does not increase with closeness to urban markets and consequently farmland does not display a tenant gradient signifying specified diversity. Likewise, closeness to an important commercial district does not provide all of the benefits generally assumed in traditional urban location theory, notably savings in transport costs and commuter periods. There is, consequently, no urban tenant gradient. Because urban land is uniform in this meaning, only the extra-marginal tenant on the periphery of the city aspects in identifying land consumption. The aspects are capital increases, skills increased via training, inhabitants' development expanding the manpower and dwellings housing stocks, and the stock of land developing exogenously, and evidently at comparatively small levels. The premise is that comparative tenants are expected to grow, over time, except technological transformation functions to save on land. Assuming that one concentrates merely on land during the agricultural consumption, furthermore, technological transformation leads to savings on land continuously from the agricultural industry decreases in comparative scale with profitable economic development [12].

This framework manifestly exposes an additional land consumption, notably urban dwelling place demands and because profitable economic development signifies quick urbanization, the land saving characteristics of the clear development framework are no longer related. Whereas this urban housing productivity role standard includes the probability of large arrangements for land, notably ensuring that urban concentrations are expected to grow with the increase of land tenants, quick urbanization signifies a comparatively and exceedingly eager need for land and the sprawl of farmland at the cities' margins. Furthermore, there are factors in agriculture that are expected to change the need for farmland, for instance the increasing price of foodstuffs and the gathering of agricultural capital. Specified domestic demand and supply situations, exceeding supplies of the basic output reported on global markets and exceeding needs for manufactured commodities can be fulfilled in a similar style. This method concentrates solely on the net trade of both kinds of goods [12].

The framework does not face gross trade connections, comprising dynamic transformations in the combination of good trade across these export and import classifications. Therefore, whereas the framework is completely capable of describing the net effect of dynamic relative benefit, this cannot address every specialisation in the export of worker intensive commodities for more capital versus skill intensive producer durables. The authorities have two sources of income in this framework, notably: endogenously specified taxes and exogenous stages of net foreign assistance as well as private foreign capital. Private foreign capital is considered to move via authorities' mediums. This income shapes the overall authority budget restriction that is mostly seen in building irrigation projects, roads, schools and public constructions. Reporting on the exemption of present education spending, the empirical counterpart of these two disbursement classifications are the government's capital and present budgets respectively [12].

The incorporation of education in authority saving signifies a discontinuity with the traditional intervention of authority in most progress and advancement frameworks. Generally, the authority is designed to ensure that this consuming does not directly provide to household earning or utility and does not produce forthcoming output enhancement. Whereas this is a beneficial generalisation, particularly acknowledging the problem of estimating and allocating public commodities to consumption units, this will not be adequately measured in this framework. Education spending can generate consuming utility to the beneficiaries, but in this framework, it can have an effect on future earnings as well. This fact is clearly embodied in this framework because skills are generated by training investments and these strive with different methods of aggregation. It appears suitable, consequently, to rename this classification of authority spending as saving. Whereas other classifications of authority spending can meet requirements, for instance health spending, this method can be regarded as a partial correction of an anti-development inequity characterised by most advancement frameworks. Accumulated saving specifies aggregation probabilities in this framework and this savings pool is produced by three sources: maintained after tax corporate and company earnings, government saving, and household saving. Foreign saving functions to increase authority resources and therefore indirectly turns into an element of authority saving. There are three opposing needs on this savings pool: investment in physical capital, generative investment in human capital or training, and investment in unproductive housing [12].

Because the formal mortgage market is insufficiently grown or non-existent in several of the Third World countries, none of the three private housing industries (rural, urban settler accommodation, and urban luxurious housing) are capable of protected exogenous finance to fulfil investment specifications. Housing investment is consequently self-financed by every household industry independent of other excess producing industries. This requirement eradicates and simultaneously accepts the likelihood of intra-sectoral housing financial movements. For instance, fathers possibly

loan to sons but intermediate class skilled households cannot loan to impoverished unskilled households. Specific industries can be deprived of housing finance, whereas others have an excess that adds to the national savings pool for generative aggregation or training investment. Within situations of quick inhabitants' development, it is likely that household savings are expected to be completely disabled by housing investment specifications. This demographic load is strengthened in this framework by quick levels of urbanization. This complies with the reality that housing is particular in position. Notably migration of a balance accumulation of inhabitants demands recent housing building in the obtaining areas and broad net investment economy [12].

Moreover, the cost of livelihood modification is integrated in the framework's migration role. Rapid migration and urbanization can be prevented by the urban housing specifications that movement of these inhabitants signify. An urban housing investment shortage with outcome in growth in urban tenants can consequently reduce migration. Additionally, enhanced urban housing investment functions to hinder the aggregation of generative capital, and the level of generative capital aggregation is an important factor of the comparative enhancement of occupation in the modern industries. The three styles of aggregation are explicitly competitive. Skills aggregation to the target levels of payoff are balanced with the economy level on physical aggregation. Physical capital commodities are given throughout the three capital utilising industries to decrease the level of payoff variations. Residential investment is expected to employ household savings only up to the target levels of payoff that are balanced with the economy broad level on physical capital aggregation. There are institutional and technological characteristics that significantly constrain the economy's capability to equalise levels of payoff at the margin. All of the three residential markets (notably rural, urban settler accommodations and formal urban luxurious housing) are deprived of funds because of the lack of an inter-sectoral mortgage market. The immobility of physical capital stocks among industries produces results in physical investment provisions that are inadequate to make equal levels of payoff to capital among *A*, *M* and *KS* industries [12].

The larger the housing specifications, the smaller is the remaining pool accessible for physical capital aggregation and the more likely that present investment provisions are inadequate to make equal sectoral levels of payoff. Moreover, firms' needs for skills can be unfulfilled if the stock of prospective trainable workers is inadequate to fulfil training investment stages, which would make equal levels of payoff viable. Capital market disequilibrium can be a durable characteristic of our economy. Present net investment is equivalent to total gross investment minus depreciation or decrease in price, namely depreciation accepted having the same ratio as the capital stock. Factor saving can accept two shapes. First, a change in the output combination can support one or a cluster of inputs at the spending of others. For instance, the enhancement of the manufacturing industry is expected to increase the growth needs for the two inputs utilised (capital and skills). Otherwise stated, unskilled workers are characterized by broad saved economy by output change. Notably, grouping impacts probably have significant impacts on earning dispersion. This leads to a comparative decrease in the unskilled worker salary and accompanying disparity patterns [12].

To the degree that specified grouping transformations are caused by technical transformation, this can be categorised uniquely as a factor saving technological advancement. Unequal levels of total factor production development support the capital combined with skill intensive industries, therefore causing a change in output to those industries experiencing the comparatively quick levels of cost decrease, and this is expected to be precisely the type of technical advancement that is increasing. The second form of factor saving technological advancement can be examined using the Hicksian concept of neutrality. Technical advancement is indifferent if it leaves the capital worker ratio unchanged at a continuous ratio of factor prices [12].

4. Conclusion

There are many theories regarding urbanization and this paper discusses the urban theories that characterise fundamental statements on advancement of the city. Urban theory has progressed in terms of weight in academic spheres based on the aim of the definition on the occurrence of the city and objectives to supply a common realisation of city living in distinct approaches, concentrating on the vital features of urban living as well as dealing with the urban context. Urban theory can be classified as a subgroup of social theory but the first differentiation that the researcher should report is that urban living is not worldwide and urban drawbacks are a combination of myths and actions. The main urban theories address one or more elements, namely culture, consuming, conflict and society. The urbanization paradigm associated with capitalist or market economies, particularly poverty, is not basically affected by urban processes but by the difficult powers that assist with revenue dispersion in an economy signified by private estate, stable markets and salary working class. Similarly, researchers frequently use urban agencies as units of monitoring in many different statistical practices at the same time as the consumption counties or states have a similar aim, and this simply does not align these practices with the inherently urban definition. The urbanization model pertains to urban citizens that are hired in the modern industry, accumulating a revenue of y per duration. Rural citizens are recruited in a conventional farming industry and obtain a revenue of $y_A < y$ (y_A = year of assessment). Currently, unemployment is not considered available in any industry.

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia, for funding this study under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS), S/O code 13228, and Research and Innovation Management Centre, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, for the administration of this study.


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The Rise of Urbanization

Noraniza Yusoff

Abstract

The rise of urbanization is related to the increased speed of urban transition to the city. Urban transition consists of a variety of elements of transformation close to the urban region. This implies the full transition that occurs if a pre-modern community is changed, for example, how regions' social features have adopted the modern way of life. The process of urbanization is thought to be related to stages of advancement and various researchers claim that, for a state to grow, there is a demand for an enhanced stage of industrialisation due to the modernisation doctrine—there cannot be urbanization without economic development.

Keywords: city, development, factor, peri-urbanization, spatialisation, transition

1. Introduction

Enhanced world trade and urbanization throughout the world is currently impacting numerous large populations [1]. For instance, the rapid speed of Chinese urbanization is typically due to the significant velocity, the three-dimensional elements of the landscape and the related social as well as ecological disruptions. The Chinese multi-millionaire cities, for instance Shanghai, Beijing or Guangzhou, are indications of this mega urbanization. Nevertheless, exceeding these properly studied and well-planned big cities, China provides several examples of different urban forms and processes. The analysis is highly reliant on the approach used to measure the urban inhabitants. The use of census data in statistical assessment causes two kinds of misinterpretations. First, if the inhabitants of the whole of Shi are regarded (i.e., at the district, prefecture and region level), the inhabitants at the district level cities are measured twice (i.e., once as a separate entity and once with the total urban inhabitants of the city). Second, assuming that the urban inhabitants of the city midpoint or city are regarded (i.e., the inhabitants of the whole urban district (*Shiqu*) for the region and prefecture stage cities, as well as the inhabitants of the county for the district stage cities), the inhabitants of the biggest cities will possibly be underestimated, to the extent that the cities condensed urban developed region frequently broadens, exceeding the territories. This restricted by the urban stage city possibly be bigger than the real territories of the developed urban region and the inhabitants of the micro-district stage cities possibly be overestimated [2].

It was found that there is a significant positive connection between natural resource exports and urbanization in a sample of 116 developing nations from 1960 to 2010. In states that are largely reliant on resource exports, urbanization is focused on consuming cities containing the economies that comprise typically of non-marketable supplies. These differ with productivity cities that are further reliant on manufacturing in industrialised states. Consuming cities in resource exporting states tend to not score very well across numerous evaluations of well-being [3].

The rise of urbanization is related with the advancement of the rate of urban transition of the city. Urban transition consists of a variety of elements of transformation close to the urban region. This implies that the full transition is undertaken if the pre-modern community is changed, for instance, how regions' social features have adopted the modern way of life. Urbanization has had an effect at the family scale as a consequence of the consumption of western ideas of family planning. Urbanization has not caused the deterioration of connections between family members and living ancestors. Family-ancestor linkage is powerful in the educated population and it is remarkable that there is a significant connection among grandparents, married children and grandchildren as well as an awareness of possessing a specific ancestor. The majority of families prefer living nearby to ancestors and this has led to family members assisting each other to find employment and mind children. These kinds of trends result in substantial connections and enhanced economic collaboration among family members and their ancestors. The people most impacted by urbanization and modernisation are the educated, the young and the high socio-economic population groups and these groups also have a lower regard for marriage or allocating leisure time. This is due to these affected population groups having a broader view point than people with conventional values. This is not an indication of a shortcoming in family-ancestor connections, but an indication that a change to these components can possibly provide the greatest amount of contact and support to ancestors in their time of need [4].

2. The rise of urbanization

2.1 Urbanization process

Developing states are rapidly urbanising but countries in Africa are slower when contrasted to Asia and Latin America. The process of urbanization is thought to be related with stages of advancement and various researchers claim that, for a state to grow, there is a need for an enhanced stage of industrialisation due to the modernisation doctrine—there cannot be urbanization without economic development. The developed states have accepted this process and refer to this method, and this is what the developing states need to do as well. Increased in the level of industrialization and economic growth is thought to be distinct in the developing states and especially in Africa. The modernisation theory of urbanization does not include developing states that have not accomplished the same economic development as the developed states prior to entering the upper stages of urbanization. This subsequently increases the problem on the way developing states (namely to which whole African states) emerge urbanized and continually to be urbanized. A common assessment, the urbanization index, is growing in popularity for evaluating urbanization in Africa because the conventional assessment for urbanization relies on the factors that every state interprets as urban [5].

This new method was contrasted with the conventional assessment of urbanization to highlight the dissimilarities in the estimation capability of urbanization in Africa. It was reported that social variables of advancement are able to forecast urbanization to a greater degree than the conventional economic variables on which the modernisation theory is based. Furthermore, socioeconomic advancement variables are able to forecast the urbanization index more accurately than the level of urbanization, which is the conventional assessment for urbanization. Even though the usefulness of the modernisation theory has been verified for urbanization in Africa, modification is suggested for the theory [5].

Several anthropologists, sociologists, geographers and historians have remarked that urban transition and existing urban accommodation are the output of a durable evolutionary process. Nevertheless, various researchers have disregarded significant attributes of existing urbanism, particularly in the third world countries. Some citizens prefer to reside in a city containing opportunities for education, employment and better healthcare compared to rural regions with less infrastructure and employment opportunities. Urban living is remarkably significant for people searching for better living conditions as cities have a larger density of supplies. Urban inhabitants have improved their lives faster because of migration from the countryside instead of via internal inhabitants' development [4].

In 1950, only one city, New York, could be categorised as a mega city with ten million populations in New York. The situation has currently transformed significantly. In 1975, the world had three mega cities; in 2000, the amount had increased to seventeen; and in 2025, there are projected to be twenty-six, with several of the cities accomplishing the status of mega city with twenty million populations in 26 mega cities [6].

As a big component of the urbanization process is calculated by the development of prevailing urban regions, the velocity of urbanization signifies the rapid way these regions are rising. If quick urbanization is related to quicker economic development, this means that the clustering advantages on a big city scale are probably bigger than the diseconomies from enhanced overpopulation. Urbanization and economic advancement appear to be changing throughout Indian states over time, but this connection is not a remarkably strong one. From another point of view, the level of urbanization is the speed at which a state urbanises and this is negatively associated with the range of development [7].

Cities are places of invention, culture, inhabitants' variety and encouragement; nevertheless, cities are also places of rising wrongdoing, no personal connection and other drawbacks [8]. Publications on urbanization have increased internationally and nationally with distinct development ranges between the states being evaluated. The development of the urbanization level and urbanization publications in the majority of states has followed the world trend but states such as Germany and Russia were exclusions. Academic output in urbanization education was greatly associated with the urbanization levels of single states and this connection was more obvious in developed states. From one point of view, these rich nations invested more in scientific study and urbanization research. On the other hand, developed states commonly had bigger urbanization levels and were dealing with more intense urban challenges that successively caused scholarly concerns and social interests regarding urbanization [9].

Rural to urban migration and natural development of cities comprises an urbanization pattern that has increased in speed. City development is primarily accelerated by economic advancement and is categorised by a significant change from a mainly agrarian focused economy to one that is controlled by the industrial and supply industry concerning the state's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and manpower. A large number of citizens in cities supply a big and focused customer market to provide with a substantial range of products and services. Cities supply financial ability, holding banks, insurance firms and stock exchanges. Defended by communication networks, these cities are unavoidable cores in international financial movements. Cities obtain political ability; notably capital cities are the dwelling of the state's central government in basically each state, whereas other main cities frequently function as the place for sub-state authorities. Cities are the sphere of social and cultural transformation. The chance for comparative namelessness and the existence of citizens with identical behaviours as well as viewpoints external to

the citizen's affinity clusters and conventional social networks generate growth in dynamics that encourage recent as well as modern thoughts and manifestation [6].

Sustenance demands capital, notably human capital and other capitals. Human capital is made up of workers, skills and knowledge. Natural capital comprises land, water, forests, et cetera. Physical capital includes food stocks, farm animals, machinery, et cetera. Financial capital is money notably savings, loans and credit. Ultimately, social capital is the quality of connections among citizens that assist from neighbours, religion agency, Nongovernmental Organisations (NGOs), political parties and the like. The stability of livelihood is specified by protected and progressing connectivity to these shapes of capital. This contains demand for a specified approach that citizens possibly utilize the growth opportunities of rising the reside both economically and socially. Citizens implement distinct policies that people adjust to ecological, social, economic and political disturbances; for instance, mobile across or among variety of informal accommodations on the foundation of employment chances or housing accessibility [6].

Cities in the post-petroleum world are associated with energy efficacy. As has been explained, energy efficacy is expected to significantly affect the welfare of a city's citizens, and primarily poorer citizens. These are the main challenges that need to be solved in rising a city's energy efficacy. Energy efficacy can be enhanced significantly via transformations in incentive arrangements that transform attitudes associated with industrial processes, household consuming, building construction and consumption, as well as urban shape. Cities typically have greater command of the demand as distributors, due to the supplying aspect being monitored by national scale companies, corporations, et cetera [10].

The Industrial Revolution in Europe in the 18th century and the industrialisation of America starting in the mid-19th century caused quick urbanization in these regions. Factories demanded workers and growth in commercial activities produced the needed changes in the urban regions. Inhabitants' subsequently relocated from the rural regions to the urban regions for employment, which was the path for improved living. Economic development, which is the growth in the value of commodities and supplies created by an economy and the growth in the fraction of total inhabitants filling in urban regions, is related. The growth and the globalisation of the global economy have promoted larger international trade and supplied urban regions with larger functions because of the emergence of the hub for a variety of world economic activities arising in migration to these urban midpoints, which has consequently enhanced world urbanization [5].

In the last two or three decades, this urbanization pattern has been rapid in developing states and, as a generalisation, the faster the level of economic development, the faster the urbanization of the inhabitants. As one of the global rapid rising economies, China has experienced a fast level of urbanization. Examples of their territorial growth strategies are listed below [11]:

1. An advancement policy involving a broad rate of direct and indirect factors impacting the achievement of local companies.
2. More concentration on endogenous assets instead of exogenous investments and transactions.
3. A focus on chance instead of drawback.
4. An aggregate and bargain method to administration, consisting of national, territorial and local authority accompanying other stakeholders, with the central authority carrying a smaller controlling function.

2.2 Spatialisation

Via the process of spatialisation, shift permits capitalism to reach all areas of social living. Nevertheless, this is significantly influenced by urbanization. Commonly the concentration of post-socialist urban scholarship is merely in the way cities are shifting in reaction to the experience to capitalism and to related social as well as politico-economic transformations, causing specific forms of post-socialist urban transition. Nevertheless, this is fairly several urban undergo and participate transition that accepted the practical contours and disciplining ability and by which this creates recent social arrangements and connections. Transform the reason for being of the city. The post-socialist city has emerged as a dividing and divided element and this is accompanied by growing social and economic inequity as well as polarisation at both inter-urban and intra-urban ranges. This is not merely that the principle of the egalitarian re-distribution of wealth was replaced with the neoliberal principle of self-reliance but also that the recent government has produced preconditions for the origin of wealth from the majority of citizen and places as well as this re-density in the hands of a selection of citizens and places. Cities are basically a significant social model and material locus for the productivity and reproduction of the recent connections of neoliberal capitalism, comprising strata transition and the productivity of inconsistent advancement. The urbanization of shift is therefore a midpoint of social and spatial rule. Otherwise stated, urbanization is a main institutional attribute of shift, not merely the field [12].

Cities are constantly shifting. Over the past two hundred years, urbanization has substituted a primarily rural context with an urban landform. In spite of the fact that urbanization has largely shifted the western states, the speed of urbanization is currently greatest in economically lower developed states. Nevertheless, this does not imply the goal to urbanization or a stability of the urban landform in more developed states. In the second half of the 20th century, development of big cities come to an end and moderate scaled as well as micro-cities move into quick develop. This recent trend of urbanization, notably counter urbanization, was broadly examined across the 1970s and beyond, especially concerning the pragmatic impacts. Decentralisation of political decision-making and public supply productivity was causing the inhabitants to be frequently utilised as a tool to encourage development in lower rich areas. The Scandinavian states are examples of this. Over the past decade, however, more instances point to a setback of the pattern; notably, metropolitan regions have started to develop both because of net migration and natural growth of the inhabitants [13].

During several stages of modernisation, urban areas rise in popularity to become identical from state to state, therefore signifying simultaneous processes underway. These areas are undergoing a structural transformation of productivity and a large migration of employees to the manufacturing regions. Two characteristics control the majority of urban research commonly based on the inhabitants of localities and this is restricted by reducing the process of generating statistics. Since the estimates are accepted for the matter, this excludes drawbacks. Nevertheless, if the inhabitants' development is solely regarded to be evidence of the economic achievement of single cities, then this is possibly incorrect if cases containing the in-commuting manpower are of considerable scale compared to the local manpower. Furthermore, as several metropolitan regions are organisationally split into numerous districts or localities, additional drawbacks increase if features of the manpower are further examined. In the case of Copenhagen, a main portion of the academics is citizens from outside the central municipality, and assessments founded on credentials of local inhabitants are therefore expected to be incapable of assessing the shifting employments and skills of the commercial supplies, study, finance, et cetera, in the city [13].

An accurate determination of urban regions is a basic drawback if the achievement of a city in economic phases and the development concerning inhabitants are measured. Consequently, central cities started to decline in inhabitants in the middle 20th century, with urban regions continuing to develop via suburban enhancement. The change from the centre of the city to suburban development was prompted by the scarcity of construction places and urban advancement therefore had to strengthen prevailing land consumption or increase the territory of the prevailing city. This is engaging to regard the way several of the counter urbanization that reflects from an actual decentralisation contrasted to inadequate meaning of the urban regions. In numerous cases, counter urbanization can be explained by the growth of villages, and small towns rely on enhanced facilities and growth of tenants in current urban regions. In the majority of research, cities and towns are regarded as unconnected municipalities. Geographers examine the comparative place of single cities. Rather, descriptions obtained in structural situations should be used, which represent the scale of a city, or in local requirements [13].

South Asia's urban inhabitants increased by 130 million citizens between 2001 and 2011, and this is predicted to grow by nearly 250 million in the next 15 years. The area has currently begun to view the economic development and poverty decrease advantages related with urbanization, i.e., if planned correctly, more urbanization provides the prospect for richer and more liveable cities. To acknowledge this outlook, one demands no more than the evolutionary impact that urbanization has had, across livelihood record, on several East Asian states and more again on the currently modern economies of Western Europe and North America [14]. Beneficial urbanization is followed by the intersection of livelihood specifications among urban and rural regions as economic and social advantages flow into urban territories. Nevertheless, these positive patterns can be hindered by the constraints of urban inhabitant development of infrastructure, fundamental supplies, land, housing and the landscape. Projections propose that no less than 130 million of South Asia's urban citizens live in ghettos and are unacceptably disadvantaged in fundamental infrastructure and connectivity to fundamental supplies. Despite powerful development at the start of the century, South Asia's share of the world economy continues to be remarkably small comparative to the share of the global urban inhabitants [15].

In 2011, the East Asia and the Pacific area produced 29% of the global GDP with 32% of the world urban inhabitants (a scale of 0.91); South Asia created 8% of the international GDP with 14% of the worldwide urban inhabitants (a scale of 0.57). This contrast shows that South Asia has been less profitable than East Asian in capitalising on urbanization for profits in production and affluence. Certainly, South Asia achieved results similar to Sub-Saharan Africa, producing 3% of worldwide GDP with 9% of the world urban inhabitants (a scale of 0.34) in 2011. The intensity of overpopulation can be reduced to a significant magnitude if investments in infrastructure and fundamental supplies maintain pace with the needs as more citizens and companies concentrate in urban regions. Without adequate investment, urban facilities and supplies increase in number but decrease in quality and connectivity. The impacts of overpopulation rely on the capability of land and housing markets to answer to the increasing need for urban dwellings and industrial and business estates. The interrelation of clustering economies with overpopulation affects the speed and characteristics of urbanization, and this specifies the affluence and habitable consequences produced [15].

As South Asia's urban inhabitants increase, the increased density of citizens and productivity, as well as the structural transition that follows, create chances for raised affluence via the development of clustering economies. The comparatively rapid development of South Asia's main cities in 1999 and 2010 is due to quick development on the peripheries comprising regions classified as rural: regard, for

instance, the improved achievement of the district of Gautam Budh Nagar on the periphery of Delhi and home to Noida, India's biggest census town as well as the effect on the dynamism element of the affluence indicator. The hubs of New Delhi, Dhaka and Lahore are inclined to deteriorate or decrease. Market abilities perform a significant function in forming the spatial arrangement of cities, but planning must supply infrastructure and other public commodities to organise and facilitate synergies among land consumptions as well as more essentially to assist in planning the trade-offs that cities expose among clustering economies and overpopulation. Planning is significant in fostering equality, particularly for the impoverished [15].

Well access bond with effective spatial arrangements amenities face to face commercial exchanges and commodities motion as well as decreases the costs of movement. Cities able to incorporate and arrange land consumption as well as transportation are inclined to have effective and generative economies. As the manufacturing industry is leaving cities such as Dhaka, Kanpur and Kolkata, the midpoints demand an increase economically by stimulating the modern supply industry or other industries [15]. One of the defining questions in the shift from agrarian to industrial community is the function performed by urbanization in the emergence of industrial modernism. The method to this question originating from urban history comprises intensive case study investigation concentrated on specific urban positions. A second method, influenced by cultures in geography, demography and planning, concentrates on arrangements of cities and the function of related arrangements in fostering and signifying the process of economic advancement. Practitioners of this method demand that urban history is a history of urbanization that exceeds the skills of single urban societies [16].

Urbanization signifies the process by which a growing portion of a community's inhabitants resides in cities. Rising cities are not obviously an indication of urbanization and essentially there have been several theories of city development being merely an output of total inhabitants' development. The urban shift is shown in an S-formed development curve displaying the urbanization process against time. The yearly urban inhabitants' development level of the globally poorest states is nearly 7 times the urban development range in the world's wealthiest states. Interestingly, 10,000 years of human history have been needed for the global urban inhabitants to attain 1 billion in 1960. Estimation of inhabitants' development to 1 billion (that is the world's urban population reaches 1 billion), which estimates for the next billion are after 15 years, after 18 years and after 25 years. The histories of affluent urbanised states will possibly not be continued due to the scale of current urbanization because it is likely to imitate the history of urbanization in the northern hemisphere; and the connection among urbanization as well as economic affluence has emerged contingent. Modernisation theorists are stating that urbanization provides affluence as impoverished states function to stimulate technology and investment from wealthy states. The options theories, for instance theories of urban discrimination, dependency and world-systems assessment supply, prove that advancement and urbanization can strengthen disparity and development [17].

2.3 Peri-urbanization

In the New International Division of Labour (NIDL), cities have been connected in networks of big transnational companies. All cities are interpreted by a combination of modernism and culture, affluence and poverty. Urbanism (similar to modernism) is very frequently understood as rising from the West and dispersing to the remains. The connection among urbanised modernism and the West is possibly the historical exclusion. In the age of cognitive-cultural capitalism, cities are becoming transformed by the enhancement of digital estimation

and communication; stronger social and workplace categories among well-paid, well-educated, cognitive-cultural employees and recent slavish strata of child-care employees, et cetera; notably a rapid customer community, containing households investing increasingly in a rapid shifting combination of experienced commodities and supplies. Currently, rapid global urbanization is happening in the southern hemisphere. The practice of the northern hemisphere cannot forecast the future of the southern hemisphere. Remarkable transformations in global urbanism follow the reformation theory and practice in urban academics [17].

Currently urbanization is a comparatively silent process, consisting of one decision to relocate, or possibly no relocation. In reality, citizens generally move backwards and forwards between rural and urban regions. Urbanization is undertaken as several decisions not to return to rural regions. Furthermore, reclassification is connected to a larger predictor in the development of several small earning and usually informal accommodation in various peri-urban regions and perhaps in a big percentage of big villages forming urban regions, probably in the development of prevailing urban regions. Change from rural to urban is interpreted as a continuum [18]. The rapid enhancement of urban regions because of growth in inhabitants and economic development is increasing additional demands on natural resources, consequently leading to land consumption transformations particularly in mega cities [19]. Urbanization as a world pattern impacts total demographic and economic trends, whereas peri-urbanization is more localised and visible, concurrently destroying rural arrangements as well as producing and strengthening urban arrangements. Peri-urbanization is profoundly varied and differs from one position to another. Single peri-urbanization frameworks consider idiosyncratic parameters specified by, for instance the impacted region's position, distance to the city centre, timeframe, economic development range and prospect enhancement [20].

There is an urbanization shift that forecasts an unavoidable change from poor stages of urbanization to upper stages of urbanization as states become more developed. These theories of shift are founded on three premises: First, the premise that these shifts, possibly differing among states, are unavoidable (notably states need to move via these shifts to emerge as grown). Second, linear movement and movement via a series of levels that in spite of the fact that this possibly differs in the distance among states are essential preconditions for advancement. Third, the rural and urban shifts are isolated. Fundamental to this concept is the thought of segmentation among rural and urban that is signified in the spatial and organisational arrangements of communities. Therefore, the shift theory considers a spatial rearranging of states as a significant component of the process of advancement. Advancement is viewed as a process of transition of the national economic sphere in which relationship and correlation is a further precise manifestation of the fact that rural and urban regions are experiencing spatially isolated shifts. In Asia, a network of correlations that supplies a dynamic spatial shape of movements of citizens, goods, information and capital basically grows the rural–urban transition [21].

At the world scale, there are processes fostering the growth of mega-urban areas that influence the emergence of rapid competition that stimulate greater investment and recognise the trademark figure internationally. Whereas industrial investment has controlled movement of this process of world incorporation as the world supply economy emerges further incorporated, there is a demand to stimulate division of these national and world exchanges via the advancement of financial supplies, tourism and conventions. Whereas this competition for trading capital was previously caused by single cities, this is rapidly being acknowledged as essential to grow marketing promotions that signify the chances of the broader area. The majority of the biggest cities are owned by a big fraction of the dominions' inhabitants and were several times larger than the future biggest accommodation. By the beginning

of the 1840s, Rangoon was three times as big as Mandalay and in Indo-China, and Saigon-Cho Lon was several times bigger than Hanoi. The features of urban hierarchy of this colonial duration earlier in 1940 were controlled by the big primate cities. These primate cities are frequently greater than a million. This size is controlled by commerce and integrating organisational as well as protection roles. There was a small sector that was different to various processing of raw materials and a greater number of inhabitants were involved in tertiary activities in which immigrant societies, for instance the Chinese and Indians, performed a significant role [21].

In the post-war 1945, the urbanization trends started to transform drastically with the development of nationalism and the formation of independent countries. This time was categorised by the grafting on of national organisational roles to the majority of the mega-urban cities. The political symbols of the recently formed countries, parliament premises and statues of nationalist political leaders were added to the urban topography of these primate cities. The exemption was Hanoi in Vietnam. By 1960, only two states, Singapore and Brunei, achieved stages of urbanization identical to those of developed states and both were perhaps termed city-states. Malays were dealing with rapid urbanization, growing from 24 to 30%. Across this decade, the stages of urbanization in the remains of Southeast Asia continued at a low rate as the rural inhabitants grew at an accelerated rate. The economic arrangements of the cities and the rising flow of rural migrants caused challenges for the prevailing infrastructure of housing, roads, water and power, possibly because the migrants relocated into settler accommodation on the peripheries or unoccupied spaces of the inner cities and congested inner properties. Simultaneously, recent housing for the rising national elites was being constructed in suburban properties, for instance Kenny Hill in Kuala Lumpur and Makati City in the Philippines [21].

This trend started to transform drastically between 1960 and 1990. Previously the stages of urbanization started to differ significantly as states containing the urbanization stage continued at highly poor stages of urbanization (notably below 25%), with Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar and Vietnam at over 30%. States including Indonesia, Thailand, the Philippines, Singapore and Brunei were major reasons for these advancements. The first factor is the geo-political situations of Southeast Asia with the deepening of the Cold War that set up obvious lines among the socialist countries of the area notably Vietnam and Laos as well as the outcast countries of Cambodia and Myanmar and the persisting capitalist countries. Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia and Brunei had been destroyed by battle and several of the energies were allocated to reconstructing the communities that were typically rural and urbanization stages continued at a low rate. In the capitalist nations, country strategies were oriented to increasing agricultural production and importing replacement-founded industrial development fostered by international investment, which caused rapid growth in urbanization levels [21].

A second predictor was the development of foreign investment as the developed economies started to reorganise the economies from 1960s. Singapore, the Philippines, Malaysia, Thailand and Indonesia appeared as significant places for foreign investment in industrial activity for internal consuming or export. The process caused the generation of industrial properties, free-export zones, air and container ports and other infrastructure amenities concentrated in the major mega-urban areas of these states. Subsequently, for instance, by 1985, nearly 60% of non-oil manufacturing was situated in the Jabotabek mega-urban area. By 1989, the sector had surpassed the contribution of agriculture to the GDP of the six capitalist states in the area. A third determinant was the development of tourism in the area. At the start of the 1960s, the majority of the mega-urban areas of the market capitalist states of the area had less than 100,000 tourists a year, but by the end of the 1980s, this surpassed one million. This was a portion of common growth in the

larger stage supplies, for instance finance, that caused the transition of the hubs of the mega-urban areas with the premises of hotels and business [21].

There was rapid growth of a rising intermediate stratum and the development of extra housing to fulfil the needs for recent housing demands. Busy with the reconstruction and the rebuilding of political and economic arrangements, the socialist countries did not share in this process at this time. Consequently, by 1990, the processes of urbanization were starting to produce opportunities for a quickened motion of several of the mega-urban areas of Southeast Asia into growing world incorporations primarily signified in the formation of recent globally focused areas. The urban midpoints started to see the growth of tourist zones, exports zones, various business midpoints and intermediate strata housing properties. These areas were rapidly connected by road arrangements of differing levels of efficacy. Therefore these mega-urban areas were becoming auto-reliant as this fostered a quick enhancement towards the nearby hinterlands [21].

A main characteristic has been the rapid integration of capital movement into the area, typically equity markets, financial organisations, manufacturing sectors and estate industries concentrated on the mega-urban areas. At a strategy stage, this promoted attempts by national and city governments to market the cities as places for international investment. This promoted a main component of facility investment in the mega-urban regions (MURs) arising in public investment disproportionately focused in the area. Nevertheless, one of the more significant outcomes of this world incorporation has been the disclosure of Southeast Asian states to the unpredictability of world finance and good markets. The 1997 destruction of asset markets weakened several of these patterns primarily in the estate market. Similarly, by 2008, there remained various advancements that have not restarted in Bangkok. Secondly as the financial collapse widened, the establishment became dissatisfied with the prevailing authorities between the poor, the students and perhaps the intermediate strata [21].

The improvement of the world economy following 2001 (increases in the price of energy and foodstuffs as well as the outlooks of the weakened growth of Southeast Asian mega cities to ecological transformation, for instance sea-level increases and water supply) has perhaps added additional components of unpredictability. Across Southeast Asia, the majority of the mega-urban areas are situated in coastal areas. Nevertheless, Kuala Lumpur is not on the coast but is connected with the ports that form the broadened metropolitan area. This is significant in growing strategies for mega-urban areas in that they consider this spatial variation among the urban hubs as well as the peri-urban and periphery zones. This is significant, specifically due to the peripheries of the mega-urban areas that are expected to hold the majority of the urban focused development incorporating up to 75% of the urban growth in the following decades. Specifically due to the reorganisation of urban hubs and the growing outlook to the world economy, this produces fiscal instability among the main cities and the peripheries [21].

During the 20th century, particularly in Doi Moi, Hanoi has exerted high control on peri-urbanization following an interruption. In the model of European Union-funded Research Project On Agricultural Dynamics In Zones Subject To urban Influence In Southeast Asia (RURBASIE), three city belts were set up in the past two decades in Hanoi. Urbanization in Asia is characterised by the following two patterns [22]:

1. Inhabitants' and productivity focuses on various sites, establishing fields for megalopolis.
2. Across the megalopolis region, the wealthy relocate to the nearby regions to prevent unfavourable social and ecological effects contributed by megalopolis advancement.

Urbanization in South Asia is categorised by unrestricted urban enhancement and unmanaged land utilisation. Subsequently, the combination of agricultural and non-agricultural land emerges in these regions. Rural urban borders are eradicated between the urban and rural way of life [22]. The peri-urban region of big metropolis in developing states is a shifting site and is evidence of the difficult process that signifies the establishing of a city. Notably, this is not unique but advantageous and particularly active as well as broadening the site of urban livelihood. This region is modified to be identical to the city that produces it. This is a city landscape productivity process and a manifestation of urban administration and the approach in which the city makes decisions [23].

Peri-urbanization is situated at the convergence of the spatial and diachronic methods (i.e., in a mix of space and time) [23]. Urbanization is a historical process that is undertaken in a market economy. Recent towns grow in the first stage of industrialisation and are modernised in the following stages. The rapid transformations in market economy and the disputes as well as contradictions in the beginning of the 21st century are essential for examining distinct methods of peri-urbanization in the transformation process. The cultural arrangement and public living of an urban region are the foundations for assessing the quality of urban advancement. Distinct methods of urbanization are expected to create the distinct aspects of an urban region, and consequently the distinct aspects of a state [24].

Examining the distinct methods of urbanization is expected to affect the establishing criteria for an urban region at distinct economic and cultural advancement phases [24]. This is significant in forecasting future urban development and especially the extra quantity of urban inhabitants that states expect to integrate in the years to follow. This estimate is associated with several variables, for instance the scale of the persisting rural inhabitants (if this scale is big, there are several prospective migrants); the dissimilarity among the stage of livelihood situations in the city and in the countryside; the polarisation of space and the employment opportunities (big investments are linked to cities); and subsequently economic development (notably a significant development), similar in numerous states of the area, estimates for more manpower, et cetera. Predictions signify that cities of Southeast Asia expect to have to integrate approximately 300 million citizens from 2007 to 2050 [25].

Migrants are expected to not relocate to cities with an identical approach. This is especially expected to rely on the arrangement of the urban network. This arrangement can be calculated by the dominance level, or fraction of the inhabitants of the biggest city contrasted to all the urban inhabitants of the state. It contributes a notion of macrocephaly or the disproportionate weight of the biggest clustering. The urban network has become stable in Malaysia and medium-sized Asian states [25]. The past half century has seen various examples where highly theoretical thoughts have rapidly grown into actual living sectors of vast affluence, for instance, the development of information technology in Silicon Valley, biotechnology in the Cambridge corridor, or high-tech manufacturing groups in Taiwan. From these instances, the people can easily infer that the city is the physical site containing the economy founded on knowledge fundamentals. The living of the city has, consequently, reverted to the humanist fundamentals that have allowed growth of cities in the first place [26].

Urbanization is a main transformation that is being undertaken on a global scale. The urban world tipping point was attained in 2007, when, for the first time in history, more than half of the global inhabitants (nearly 3.3 billion citizens) were residing in urban regions. It is projected that more than 500 million citizens are expected to be urbanised in the following five years and predictions signify that 60% of global inhabitants will be urbanised by 2030. This influx to the cities,

affected specifically by the attraction of chances for affluence production and economic advancement, has produced the occurrence of megacities (i.e., urban regions with inhabitants of 10 million or more). There are presently 19 megacities in the world and there are projected to be 27 by 2020. More than half of this development is expected in Asia. Essentially, the 20th century is associated with the occurrence of rapid urbanization. By 1900, nearly 13% of the global inhabitants were urban. Over the following years, enhancements in medicine and science permitted larger city concentrations. Referring to United Nation (UN) reports, the urban inhabitants increased from 220 million in 1900 to 732 million in 1950 (29% of the global inhabitants). By 2007, nearly 50% of the global inhabitants were residing in cities due to additional enhancements in technology, medicine and combating of disease [27].

Referring to recent estimations, almost 4.9 billion citizens or 60% of the global inhabitants are projected to be urban residents by 2030. Researchers indicate important dissimilarities in urban inhabitants' transformation between the more developed areas and the lesser developed areas. The majority of the settlers of the lesser developed areas remained living in rural regions, but in the more developed areas, the inhabitants became urbanised. As urbanization and advancement increase, urbanization is also projected to grow in the upcoming period. Nevertheless, across the stages of urbanization, lesser developed areas have more than double the amount of urban residents compared with the more developed areas (i.e., 2.3 billion compared to 0.9 billion, respectively). By 1968, the urban inhabitants of the lesser developed areas exceeded, for the first time, those of the more developed areas and this remains to be accomplished again. Moreover, referring to UN estimations, the relationship between the fast development of the inhabitants of the lesser developed areas and the slower rate of the inhabitants in the more developed areas signifies that the disparity in the amount of urban residents among the two expected continues to grow [27].

As various cities grew over the centuries, this process began to be renowned for particular characteristics. For instance, in the traditional age, Delphi, Delos, Epidaurus and subsequently Rome, Jerusalem as well as Mecca were called religion midpoints; Alexandria was renowned for its library; Constantinople as the capital of the Byzantine Empire; Damascus for the commerce midpoint; and Beijing for the governance. In modern times, culture and markets have emerged as more significant determinants for visitors. However, investors and big international companies are prompted by the museums, exhibitions and cultural events. Cities are the midpoints of learning, invention and sophistication. Probably across the Byzantine age, Constantinople had 500,000 citizens, notably in the 6th–7th century, and was regarded to be the second biggest city following Baghdad. Currently, a similar city, Istanbul, has emerged as a modern mega city of around 11 million citizens, linking Europe with Asia. It is apparent that the site and topography of the age, combined with other main determinants similar to economy, performed the main function in the improvement and development of numerous cities over the centuries [27].

During 1949, the Chinese authority interpreted and reinterpreted the meaning of cities four times. The first was in June 1955, after State Council questioned the “Decision by the State Council” concerning the setup of cities and towns. Referring to the decision, cities that conformed to the undermentioned standards obtained urban status [28]:

1. The regions with inhabitants of 100,000 or more permanent citizens
2. The regions with inhabitants of 20,000 or more containing local organisational offices of the state stage or larger

These standards were utilised until 1963, to after The criteria of establishment of cities and towns for the purpose of decreasing suburban districts of cities was questioned. The authority agreed that there were many cities in China. Various urban sites had comprised substantial rural regions across the territories for the purpose of increasing the number of inhabitants to the standards essential to attain city status. In spite of the fact that the standard for the specified cities continued unmodified, the qualification of all specified cities was rigidly examined one after another and medium-sized cities, with inhabitants of less than 100,000, were reinterpreted as specified towns. The major cause for the modification was that the rapid development of specified cities and towns as well as urban inhabitants in earlier years had affected a large demand on agricultural productivity. The third transformation in meaning was in 1986, after On adjustment of standards for city designation and conditions for city to administer countries was introduced. Following this, China reached the decade of reformations in the 1980s and urban development was promoted as an establishment and more liberalised city and town identification standards were utilised by the Ministry of Civil Affairs, as listed below [28]:

1. A territorial economic midpoint town with 60,000 non-farming inhabitants and the Gross National Product (GNP) of greater than 200 million yuan.
2. A significant town does not fulfil the situations explained in matter 1 above nevertheless is situated across a territory, minority or beautiful region, or this is a midpoint of mining, industry, technology, or transportation notably the town possibly be modernised into cities.
3. A state has less than 500,000 citizens; and the county seat town has greater than 100,000 in non-farming inhabitants, smaller than 40% farming citizens and has a GNP of greater than 300 million yuan.
4. A county has greater than 500,000 citizens; and the county seat town has greater than 120,000 non-farming inhabitants and has a GNP of greater than 400 million yuan; the entire county can be specified as a city with a similar organisational legal power similar as earlier.

In 1993, the fourth transformation in city identification was accepted by the State Council. Counties are segmented into three groups referring to the inhabitants' concentration prior to the shift into a specified city. Between the 12 standards, the magnitude and rate of non-farming inhabitants were to remain the highest significant element. The present standards for recognising specified towns were questioned in 1984 with the Circular of the State Council accepting the document of the Ministry of Civil Affairs concerning the modification of the standards for a specified town. This specifies that [28]:

1. All the seats of state government agencies at district level to be allocated specified towns status.
2. Seats of locality (xiang)-stage authority agencies with greater than 2000 non-farming inhabitants possibly eliminate the recognition of xiang and shift towards specifying as a town.
3. Micro-towns with less than 2000 non-farming inhabitants, but situated across a territory, minority, beautiful or remote mountainous regions with scattered inhabitants or a midpoint of mining, industry can be set up as specified towns if required.

3. Conclusion

Urbanization all over the world is currently happening in many of the states with considerable populations. There is a significant positive connection between natural resource exportation and urbanization. In states that are largely reliant on resource exportation, urbanization is focused on consuming cities that contain the economies that typically incorporate non-marketable supplies. These differ from productivity cities that are reliant on manufacturing in states that are industrialised. Consuming cities in resource exporting states tend to not score well across a large number of evaluations of well-being. The process of urbanization is thought to be related with stages of advancement and various assumptions including: for a state to expand, there is a demand for an enhanced stage of industrialisation due to the modernisation doctrine—there cannot be any urbanization without economic development. The developed states have accepted this process and the developing states need to follow in their footsteps. Because of the growth of numerous cities via the centuries, this progression is renowned for particular characteristics; for instance far-reaching condensed populated area, growing convergence of urban and expansion of population.

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia, for funding this study under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS), S/O code 13228, and Research and Innovation Management Centre, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, for the administration of this study.

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Urbanization in the Northern Corridor Economic Region

Noraniza Yusoff

Abstract

Discussion on urbanization involves economic change, social change, cultural change, economic growth encouragement and alleviating poverty. Data has showed links with other publications on differing worldviews on urbanization. There were 434 respondents that agreed to answer a questionnaire during data collection in 2016. The research report was written in Malay because the study was performed in Malay. The instrument for data collection was the questionnaire that was constructed by the researcher based on previous research and other types of publications. Research was performed with a quantitative method as a basic research type and data collection through a survey technique using a questionnaire as well as the time dimension, therefore a cross-sectional type. The findings portrayed that the majority of respondents agreed with items on urbanization and the role of urbanization.

Keywords: cultural development, economic corridor, economic development, social development, urbanization role

1. Introduction

Discourse on urbanization in the Northern Corridor Economic Region (NCER) is based on the research performed in 2016 through an FGRS research grant (SO code 13228). Discussion on urbanization involves economic change, social change, cultural change, economic growth encouragement and alleviating poverty. Data showed links with other publications on the different worldviews on urbanization. Throughout the world, there are institutions that fund research projects on urbanization and Park et al. [1] listed institutions that funded such research projects on urbanization. The project employed satellite images from the beginning of the 1980s through to the 1990s to produce a categorisation arrangement for urban dwellings in six cities. The use of numerous images produced the potential to generate urban categories, for instance, squatter settlements existing in 1982, low income housing existing in 1992, but not in 1982, or villas emerging following 1992. Numerous urban strata were based on information of emergence and quality of housing by applying the newest image, to sample from all the dwelling regions and to understand the way considerable housing suited to every strata allowed for the potential to plan a sampling framework to examine a significant amount of urban usage. Annez and Linn [2] showed that research on urbanization throughout the world encompassed subjects on urban poverty, the political economy of urban poverty, urban real estate and housing, urban facility finance and exogenous aid for urban growth.

2. Research methodology

Discussion in this chapter comes from the findings of a research study on urbanization entitled “Perbandaran dan polarisasi pendapatan di Koridor Ekonomi Wilayah Utara Semenanjung Malaysia” (Urbanization and income polarization in Northern Corridor Economic Region Of Peninsular Malaysia). There were 434 respondents that agreed to answer the questionnaire during data collection in 2016. A pilot study was performed previously in early 2016. Cronbach’s alpha value of urbanization items is 0.967 and this is interpreted as excellent in internal consistency reliability. Internal validity through corrected item-total correlation shows that almost 90% of the items were valid. The research report was written in Malay. The instrument for data collection was a questionnaire that was constructed by the researcher based on previous research and other types of publications. The research was performed using a quantitative method as a basic research type and data collection was through a survey technique using a questionnaire as well as the time dimension, therefore a cross-sectional type.

The questions in the questionnaire are a type of agreement as the statement of the questions aims to gain agreement from the respondents. The index categories followed the Likert-type, which is numbered as 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. This implies that the researcher provides five options for the respondents’ responses. The index category number 1 was labelled as “Do not know”, 2 was labelled as “Strongly disagree”, 3 was labelled as “Disagree”, 4 was labelled as “Agree” and 5 was labelled as “Strongly agree”. Mangiafico [3] proposed that the questionnaire may consist of opt-out responses namely “do not know” or “Not applicable”, which were developed in addition to the Likert responses. These responses solved the circumstances in which the respondents had no opinion or do not understand a question or when a question is not applicable for them. The opt-out answer “do not know” may not be a great choice because respondents and researchers may interpret “do not know” as a “neutral” answer.

Losby and Wetmore [4] showed that the Likert scales comprise two techniques, namely conventional and variations (called Likert-type). The Likert scale is defined as an ordered scale from which participants select one choice that perfectly corresponds with the participants’ opinion. The Likert scale is a useful and significant part of survey research. The Likert scale is frequently utilised to assess respondents’ behaviours by asking the respondents to agree or disagree with a specific question or statement. A normal scale would probably be “Strongly disagree”, “Disagree”, “Neutral”, “Agree”, or “Strongly agree”. Likert scales can fulfil the researchers’ need if the researchers include attitude, belief and behaviour items in their questionnaire. For instance, an investigator is not expected to utilise a Likert scale to measure attributes such as age, race and earning, but an investigator can utilise a Likert scale to measure individuals’ attitude about a specific subject. The characteristics of conventional Likert scales is an ordered continuum of response categories, namely “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree”. Likert-type scales or variations to the traditional style have an ordered continuum of response categories different to “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree”.

An example of a Likert-type scale is an odd-number of response categories so that every participant has a dissimilar understanding of the mid-point, for instance, “Do not know”, “Unsure”, “Do not care”, “No opinion”, “Neither”, “Neutral”, “Both equal parts of agree and disagree”, “Undecided”, “Not applicable” and “Unwilling to answer”. Other types of Likert-type scales are “Never”, “Sometimes”, “Often” and “Always” [4]. Giannini, Latorre and Ferreira [5] propose a Likert scale using “Never”, “Rarely”, “Sometimes”, “Always” and “I do not know”. Jamieson [6] indicated a Likert scale that presents the respondent with a statement and questions the participant to range the magnitude to which the respondent agrees with the items. This can encompass asking the subject a question instead of a statement. The

categories of response are mutually exclusive and commonly encompass the entire scope of viewpoint. Several investigators incorporate a “do not know” choice, to differentiate among participants that do not feel strongly enough to contribute a viewpoint and the participants that are “Neutral” on the subject.

The neutral response type is classified as the wider categorisation of middle response choices. Another instance of a middle response choice is “about right” in a question because the choices were too much, not enough, or about right. These choices are not arranged in the middle of the list of choices; however, the choices are understood to mean, and accounted as middle-level choices. “Unsure”, “No opinion”, “Cannot decide” and “do not know” are expected to appear to be a dissimilar category of choices and the choices do not imply a middle position; however, they can be utilised when the participant has no viewpoint or lacks enough information to build a viewpoint. One can be expected to appropriately claim that these terms are not interchangeable; however, the terms are all different from middle responses [7].

Manisera and Zuccolotto [8] propose a probabilistic model for the treatment of the “do not know” response in surveys intended at examining human perceptions via indicated ratings. The justification behind the proposal is that “do not know” is a valid response as this indicates a certain state of mind of the participant, and subsequently it is not accurate to address this as a missing value. The real thoughtfulness of the proposed framework relies on the options regarding the involved probability laws. The necessary premises consider the probability dispersion of firstly the expressed ratings and secondly the state of mind of “do not know” participants into the ratings. “do not know” responses can be considered with an easy modification of one parameter of the framework. “do not know” is a very particular type of nonresponse while the participant, even though having experience concerning the subject under investigation, experiences an inability to develop the suggested rating because of being uncertain, unwilling, or uncommunicative or due to the participant having never developed a viewpoint and so forth. In this condition, a highly suitable response is “do not know”.

The questionnaires of surveys intended for probing human perceptions frequently include items containing the “do not know” choice provided to participants that are not capable of developing a response in opposition of obtaining experience in the trait under research. Nevertheless, as a matter of reality, the statistical frameworks consequently utilised to explain the accumulated data are commonly incapable of correctly considering this type of response, which frequently treats it as a missing value. “do not know” is a valid response as this creates significant data regarding the uncertainty of the topic in developing the suggested response. The data supplied by “do not know” responses can be efficiently employed inside a statistical framework that exceeds the common parameter intended for assessing the attractiveness of the question, notably the subject of a parameter calculating for the indecision in the response or uncertainty [8].

Law [9] recommended using the “Prefer not to answer” choice for items that are possibly of a private characteristic, for instance race, ethnicity, income, political affiliation and so forth. Regardless of this choice, individuals possibly avoid the item entirely; however, you will not know afterwards if the people avoided the item on purpose or the people missed the item unintentionally and this will create a significant dissimilarity when analysing the data. It is not practical to list each potential choice. In that case, involving “None of the above” or “Other” options can be useful. This produces less potential for individuals to simply avoid the item and leave the researcher with missing information. The researcher can consider using a “Not applicable” response for items that might not be applicable to all of the participants, or a “do not know” option for items that a participant might not have the information for.

Blasius and Thiessen [10] explore if neutral responses are substantive or non-substantive. Using information from the 1984 Canadian National Election Study, in the first of two instances, participants were queried which political party was expected to be perfect or poorest in addressing issues, for instance, managing inflation. A vast minority of participants volunteered a neutral “No difference” response. The second instance relates to a set of Likert questions frequently utilised in assessments of political trust and effectiveness. Various correspondence analysis is utilised to assist examination of participants that regularly utilise neutral responses, for instance, “Neither agree nor disagree” or “No difference”, and consequently to conceal the non-opinionisation for substantive factors. The findings indicate that participants applying substantive responses distinguish from the participants applying non-substantive responses for instance “do not know” and “No opinion” and that both are dissimilar from the participants applying neutral responses. The reality is that no response options were listed and this was supposed to reduce the probability of participants applying a satisfying policy in which the participant has a viewpoint but fails to indicate it due to a nonresponse that has been clearly presented.

The main concern in this first instance is in the two kinds of responses in which no political party was identified, that is the “do not know” and the “No difference” responses. In cases of “do not know” and “No opinion”, this is uncomplicated to determine. In contrast, the respondent commonly does not know how to perceive neutral classifications, for instance “Neither agree nor disagree” and “No difference”, even though, in practice, the respondents are commonly regarded as substantive. Non-substantive responses are addressed by applying screening items to exclude this response or by explicitly providing response choices for instance “do not know” and “No opinion” [10].

3. Urbanization in the northern corridor economic region

Questions or items constructed in the questionnaire pertaining to urbanization in NCER cities are as follows:

- 1 = I find that there is an economic change in the city in which I live.
- 2 = I see social change in my hometown.
- 3 = Cultural change occurs in the city.
- 4 = The shifting of agriculture to industry (urban employment) takes place in the city.
- 5 = Social relationships exist in the city.
- 6 = Modifications in family life (lifestyle changes) take place in the city.
- 7 = Urban settlement exists in my area of residence.
- 8 = There is a division of the urban population in my living area.
- 9 = A large number of people live in urban areas.
- 10 = Cities develop social institutions.
- 11 = There are business institutions in urban areas to support life.
- 12 = Government institutions exist in the city to support the lives of urban residents.
- 13 = Urban areas have a relatively condensed settlement.
- 14 = Authorities have the power to concentrate on urban areas.
- 15 = The authorities have to make an effort to focus capital in urban areas.
- 16 = Urban residents benefit from a better form of education.
- 17 = Urban residents benefit from better healthcare.
- 18 = Urban residents benefit from the availability of information.
- 19 = Urban residents benefit from the dissemination of information.

- 20 = Urban residents benefit from the greater supply of life maintenance goods.
- 21 = Urban residents benefit from a greater supply of food.
- 22 = Urban residents benefit from greater housing supply.
- 23 = The modern form of urban growth is urban type megapolis/metropolis (for example New York, Panama City Illinois, Mexico City and Sao Paulo).
- 24 = Suburbanization is a modern form of urban growth (for example Manhaen in Ghana, Rotterdam in the Netherlands and Pokhara in Nepal).
- 25 = Border cities are a modern form of urban growth (for example Miri and Bukit Kayu Hitam).
- 26 = Global cities are a modern form of urban growth (for example New York, London, Tokyo, Paris and Singapore).
- 27 = Economic groups exist in urban areas.
- 28 = The working class service division is an economic group in the city.
- 29 = The wealthy professional working class is an economic group in the city.
- 30 = Economic inequality is the effect of the existence of an economic group.
- 31 = Service sector employment has prompted an influx of immigrants that tend to work in low paid jobs.
- 32 = The city has served as a powerful political factor.
- 33 = The city has served as a powerful economic factor.
- 34 = Cities play a role in promoting economic growth.
- 35 = Cities exist because of the economic grouping in production that does not exist in the rural areas.
- 36 = There is a local economic grouping such as grouping of industries within the city.
- 37 = Agglomeration of urbanization economics shows the overall size of the city.
- 38 = Cities play a role in reducing poverty.
- 39 = Personal income increases occur in the city.
- 40 = Quality of life improves in the city.
- 41 = Sixty percent (60%) of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or income is generated in the city area.
- 42 = Commodity trading occurs in urban areas.
- 43 = Services trading takes place in urban areas.
- 44 = Primary source trading exists in the city.
- 45 = The city undertakes processed energy trading.
- 46 = Food trading exists in the city.
- 47 = The city performs material trading or material commodity.
- 48 = Increased knowledge is a city advantage.
- 49 = Raised consumption of resources takes place in the city.
- 50 = Per capita consuming increases as urban size increases and there is a large range in producer services.
- 51 = Economic development rate is high in urban areas.
- 52 = Better productivity, due to better technology diffusion, occurs in the city.
- 53 = Higher population facilitates human relations in the city.
- 54 = Greater population accelerates the flow of information in the city.
- 55 = The high population is concerned with the focus on urban education.
- 56 = Greater population in relation to research facilities encourages original thinking and attracts interest of people with more creativity.
- 57 = The city provides many job opportunities.
- 58 = Many facilities are provided in the city area.
- 59 = Urban areas try to overcome environmental problems.
- 60 = Urban areas try to address traffic problems.
- 61 = Urban areas are trying to solve housing problems.
- 62 = Urban areas try to address pollution problems.

The results showed that 41% (178 respondents and median is 4.0000) agree with item 1. The semi-interquartile range is 1. This showed that almost half of the respondents agreed that there is an economic change in the city in which they live. Harper College [11] relates economic change with the process involving structural modification, globalisation, export-directed industrialisation and economic growth. This shows a change from more authority engagement in the economy to lower authority engagement or from command economies to capitalist economies. Item 2 showed that 41.9% of the respondents (182 respondents and the median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “I see social change in my hometown”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. In the sociology field, social change refers to the modification of mechanisms inside the social structure that is marked by shifts in cultural symbols, regulations of attitude, social agencies or value arrangements. Across the historical growth of the field, sociologists have followed frameworks of social change from other academic disciplines. In the late 19th century, just after transition emerged as the prevalent framework for interpretation of biological change, thoughts of social change appeared on a transformative range, and even though other frameworks have modified modern ideas of social change, development remains as a fundamental doctrine [12].

There were 164 respondents (37.8% and median value 4.0000) that agreed with item 3, namely “Cultural change occurs in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Culture begins after considerable force is reduced by intellect; notably, intellect is influenced by a response to facts. Culture separates into its many elements, action and responsibility, and there can never be a relationship between the elements [13]. Item 4 (“The shifting of agriculture to industrial (urban employment) takes place in the city”) shows that 155 respondents (35.7% and median is 3.0000) agreed. The semi-interquartile range is 1. The development trend is manifested by the labour market outcomes. First, rapid economic development has formed employment opportunities and has maintained the development of all occupations in China. Second, the economic change from the farming sector to non-farming industries contributes to occupation changes between economic industries and conversely stimulates the huge influx of rural to urban migration. Third, the prospering export-directed industries contributed a huge amount of employment vacancies. As proved by current labour market shifts, this enhanced the occupation imbalance by larger integration with other economies for both worker need and external breakdown [14].

A greater number of respondents (177 respondents or 40.8% and median 4.0000) agreed with item 5 (“Social relationships exist in the city”). The semi-interquartile range is 1. Holt-Lunstad, Smith and Layton [15] indicated that data across 308,849 respondents, followed for an average of 7.5 years, implied that respondents with sufficient social connections have a 50% larger probability of survival contrasted to the respondents with low or inadequate social connections. There were 174 respondents (40.1% and median 4.0000) that agreed with item 6 (“Modifications in family life (lifestyle changes) take place in the city”). The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. Mohanty, Scherfler and Devatha [16] identified lifestyle shifts at the individual stage, and attitudinal shifts at the community stage that offer several public strategies and strategy suggestions that can be important in enhancing collective consciousness and impacting public decision-making in developing states in Asia.

Item 7 (“Urban settlement exists in my area of residence”) shows that 176 respondents agreed (40.6% and median is 4.0000). The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. The United Kingdom is a very urbanised states, for towns not only represent the national lifestyle but are remarkably important components in the geography of the state. The largest total shift in settlement was the massive urbanization that

followed the early industrial growth of Britain [17]. There were 158 respondents that agreed with item 8 (“There is a division of the urban population in my living area”), which is 36.4% and median is 4.0000. The semi-interquartile range is 1. The spatial dispersion of inhabitants and settlements throughout a state and the interconnectivity and accessibility from urban regions are significant for supplying healthcare, spreading resources and leading to economic growth [18]. Item 9 showed a total of 170 respondents (39.2% and median is 4.0000) that agreed with the statement “A large number of people live in urban areas”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. The urban population percentage in Malaysia in 2013 was 74.2% and based on national definitions, that comprises a city or metropolitan region [19].

Item 10 shows that a total of 172 respondents (39.6% and median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Cities develop social institutions”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Verwiebe [20] stated that social institutions are an arrangement of attitudinal and connection trends that are intensely intertwined as well as prolonged and that serve throughout the whole community. They order and structure the attitude of individuals with the use of the normative personality. Item 11 indicates that 175 respondents (40.3% and median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “There are business institutions in urban areas to support life”. The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. In inner cities, minorities possess nearly half of all businesses, and growing the number of local businesses is expected to assist in establishing basis fulfil the variety aims. If the basic organizations could increase the number of businesses with local suppliers and employ more local occupants, consequently the effect on inner cities would be huge [21].

Item 12 shows that a total of 184 respondent or 42.4% (median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Government institutions exist in the city to support the lives of urban residents”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Urban land use planning is only one stage of the process directly the cities develop and alter the pattern and sort of the cities. The function of the federal authority can be efficiently regarded as opposing the setting of the process. Underlying each local urban design is the performance on the growing and advancement outlooks of the locality. The impact of federal decisions on the national trend of dispersion of urban population and economic activity is important [22]. Item 13 shows a total of 176 respondents or 40.6% (median is 4.0000) that agreed with the statement “Urban areas have a relatively condensed settlement”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Numerous regions of small concentrated settlements have been transformed into moderate compacted settlements in the process of urban growth. Small concentrated settlement regions form primarily in peri-urban wastelands and farming regions. Following the transformation process, substantial areas of peri-urban farming regions have been transformed as either housing or industrial formations [23]. Item 14 shows that a total of 138 respondents or 31.8% (median is 3.0000) agreed with the statement “Authorities have the power to concentrate on urban areas”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Delaney and Eckstein [24] indicated that urban elites are increasingly resolving local social challenges even through strategies that turn the cities into tourist destinations. Recent examples are publicly financed sports stadiums. The observation solves disagreement by researching the means and the cause of influential decision-makers encouraging publicly financed stadiums.

Item 15 showed a total of 119 respondents or 27.4% (median is 2.0000) that agreed with the statement “The authorities have to make an effort to focus capital in urban areas”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Helsley and Strange [25] presented a framework of urban capital markets in which credit is invested between insecure investment projects in cities of numerous sizes. Due to capital assets being differentiated and static, the non-payment value of a project relies on the optimum use of the assets and this is predicted to be more beneficial in big cities. Therefore, city

sizes offer a public input in urban capital markets. Item 16 shows that 187 respondents or 43.1% (median 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Urban residents benefit from a better form of education”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Liu, Holmes and Zhang [26] indicated that the educational integration of rural migrant children in Chinese urban schools has been fostered in recent decades. Migrant children’s socioeconomic status (SES) stages were significantly greater than the counterparts in inclusive schools and an obvious SES segmentation of migrant students was identified. Item 17 shows that 185 respondents or 42.6% (median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Urban residents benefit from better healthcare”. The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. de Oliveira, Doll, Siri, Dreyfus, Farzaneh and Capon [27] indicated that the phrase co-benefits denotes positive results accumulating from a strategy across the aimed result, frequently or commonly in other industries. In the urban setting, strategies implemented in specific industries, for instance transport and energy, frequently develop numerous co-benefits in other regions.

Item 18 shows that 174 respondents or 40.1% (median 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Urban residents benefit from the availability of information”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Michael [28] stated that the recent initiative to build a modern incorporated land information system is an important process worth emphasising. Item 19 showed that a total of 173 respondents or 39.9% (median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Urban residents benefit from the dissemination of information”. The semi-interquartile range is 1.

Item 20 shows that 156 respondents or 35.9% (median 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Urban residents benefit from the supply of larger life maintenance goods”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Hamilton et al. [29] described the concept and challenges of an *nD* urban information framework. The study focused on the process to create one *nD* information framework to adapt data sets related to dissimilar elements of city planning. City planning is a complicated process and consequently demands interrelation between numerous elements of a city, for instance, transport, pollution and crime. A city framework is important for representing urban questions in a clear way to the comparative stakeholders. Even though several city frameworks have been utilised in the planning process, city planning is frequently based on small data sets. The quality of urban living is commonly regarded as a more comprehensive analysis of city questions throughout the planning process.

Item 21 shows that 166 respondents (38.2% and median 4.0000) agreed with “Urban residents benefit from a greater supply of food”. The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. Wascher and Jeurissen [30] discussed the purpose of Life Cycle Thinking, the metropolitan Foodscape Planner (MFP) instrument that offers ecological step maps and supply or demand information, therefore displaying huge potential for metropolitan food supplies. The predominant worldwide trade agro-food arrangements, regions land use shift, competition for space and so forth were paying particular interest to the Dutch technique into international agro-food-chains. Suggestions for developing sustainable foodscapes in metropolitan areas are based on food-directed spatial planning, for instance, cross-territory cooperation, food chain innovation and footprint evaluations.

Item 22 (“Urban residents benefit from greater housing supply”) had 164 respondents or 37.8% in agreement (median 4.0000). The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. Glaeser et al. [31] described an uncomplicated framework of housing stagnancy that predicts that sites with more flexible housing supply have fewer and shorter periods of stagnancy, with narrower price rises. Housing prices are unstable compared to observable shifts in first principles. The wellbeing outcomes of stagnancy can be greater in more flexible sites due to the sites expected to be over-developed in response to stagnancy. The price increases of the 1980s were nearly

exclusively experienced in cities because the housing supply was more inelastic. More elastic sites had moderately greater increases in construction throughout that period. Across the last 5 years, a moderate amount of more elastic sites experienced huge price growth rapidly; however, as the framework recommends, these rapid progressions were short-lived. Prices are currently moving back into building costs in the regions.

Item 23 (“The modern form of urban growth is urban type *megapolis*/metropolis (for example New York, Panama City Illinois, Mexico City and Sao Paulo)”) had 133 respondents or 30.6% in agreement (median is 4.0000). The semi-interquartile range is 2. Clifton, Ewing, Knaap and Song [32] classified and reviewed multi-disciplinary techniques of urban pattern. This starts by categorising quantitative techniques to analyse the urban pattern towards five categories: landscape ecology, economic structure, surface transportation, community planning and urban planning. This subsequently reviews quantitative assessments in every category. Based on the review, four summaries were generated. First, over the past two decades, considerable advancement has been yielded in the capability to assess and analyse spatial trends that assist in classifying urban patterns. Second, at numerous ranges and for a diversity of causes, there are benefits to growth that are dense. Third, normative doctrines and strategies for resolving urban patterns need to be designed at numerous ranges and carefully planned to solve the dissimilar questions that a rise at every range. Fourth, with numerous different assessments currently utilised to operationalise the similar constructs, this expected advance in urban pattern study has several standardisations in operational meanings and measurement protocols.

Item 24 shows that 125 respondents agreed with “Suburbanization is a modern form of urban growth (for example Manhaen in Ghana, Rotterdam in the Netherlands and Pokhara in Nepal)”, which is 28.8% (median 3.0000). The semi-interquartile range is 1.5. Feng and Zhou [33] performed systematic research on the spatial distribution of inhabitants in Hangzhou across more than 30 years based on information from various national censuses including the latest one (the fifth census in 2000). This study identified that unifying flows of inhabitants in Hangzhou predominated in the 1960s and 1970s, whereas outward flows of inhabitants predominated in the 1980s, with suburbanization taking place. There were 172 respondents that replied “Do not know” for item 25 (“Border cities are a modern form of urban growth (for example Miri and Bukit Kayu Hitam)”, or 39.6% (median is 3.0000). The semi-interquartile range is 1.5. Martinez [34] indicated that throughout the past decade, a growing number of historians have started to research the Chicano experience. However, they have allocated low concern to the function of the United States-Mexico territory, notably the transformation of the Chicano citizens. Knowledge of territory growth is sourced largely from the latest commitments of scholars in other fields. Stimulated by the region’s fast inhabitant development, enhanced urbanization, and initial economic growth, sociologists, economists and geographers have increased the amount of study on the territory after the middle of the 1960s.

Item 26 shows that 159 respondents or 36.6% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Global cities are modern forms of urban growth (for example New York, London, Tokyo, Paris and Singapore)”. The semi-interquartile range is 2. Shatkin [35] attempts to reformulate discussions on the asset effects of spatial, socioeconomic and political shifts in worldwide cities in developing states via a review of the latest publications on this subject. Based on the publication review, the paper recommends an optional model for analysing the connection between worldwide city growth and the disparity that concentrates on the three processes of shift, notably the creation of public-private collaborations in urban governance, the spatial effects of the privatisation of designing and the flexibility of workers. Item 27 shows that 194 respondents or 44.7% (median is 4.0000) agreed with the

statement “Economic groups exist in urban areas”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Rusetskaya [36] indicated that common characteristics are separated into two larger clusters: social and economic. This thought allows for potential analysis of comparative achievements of cities from dissimilar perspectives, for instance, two-dimensional grouping, notably city ranking by uncomplicated measuring of the distance from root; minimum sum of squares grouping and so forth.

Item 28 shows that 164 respondents or 37.8% (median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “The working class service division is an economic group in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Bonnell [37] indicated that there is much to be learned from assuming an insight into the historical function performed by urban employees in the end years of autocratic government. These consist of the meaning and formation of the urban working class, segmentation, rank categorisation, identity creation between urban employees and the occupation context and the effect on employees’ experiences and perceptions. Item 29 shows that 164 respondents or 37.8% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “The wealthy professional working class is an economic group in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Bettencourt, Samaniego and Youn [38] indicated the variety in the United States of America metropolitan regions in terms of career variety and occupation to indicate the technique that this frequency dispersion considers on a worldwide scale-invariant pattern. Item 30 shows that 152 respondents or 35% (median 4.0000) agreed with “Economic inequality is the effect of the existence of an economic group”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Thorbecke and Charumilind [39] indicated that earning disparity is of basic concern not only to economists but also to other social scientists. Other publications in economics and the social sciences has investigated the connection between earning disparity as well as economic development and a diversity of social phenomena. The connections among disparity and economic development are examined as well as between disparity and specified important social variables such as education, health and so forth.

Item 31 shows that a total of 168 respondents or 38.7% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Service sector employment has prompted influx of immigrants that tend to work in low paid jobs”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. James, Romine and Zwanzig [40] examined the effect of immigrants on large United States of America cities. This was based mainly on a review of existing studies. Nevertheless, a benefit of the 1996 database is that it is utilised to formulate several recent data. The study indicates that immigrants have boosted the inhabitants of several main central cities following 1970 and in several cases, created inhabitant development. However, once the immigrants decrease, it will affect the cities, reducing the populations of cities. Nevertheless, between large cities, the total number of immigrants is rapidly increasing, resulting in healthy economies, for instance, Dallas, Fort Worth and San Jose. Item 32 shows that 157 respondents or 36.2% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “The city has served as a powerful political actor”. The semi-interquartile range is 1.5. Ylonen [41] implied in current years concern in the international political function of cities has increased. Cities can employ public sourcing to encourage international political targets.

Item 33 shows that 186 respondents (42.9% and median 4.0000) agreed with “The city has served as a powerful economic actor”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Liu [42] indicated that in 2015, there were divisions into two parts for Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa (BRICS) and increasing economies, notably the whole BRICS economic development weakened or stagnated causing more unfortunate estimates. However simultaneously, the New Development Bank was established. The advancement of the preliminary institutionalisation of BRICS was primarily motivated by China and Russia, which manifested the powerful want to increase a multilateral global order, and to build a recent power foundation for the non-Western states. Item 34 shows that 188 respondents (43.3% and median 4.0000) agreed with “Cities play a role in promoting economic growth”.

The semi-interquartile range is 1. Fainstein [43] indicated that in the United States and Great Britain, the concern of urban designing has shifted from controlling to fostering growth. The reasons for this shift have been economic reorganisation, conservative national governments and a learning process contributing to a proactive technique. Item 35 indicates that 154 respondents (35.5% and median 4.0000) agreed with “Cities exist because of the economic grouping in production that does not exist in the rural areas”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Ashanaei [44] discussed how to comprehend the global economy using the potential to interpret the society of various living entities functioning both on national stages as well as on the international level. The global economy can be taken control of exclusively and dynamically as specific arrangements exist in a permanent movement and growth because the components creating this are experiencing continual transitions.

There were 181 respondents (41.7% and median 4.0000) that agreed with item 36 (“There is a local economic grouping such as grouping of industries within the city”). The semi-interquartile range is 1.5. Stanciulescu [45] indicated that urban marketing is an essential component in the policies for economic growth of the cities, supplying the total vision of the policy. This assists cities to fulfil numerous objectives, notably, encouraging recent national or international firms, centralising industrial infrastructure, growing tourism and varying and strengthening transport and health services. However, this has to sustain a specific stage or break up public expenditures and confront the difficult task of encouraging recent investors. Item 37 shows that a total of 165 respondents (38% and median 4.0000) agreed with “Agglomeration of urbanization economics shows the overall size of the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1.375. Gabriel and Rosenthal [46] examined the impact of urban conurbation on connectivity to mortgage credit applying the Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) data from 1994 to 2008. Preceding research recommended that conurbation was supposed to increase connectivity to specialised employees and data, both of which were supposed to increase refinancing in mortgage lending. Findings indicated that conurbation economies increased mortgage origination levels and loan amounts in the 1990s and particularly in greater threat areas (namely in metropolitan areas with less educated residents and housing prices are high [47]).

Item 38 shows that 146 respondents or 33.6% (median 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Cities play a role in reducing poverty”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Berdegue, Corriazo, Jara, Modrego and Soloaga [48] explore the impacts of the increasing urbanization of rural regions in Chile, Colombia and Mexico and hypothesise that the emergence of small-and medium-sized cities inside rural-urban borders increases economic development as well as lessens poverty and earning disparity compared to deep-rural as well as metropolitan borders. The findings recommended that these urban centres possibly create a higher contribution to the levels of economic development and poverty decrease in rural urban borders contrasted to deep-rural ones; however, in several cases, there was a growth in earning disparity. Item 39 indicated that 171 respondents or 39.4% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Personal income increases occurred in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Lobmayer and Wilkinson [49] stated that the connection between earning disparity and inhabitant death levels inside the United States was mediated by the level of dwelling stratification among affluent and poor. Stratification inside urban regions is connected with an additional mortality impact. The connection between earning disparity and mortality in these metropolitan statistical regions was identified to be independent of the level of economic stratification among the constituent neighbourhoods.

Item 40 shows that 176 respondents or 40.6% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Quality of life growth takes place in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1.375.

El Din, Shalaby, Farouh and Elariane [50] indicated that urban quality of life is an idea that has been examined in different research studies as a response to numerous questions confronting new towns throughout the world but especially in Egypt. A matrix summarising the connection between the doctrines of these current urban planning theories and methods as well as urban quality of life aspects was established for the purpose of attaining a set of doctrines that solve physical, mobility, social, psychological, economical and political interests known as urban quality of life doctrines. Item 41 shows that 153 respondents (35.3% and median is 3.0000) agreed with the statement “Sixty percent (60%) of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or income is generated by the city area”. The semi-interquartile range is 1.5. Bea.gov [51] indicated that real GDP enhanced in 267 out of 382 metropolitan regions in 2016, referring to statistics on the geographic catalyst of GDP currently presented by the Bureau of Economic Analysis. Real GDP for metropolitan region development is between 8.1% in Lake Charles and Bend-Redmond.

Item 42 shows that 176 respondents or 40.6% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Commodity trading occurs in urban areas”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Sheppard [52] indicated that the two sources of urban development variations that closely originate from the interdependencies among cities are unbalanced earnings from interurban commodity commerce and spatial variations in corporate ownership. These phenomena have the possibility of unequally reallocating the physical and monetary surplus from production among cities. Item 43 shows that 177 respondents or 40.8% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Services trading takes place in urban areas”. The semi-interquartile range is 0.875. Ruback [53] indicated that the stock market responded to the occurrences contributing to the integration among city service and occidental petroleum. These occurrences comprise a favourable and a unfavourable tender for city service by mesa petroleum, a favourable and two unfavourable tenders for mesa petroleum for city service, an integrating agreement between gulf oil and city service, city service’s repurchase of stock held by mesa and a standstill agreement between mesa and city service, gulf oil’s termination of the integrating agreement with city service, and two favourable tenders and one unfavourable tender by occidental petroleum for city service.

Item 44 shows that 150 respondents or 34.6% (median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Primary source trading exists in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Lubis, Nasution and Maulina [54] indicated that the formation of a city frequently starts due to the accessibility of natural resources that fulfil the fundamental needs of the populations; however, following this, the city depends on the stability of those fundamental needs, which is mainly reliant on transportation. Item 45 shows that 176 respondents or 40.6% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “The city undertakes processed energy trading”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Barrera, Carreon and de Boer [55] stated that cities have turned into major centres of consuming and transition of resources. As cities continue to increase in physical size, populations and overall energy consumption, there are new and unique challenges arising from the cities. Item 46 indicated that 177 respondents or 40.8% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Food trading exists in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. Greater Dandenong.com [56] studied how the encouraging estimate continues to develop every day. There is continuing proof of enhanced food associated businesses and cultural activities as well as demand for food products.

Item 47 shows that 188 respondents or 43.3% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “The city performs material trading or material commodity”. The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. Baynes and Musango [57] implied that urban material resource specifications are important at the worldwide stage and these are projected to increase with upcoming urban inhabitant development. Urban domestic material

consumption is importantly associated to urban GDP and the opposite of inhabitant denseness in a multivariate regression that is consistent with preceding statistical analysis at the national stage. Item 48 shows that 186 respondents or 42.9% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Increased knowledge is a city advantage”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Huston and Warren [58] stated that the notion of the knowledge city appears from preceding economic constructs; however, this is condensed at the urban range. There are two versions, notably a technical version and a version nourished with institutional and social aspects. The restricted analysis of selected secondary data recommends that the knowledge city and powerful middle strata inhabitant development supply several securities from economic and apparently property market imbalance. Item 49 shows that 177 respondents or 40.8% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Raised consumption of resources takes place in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Sun and Wu [59] implied that Chinese rural and urban customers were identified to be statistically dissimilar in the behaviours in marketing, notably product price, brand names, promotions and dispersion. As an outcome of these different behaviours, rural and urban customers were identified to utilise dissimilar products to improve their quality of life.

There were 179 respondents or 41.2% (median is 4.0000) that agreed with item 50 “Per capita consuming increases as urban size increases and there is a large range in producer services”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Larson and Yezer [60] developed a recent urban simulation framework with endogenous inhabitants, housing supply and demand, highway utilisation and overpopulation. These characteristics permit the framework to encourage cities of dissimilar sizes with a single parameterisation and consequently to examine the partial impact of city size dissimilarities on economic activity. The framework is employed in the significant challenge of the energy impacts of city size and denseness. Item 51 shows that 196 respondents or 45.2% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Economic development rate is high in urban areas”. The semi-interquartile range is 0.875. Belitski [61] stated that input accessibility, quality of institutions and scale economies create an important contribution to the economy concerning occupation and development. The latest research describes how the variability in urban economic development has changed the attention to urban regions of the developed and developing world with insufficient study performed on urban development catalysts in transformation economies.

Item 52 shows that 168 respondents or 38.7% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Better productivity due to better technology diffusion occurs in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Ahrend, Lembcke and Schumann [62] indicated the way urban conurbations, notably cities, impact on economic productivity. This uses an internationally harmonised definition of cities that intends to collect the true scope of an urban conurbation and is not restricted by organisational city territories. Worker productivity increases with city size. Within The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), metropolitan regions (conurbations with greater than 500,000 inhabitants) have a 1% inhabitant growth that is connected with a 0.12% rise in average worker productivity. There were 154 respondents or 35.5% (median is 4.0000) that agreed with item 53 (“Higher population facilitates human relations in the city”). The semi-interquartile range is 1. Mamaghani, Asadollahi and Mortezaei [63] showed that the current industrialisation of modern communities worldwide has a considerable impact on decreasing the conventional techniques of communication between individuals. The cities of the world are in need of more spaces that meet the needs of the socio-cultural connections of the individuals. As a result, forming more spaces for individuals that attempt to resolve the shortage of human communication and interaction is essential.

Item 54 showed that 174 respondents or 40.1% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Greater population accelerates the flow of information in the city”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Hoornweg and Pope [64] projected the number of inhabitants to 2100 for the world’s greater cities. Three socioeconomic situations with numerous stages of stability and international collaboration are examined and individual optimal predictions recorded for every city in the worldwide urbanization estimate. In 2010, 757 million inhabitants lived in the 101 biggest cities, notably 11% of the global inhabitants. By the end of the century, international inhabitants are forecasted to range from 6.9 billion to 13.1 billion, with 15–23% of inhabitants living in 101 of the biggest cities, notably 1.6–2.3 billion. Item 55 shows that 186 respondents or 42.9% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “The high population is concerned with the focus on urban education”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Foote [65] examines the position of education in urban schools that are in demand. The latest attention in the discipline of education is on the gap in attainments experienced by students in high-need urban schools as contrasted to students from urban, suburban and rural schools with greater economic resources. One approach to overcome this phenomenon is to raise the knowledge, skills and inclinations of teacher applicants, teachers and higher education faculty.

Item 56 showed that 187 respondents or 43.1% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Greater population in relation to research facilities encourages original thinking and attracts interest of people with more creativity”. The semi-interquartile range is 0.5. Foreman [66] examined research-founded traits and features of the creative process between second year Title 1 (namely high school in urban area that located in lower income residential). Throughout the theoretical model of social equality, this micro-ethnographic research examined the meaning of teaching and learning to be creative and recommends a possible solution for art teachers to teach children creatively. Item 57 showed that 188 respondents or 43.3% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “The city provides many job opportunities”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Zhang and Man [67] evaluate employment connectivity for residents residing in low-priced housing to occupation centres through public transport, involving the urban metro and buses. This was done by comparing the middle and small earning cluster that primarily utilises public transport and the better earning cluster that largely travels by car. Results exhibit a connectivity disparity for dissimilar methods of transportation as travel by public transport took almost double the amount of time as travel by car.

Item 58 shows that 191 respondents or 44% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Many facilities are provided in the city area”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Michell [68] explained the idea of adopting infrastructure organisational doctrines from the micro-building stage range, to a macro-range, which concentrates on the urban district. This aspect continues to be an unexplored space in infrastructure organisation, notably the amenity perspective or urban infrastructure organisation in the city. Item 59 shows that 154 respondents or 35.5% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Urban areas try to overcome environmental problems”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Dodman [69] undertook a study on urban ecological questions that always attribute higher significance to technical calculations than to the experience of the city’s populations. The frequency and rigidity clusters of residents are encouraged to react to these dissimilar techniques. The research determined the possibility of individuals and societies to address these.

Item 60 showed that a total of 142 respondents or 32.7% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Urban areas try to address traffic problems”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Makino, Tamada, Sakai and Kamijo [70] elaborated that in recent years, traffic crowding, traffic accidents and the decline of the ecological setting due to an increase in inhabitants, raising urbanization and growing car ownership have caused several challenges in the Asia-Pacific areas. Intelligent transport systems (ITS) are

systems that attempt to overcome numerous road traffic challenges employing information communication technologies. Item 61 shows that 139 respondents or 32% (median is 4.0000) agreed with the statement “Urban areas are trying to solve housing problems”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Choguill [71] reflected that three-quarters of urban inhabitants are incapable of obtaining housing because of the low incomes in Bangladesh. The government, due to a deficiency of resources, does not command the finance to start to overcome this challenge. Item 62 indicated that 137 respondents or 31.6% (median is 4.0000) agreed with “Urban areas try to address pollution problems”. The semi-interquartile range is 1. Zheng and Kahn [72] state that China’s progressing urban economic development has rapidly increased the inhabitant’s per capita earning, reduced the number of residents residing under the poverty line, and resulted in many ecological challenges. As the urban inhabitant becomes wealthier, the need for private transportation and electricity rapidly increases. Privately advantageous activity worsens urban contamination.

The findings of the research differs to several previous studies, for example Robaa [73], which stated that urbanization and industrialisation processes have affected measurements of human pleasure in all districts. The perception of “quite pleasurable” decreased from the old non-urbanised time to the current urbanised situation in four districts. Across the present urbanised timeframe, the rural region has the greatest overall number of “quite pleasurable” hours, whereas both urban and industrial regions have the smallest overall number of hours. A severe high temperature inconvenience did not occur at all districts in the old non-urbanised time, whereas across the current urbanised timeframe, all urban and industrial region citizens perceived very high temperature inconvenience. This can be summarised as the urbanization and industrialisation processes increasing the human perception of severe high temperature inconvenience, which consequently causes more limitations for human activities whereas the rural phenomena causes maximum weather comfort for additional human activities.

Chandrasekarayya and Ganesh [74] stated that the levels of urbanization were higher than the national average in Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Karnataka, Punjab and West Bengal. These states are largely economically or industrially grown with larger per capita income, comprising a great density of economic activities. The patterns in the development of urban inhabitants are categorised by dichotomy. The speed of development has essentially been great compared to the backward states such as Assam, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Orissa, Himachal Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh. The share of urban inhabitants in medium-sized towns has continued in the majority of the states. Nevertheless, in hilly states such as Arunachal Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, a large number of urban inhabitants are in micro-scale strata towns as well as medium-sized towns. In the case of Assam, the share of inhabitants by scale is behind in advancement. Agriculture is the keystone of the economy and the chance for vast as well as heavy industry in these states is restricted due to topographical and other factors; consequently, there is lower immigration that causes a smaller trend in urbanization. Economic advancement has been considered an important predictor for growing urbanization, which has been proved from the analysis of the patterns and trends of the urban phenomenon between main states.

Witon [75] stated that the urbanization process demands a reasonable number of commands and planning if this is to be regarded as one of the highest significant factors in Chinese economic development. A transformation of the hukou arrangement is important. More study is needed. In 1800, only 12% of the world’s inhabitants resided in urban areas, notably this had not changed for thousands of years. In the same way of the year 2008, the number of citizens residing in cities had diminished by 50%. In that manner there are more citizens residing in the cities throughout the world than there are residing in the countryside. The dynamic advancement of urban groups

in arising and growing markets in Africa as well as Asia has significantly influenced this occurrence. It is projected that by 2050, as much as 75% of the world's inhabitants are expected to reside in cities. The process of urbanization does not decelerate. The urbanization index has reached 51.8%. Beginning in 1981, the number of citizens living in cities was below 20%. Evidently this cannot be contradicted by economic development positively affecting the advancement of urban regions. Industrialisation is an important component of the level of China's advancement in the past three decades and transformations in the arrangement of the economy from agriculture to industry as well as supplies are producing new employment opportunities. The majority of these employment opportunities are produced in the cities due to these areas containing more companies. The development of urbanization positively affects the economy's efficacy via the economies of scale; faster influx impacts firms; larger concentrations of citizens in a particular region enhances efficacy by reducing the cost of investment per person and by growing larger returns per person primarily pertaining to public supplies; as well as the likelihood of accomplishing the important level of human capital, which is the number of aggregated human resources essential for invention.

The growth of urban concentration shows the occurrence of suburban zones as urban regions, notably 81 persons per ha considers 3.3 persons per household and 25 households per hectare, a measurement regarded as "urban". The process starts with rural land subdivision, for single family homes, and continues to change via incremental subdivision towards greater concentration advancements on un-serviced land. Concentration for suburban regions is based on the calculation of 3.3 persons per household and is sustained at smaller than 20 households per hectare, signifying that in the city, the formal process of suburbanization is attained for the standard of concentration and urban development. Nevertheless, the informal urban development process displays an average concentration of 119 settlers per hectare; notably, if each household has 3.5 persons, the outcomes are expected to be 34 households per hectare. Urbanization occurrence is different, particularly concerning urban enhancement mechanisms in surrounding regions. The processes of suburbanization and peri-urbanization eventually cause metropolitan and territorial trends. Urban compounds are difficult because of the arrangement of recent urban networks containing major cities contributing to the approach to the integration of recent urban midpoints, which rapidly attain one million inhabitants and an adequate concentration of fundamental urban supplies. The development of intermediate cities produces other processes, for instance suburbanization, peri-urbanization and counter urbanization, which is associated in Latin America with the urbanization process as well as unrevealed urbanization [76]. Megeri, Kadi and Kengnal [77] reported that the trend of urbanization in India occurs on a larger magnitude because of the demographic abilities. The enhanced inhabitants' tension has allowed several settlers entering the manpower and caused entering urban midpoints.

The urbanization process in the cities shows that recent decades have been categorised by the rapid development from central regions to peripheral regions, which has substantially enhanced social stratification and socio-ecological separation in the cities. This is an outcome of a sudden and non-planned urbanization process, showing that urban planning needs to be strategically evaluated in economic, social and ecological phases with the goal of accomplishing sustainable cities in Latin America. The number of inhabitants in Latin America has enhanced quickly because of natural inhabitants' development and migratory movements from rural regions to intermediate cities as well as big metropolises, producing a physical enhancement instead of demographic development. The transition of metropolitan regions to urban areas produces strong physical enhancement, socio-economic dwelling stratification, social disparity, metropolitan reorganisation and recent public strategies on housing as well as occupation. Peri-urban regions are categorised by the greatest dynamic

of transformation because of migration of affluent households searching for better living standards and a natural landscape as well as poor families. Nevertheless, these regions are deficient in integrated facilities, urban material and fundamental supplies, producing a negative effect on the standard of living for recent settlers. Urbanization and socioeconomic elements show that in the three cities, notably Buenos Aires, Santiago de Chile and Mexico City, enhancements in the standard of living produce a decline in slums and poverty, displaying that socioeconomic elements have a direct connection with urbanization that essentially grow cyclically; in times of downturn the cities broaden horizontally if land is low-priced, and integrate in times of economic development. Latin America is forming more areas with rising needs for public supplies, infrastructure and the labour market [76].

4. Conclusion

The majority of the respondents agreed with items pertaining to urbanization according to the data collected through the survey. The findings of the research differ with several previous results. Notably, in a previous study on the urbanization process in cities, recent decades have been categorised by the rapid development from centred regions to peripheral regions, which has fundamentally enhanced social stratification and socio-ecological separation in the cities. The growth of urban concentration shows the occurrence of suburban zones as “urban” notably a quantification regarded as urban region. Across the present urbanised timeframe, the rural region has the greatest overall number of “quite pleasurable” hours, whereas both urban and industrial regions have the lowest overall number of hours. The very high temperature inconvenience was not perceived in all districts across the old non-urbanised time whereas across the current urbanised timeframe, all citizens in the urban and industrial regions perceived a very high temperature inconvenience.

Acknowledgements


The author wishes to thank the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia, for funding this study under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS), S/O code 13228, and Research and Innovation Management Centre, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, for the administration of this study.

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Strategy of Urbanization

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Abstract

The strategy of urbanization comprises numerous domains and this is mapped by the size of the population in an urban area. There are approximately 1.6 billion citizens (equivalent to 40% of all global inhabitants) currently residing in urban regions. A rapid movement to cities is the central component of a state's advancement policy, comprising a growth in the urbanization level. Consequently, it is important that states grow, distinguish, finance and implement efficient urban planning as well as land consumption rules. These rules need to be planned properly by organisations that can assist in attaining effectiveness in urban shape and organising cities for forthcoming enhancement. The strategies facilitate conurbation as every fraction of land is large but incentives for vertical remediation are not available. As urbanization continues and increases in velocity, states are expected to make large investments in the cities to maintain the present stages of supplies in urban regions as well as larger regions if urbanization does not increase.

Keywords: action, capitalise, cooperation, integration, project, strategy

1. Introduction

The strategy of urbanization may comprise numerous domains and this is mapped by the size of the population in an urban area. Urbanization is an inevitable condition for encouraging social development, which has led many countries to explore strategies of urbanization [1]. As countries aim to increase urbanization, the approach to develop resources in the cities is important [2]. Countries have different policies regarding urban growth and development and these policies are being translated into workable programs [3]. Urbanization strategies correlate with the changes in land use and impacts rural communities in rural areas [4]. However, in Southeast Asia, the level of urbanization is low compared to the world standard [5]. It is essential to adopt strategies in population management, human resources, economic growth and so forth [6]. The adoption of a new urbanization strategy is an important decision for development [7]. Growth in the variety of amenities, buildings, industries, business, and other sectors can help produce a strategy in transition and economic development [8]. Significant challenges will be faced by policy makers in future urbanization and urban development [9]. There are approximately 1.6 billion citizens (40% of the global inhabitants) currently residing in urban regions. At the start of 1880, the urban inhabitants of the world accounted for only 25 million. Based on current United Nations calculations, by 2000 nearly 3.1 billion citizens are expected to be residing in urban regions by 2000. Scholars and policy makers frequently disagree about whether this is due to assessing the desirability of current rapid levels of urban development in several portions of the world. There are various views on this pattern of promoting national processes of socioeconomic

advancement, primarily in the poorer and rapidly urbanising states of the Third World countries. Some consider the outcomes to be typically unwanted and believe that specified urban development should be weakened. To look for opposing or persuasive proof of rapid levels of urban development in developing states, the Human Settlements and Services Area commenced a study project in 1977 to investigate the process of structural transition in nations growing from typically rural-agrarian to urban-industrial communities. Data from numerous states were chosen as case studies and the study concentrates on spatial inhabitant development as well as economic advancement, and on the resource as well as supply needs [10].

The development of cities and towns was expected to decrease costs for supply delivery, free up land in rural regions, as well as broaden chances for clustering economies. Simultaneously, urban development was expected to grow the needs of land, infrastructure and supply delivery in the cities. States have to plan for future urbanization, confine disparities in the regulatory model and invest strategically in the cities to broaden connectivity to supplies as well as sustain competitiveness and chances for the private sector. Urbanization is associated with economic advancement; notably no state can achieve intermediate income status without an advanced stage of urbanization. Specific areas, towns and cities across a state can function as a catalyst for economic advancement and employment generation throughout the state. The theories of economic geography do not forecast economic specialisation or which regions and industries will be expected to benefit the most from economic development. In reality, the empirical evidence shows that the characteristic of city competitiveness and development are expected to rely very heavily domestic situations. Consequently, diversification and historical direction dependencies expected to perform an important function [11].

The rapid movement to cities is a central component of a state's advancement policy, comprising a growth in the urbanization level. The state goal is to facilitate urbanization through rural urban migration, unlocking productive land, supplying non-agricultural urban employment opportunities, and consequently decreasing the threats for social dispute and economic instability. The connection between economic development and urbanization is inadequate, and states are expected to reinforce the correlations between the rural and urban regions to exploit the advantages of urbanization and produce more employment opportunities. Changing to more generative activities in urban regions is expected to prompt economic development and simultaneously urbanization. This, consequently, reinforces the connection between rural and urban productivity as well as prompt a continuous cycle and attain a quicker dispersal of the advantages of economic development in urban and rural regions. The condition of inefficiency of densely populated area of urban, for instance, small concentrations and unregulated urban enhancement, weakens the efficient allocation of supplies as well as increasing the cost of conducting commercial business. Urban enhancement is unsustainable if the state's towns and cities continue to produce small concentrations of uncontrolled dispersion. Present initiatives to overcome the deficiency of land and supplies are expected to temporarily mitigate the needs for housing as well as land in urban regions. Nevertheless, if adopted systematically, these initiatives can weaken the aims of sustainable urbanization [11].

Consequently, it is important that states grow, distinguish, finance and implement efficient urban planning as well as land consumption rules. These rules need to be planned by properly equipped organisations that can attain effectiveness in urban shape and organise cities for future enhancement. States are expected to contribute to large investments in the cities to maintain the present levels of supplies in urban regions and perhaps larger investments if urbanization does not increase.

High urbanization development levels and small connectivity to supplies are expected to impact growing investment specifications for facilities by maintaining the present stages of supply. Consequently, the state is supposed to utilise adjustable supply criteria to allow accepted remediation across a restricted fiscal space. Agribusiness and tourism are possibly the greatest employment-generating industries in the short and medium term. Agricultural processing is presently the most restricted, whereas dispersion channels such as wholesale markets are identified to be informal, segmented and ineffective. Future growth in farming productivity can only be produced from intensification and production gains. Productivities are restricted by a variety of interconnected factors, for instance, decreasing soil fertility, small consumption of enhanced inputs and modern technologies, restricted connectivity to credit and so forth [11].

Commercial agriculture that can organise inputs and mechanisms more effectively is presently restricted by the problem of accumulating land. Therefore, only market-directed agriculture is expected to permit rural households a sufficient sustenance from the micro-plots, abundant workers, and comparatively large water resources. The major restrictions stopping the development of the lower sections of the value chains are processing and dispersion, addressed typically in urban and peri-urban regions, as described below [11]:

- a. The deficiency of domestic needs.
- b. The industries' cost competitiveness versus imports, because of energy costs.
- c. The lower quality expectation of domestically processed commodities.
- d. The restricted connectivity to financing.
- e. The small capacity and deficiency of the private sector to overcome the commercial, operational, technical and financial difficulties of market advancement as well as for which the industry get limited aid notably from peers, clients, suppliers and from the public.

There are numerous important challenges that the state must solve to capitalise on urbanization and generate production as well as employment from rising industries, for instance, tourism and agribusiness. Acknowledging that the prevailing non-farm employment is increasing in informal and micro-companies, the findings determine that this industry adds the highest value, as well as the factors stopping increases in development and production. Household and informal companies are expected to continue to contribute to the rising manpower available in cities. Consequently, the findings determine that policies should remove obstacles to employment generation and retain a high number of specific industries that develop quickly. Acknowledging insufficient resources, the state is supposed to concentrate on solving the principal restrictions to effective urbanization. This comprises determining important sectoral constraints, favouring treatments and supplying obvious as well as detailed execution policies and funding flows. The suggestions are arranged by the demand for additional diagnostics, investments to reinforce organisations and infrastructure as well as intended treatments concentrated on the city and sectors. The proposals involve particular execution policies and lessons from international experience [11].

As urbanization continues and increases in velocity, states are expected to make large investments in the cities to maintain the present levels of supplies in urban

regions as well as larger investments if the levels do not increase. High urbanization development and small connectivity to supplies are expected to impact growing investment specifications for infrastructure to maintain the present levels of supply. Confining the disparities in the present supply allocation and projected future needs disregards the urbanization phenomenon. Four spheres of important interest for the state to identify the advancement impacts and urbanization advantages of economic development comprise [11]:

- a. Invest in reinforcing the capital city for the greatest profits for the state.
- b. Change the medium- to long-term focus to improving situations in other cities throughout the state.
- c. Increase connectivity and transportation supplies linking rural regions to the capital city.
- d. Strategies to enhance rural production need to respond to a bigger need from urban markets.

Important in overcoming the state's urban advancement difficulties is the need to enhance spatial and land management, urban planning and land as well as property rights management and reinforcing institutional delivery capacity as well as implementation. The state is expected to reinforce property rights, decrease barriers for land registration and search for efficient mechanisms to overcome land disagreements. Increasing the proficiencies of public officers, protecting the financing, setting standardised mechanisms, systematising registries and attaining consistency throughout decentralised offices are among the challenges. The authority must pay attention to protecting proficient cooperation and implementation of prevailing de-concentrated and decentralised land records. Whereas decentralised entities to inventory property rights are broadening, the authority must strive to gather, systematise and store register data. As part of improving rapidly urbanised and effective urban land consumption as well as spatial advancement, the authority must undertake an exhaustive evaluation of the economic and social impacts of the present strategies of concentrations of populations in villages or villagisation and housing development or lottissement. These strategies aim to offer a remediation for land shortage in urban regions and partially strive to solve drawbacks of urban disparity. The strategies facilitate conurbation as every fraction of land is large, whereas incentives for vertical remediation are not available [11].

The two draft laws on urbanization, habitat and construction and on regional planning should be ratified. Sanction of these laws is expected to prompt the need for execution of the institutional mechanism and modalities supplied for in the laws. This can offer encouragement for efficient urban management, notably comprising generation of an Urban Commission to organise spatial planning in the national, provincial and community stage. Furthermore, this is expected to be significant for reorganising and upgrading the present standard meaning of urban regions in the state, as this is expected to have precise impacts for investment demands and priorities. The recent standard considers spatial variables, for instance, proximity of buildings and land consumptions as well as consistency with present and future regions of urbanization interpreted in the master plans. Once the state's restricted resources have been identified, attempts should be prioritised into value chains that aim to improve the employment prospects. The following method is suggested [11]:

- a. Connect the competitiveness of the state's agribusiness sub-industries on the domestic, territorial and global markets.
- b. Produce public and private discourse platforms for every value chain and for the agribusiness industry.
- c. Determine priority sub-industries and restrictions that need improvements.
- d. Execute targeted action plans to enhance the competitiveness of the priority sub-industries and stimulate investment.

The intended action plan is executed in five steps, as follows [11]:

- a. Increase the amount of important infrastructure for instance roads, storage and wholesale markets.
- b. Enhance connectivity to low-priced logistics and storage supplies.
- c. Overcome human capital difficulties.
- d. Supply technical needs to agribusiness companies.
- e. Undertake investor outreach campaigns.

International practice shows that a tourism industry starts to develop three to 4 years after a state has finished institutional and ecological transformations and after investing persistently in the industry. To increase the development and competitiveness of the tourism industry, the state needs to [11]:

- a. Solve the fundamental requirements for tourism and basic restrictions first, for instance, protection and safety challenges.
- b. Organise and set rules for the tourism industry.
- c. Begin with growing micro-scale pilot projects that concentrate on places and market segments with the biggest value produced per investment.
- d. Invest in the territorial element by continuing to incorporate into the society and the dynamic tourism circuits.
- e. Undertake maintained competencies advancement and marketing programs.

2. Strategy of urbanization

2.1 Horizontal interventions: institutional policies and reforms

Numerous laws and a unifying strategy vision for overcoming urbanization are lacking. To continue to reinforce organisations for cross-cutting transformations, significant actions are needed, as mentioned below [11]:

- a. Increase spatial management, urban planning and land and property rights management as well as reinforcing institutional delivery capacity and implementation.

- b. Decrease the regulatory responsibility for commercial business, formal and informal as well as throughout distinct industries.
- c. Reduce tax commitments to help companies.

Land consumption organisations and plans that facilitate urbanised cities are important to foster effective and sustainable urbanization. This benefits companies and citizens by supplying space for transport facilities, utilities and other urban supplies. The prevailing practice of spatial advancement is ineffective concerning land consumption and the rules, as well as implementation of property rights, need modification. The mixture of total inhabitants' development as well as ineffective land consumption in urban regions is expected to increase the threat of producing ineffective small towns with related economic and social costs. Reinforcing property rights at the rural stage can assist in attaining a healthy migration from rural to urban regions. Decreasing barriers for registrations and addressing land disagreements is also important [11].

Three particular transformations are needed to reinforce capacity and protect land property rights [11]:

- a. Derive a strategy of decentralisation broadening the systematic inventorying of land property rights to every hill, notably every hill across all localities invested with decentralised land supplies and broadening foundation of land supplies to additional localities exceeding the presently assisted via sponsor aided program.
- b. Strengthen the initiative to enhance, restructure and modernise conventional authority-funded land supplies as well as to enhance land registration record keeping and conservation of land registration.
- c. Increase the capacity, processes and mechanisms for relationship as well as intersection of de-concentrated and de-centralised or Communal Land Services supplies across a monitored and planned setting.

The advancement of a recent urban strategy and the approval of the codes on urbanization, habitat and construction and on regional planning are expected to prompt the need for execution of the institutional mechanisms as well as modalities supplied for in the laws. This will hopefully provide encouragement to urban management including the generation of a commission of urbanism to organise spatial planning between the national stage, the regions and the localities. The approval of codes accompanying the advancement of a recent national urban strategy should be followed by a comprehensive and time-sensitive action plan for the execution as well as affiliation of needed resources. There are three regions that are expected to be important for management of the next level of urbanization: fostering orderly urban enhancement, integration and completing land record arrangements, as well as increasing urban planning and managerial capacity in important urban midpoints. The planning of streets and roads to specify the expansion of land that is expected to be accessible for urban advancement, particularly in main cities, is considered. Sufficient expansions of land with appropriate designing of streets and road links are expected to benefit the broader major city in an ordered approach. Despite the fact that broadening regions possibly lead to a deficiency in connectivity to supplies in the start, in the future, as resources become accessible, the resources are expected to be low-priced [11].

Furthermore, accommodation is expected to remain informally dispersed, particularly in threat regions, for example, lack of efficient infrastructure and inequalities, whereas landlords and speculators are expected to maintain the most of the land, as in the majority of Latin American cities. Urban inhabitants are expected to continue increasing in numbers and the most probable situation is that allocation of supplies in the short-term is expected to not be possible because of fiscal restrictions. Nonetheless, recognising ordered and fully sufficient land in which urbanization can occur is expected to decrease the future costs of allocation as well as decrease the negative effects of speculation. Recognising these restrictions in the master plans is not expected to be sufficient. Roads should be planned to remove all accessible squares for recent accommodation. The building of unpaved prime road links throughout neighbourhoods is expected to occur in the second phase. Consequently, if economic advancement and tax income improves the accessibility of resources to invest on supplies allocation as well as transport facilities, transport routes and water and sanitation networks, then a well-designed city exists. This should be undertaken on a large scale to prevent speculation in the land process and constrained connectivity to the richest households [11].

Whereas decentralised entities for inventorying property rights are broadening, the authority should strive to accumulate, systematise and store cadastral data. This process should be managed closely by the central authority for the purpose of benefitting the competencies that are expected to be grown as the process improves. Specified capacity restrictions at the local level present institutional configurations for urban planning and this is expected to benefit the prevailing urban planning capacity at the national stage, but lead to slow construction and urban planning capacity at the local stage as well as via the training of additional urban planners and technicians. To utilise the benefit of decentralisation, a program to confine the disparity between the designs and the relevant issues in the area should be established in the short term. This will specify and reinforce the connection between regional planning from the national as well as regional stage and knowledge of the local facts [11].

Decreased regulatory responsibilities for commercial businesses require significant stages to realign commercial registration by enacting a recent act and a one-stop shop. Pro-commercial transformations executed by the authority are not completely optimised by private operators because of inadequate circulation and communication. The reintroduction of public and private discourse in an attempt to reinforce and enhance trust between the public as well as private sector and is intended to create more inclusive and sustainable transformations via an arranged, as well as participatory, transformation process. Investment in facilities, notably considerable and constant as well as spatially aimed facility investments, is needed to sustain present facilities and produce competitive conditions for industries. Specified investments should be closely related with the identification of intended industries, core value chains and the geographical transition aim for the region. As part of developing a modern urban strategy, there is a significant need for the authority to coordinate prevailing spatial advancement strategies at the territorial as well as city stage with prevailing core facility investment strategies, for the purpose of determining the core investment demands. There is a need for the authority to reorganise prevailing investment strategies, in particular in the sector, master plans, territorial plans and others with the aim to measure the prospective impacts for the highest effective employment generation as well as supply allocation and for particular industries, considerations of the findings of prevailing studies as well as projects [11].

Concerning sequencing and prioritisation, the authority should introduce investments to solve the urbanization process and the prevailing density of the economy, such as the examples given below [11]:

- a. Spatially locating the central city in the main economy city to enhance the competitiveness and growth of local need for outputs by making the city more effective concerning consumption and connectivity to supplies.
- b. Linking productivity regions with the city to improve delivery.
- c. Improving rural production and broadening connectivity to supplies in secondary cities.

Granted the shortage of resources, the state should concentrate on determining important obstacles, and prioritising treatments, with obvious and detailed execution policies as well as funding flows for the purpose of investing in urbanization. In addition to cross-cutting strategies and procedures that are expected to instruct the state's urbanization concerning urban management, land and facilities, it would be essential for the government to determine and aim the importance of industries with development potential that can capitalize on urbanization and generate stable and generative occupation. Rising competitiveness in marketable industries motivates development. Marketable commodities and supplies are catalysts of development, particularly for states with micro-domestic economies as well as markets. For a state that has low earnings, big local markets and economies will motivate the prospect of development and chances are expected to emerge from generating commodities and supplies for local, territorial as well as international consumption. Present achievements can be the most important factor of future attainment. To better realise the benefit of distinct industries to a state's economy, the researcher investigates economic activities and employment at the national stage, as well as consequently supplying a disintegration of these throughout cities in the state [11].

Agricultural outputs contribute substantially to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and employment. The large fraction of inhabitants to be dependent in various manner on these outputs. The promotion and enhancement of agribusiness can have a positive effect on the advancement of cities via commercial advancement as well as related employment generation and via the multiplier impact from the enhanced need for commodities as well as supplies from rural regions. The development in urban and peri-urban employment can stop growth in productivity as well as improvements in the addition of value-adding elements or improvements. Agricultural value chains consist of activities that are undertaken at the farm and in rural accommodation as well as urban regions. The activities need input supplies, notably; seeds, fertilisers, pesticides and so forth; agricultural mechanisms and irrigation facilities; handling, storage, processing, packaging, and spreading activities; as well as other components such as power production, logistics, et cetera. An increase in trade and marketing of agricultural commodities can be fostered by a growth in imports of demanded commodities, better providing for needs in the domestic markets and growing exports [11].

This can cause employment generation in urban and peri-urban contexts due to development in assisting supplies as follows [11]:

- a. Supplies to increase productivity, for instance: agricultural study and extension supplies; productivity and import as well as dispersion of inputs, for instance, seeds, fertilisers, mechanisms and machinery; maintenance and repair supplies; finance and marketing supplies.
- b. Supplies to disseminate processed and unprocessed farming commodities, for instance: domestic wholesale and retail markets; and logistics supplies, for instance, transport for domestic and export markets.

- c. Supplies for servicing particular market specifications, for instance: sanitary and phytosanitary inspections; certification supplies.

The agribusiness sector evaluation explores the prospect for development and employment generation in the sector. Commercial farming that can leverage inputs and mechanisms more effectively is presently restricted by the problem of accumulating land. Therefore, only market-directed farming is expected to allow rural households to produce sufficient sustenance from the micro-plots, fully sufficient workers, and comparatively large water resources [11].

2.2 City development strategies

Another strategy is City Development Strategies (CDS), which is founded on the assumption that a city's advancement direction can be shifted by properly positioned and properly-timed public, private and civil community strategic treatments. Supposing that national urbanization strategy models are coordinated with local policies, transformation will probably be faster. Empirical proof suggests that cities can transform hugely in a short duration of time, namely 10–20 years. Dormant cities, for instance Shanghai and Glasgow, have reverted to health in a comparatively short duration of time, based on concentrated policies that integrate strategies, political expectations and catalytic investment, whereas cities, for instance Lagos as well as Manila, have problematic track records that are deficient in consistent urban advancement policies. The achievement of 21st century cities is of world interest with urban areas expected to be the highest significant mechanism of poverty mitigation and progressing towards changing to post-petroleum global cities that use the majority of the global energy and goods, as well as specify the economic future of nations and continents, accounting for over 80% of world economic development. Because cities are generative, with compactness of goods and services as well as substantial transaction conditions, this can motivate several larger stages of household income, for instance, use lower energy per unit of economic output, have less per capita costs for the environmental facilities and so forth [12].

These positive effects of urbanization are currently seen due to rapidly increasing world urbanization. By 2030, at least 61% of the global inhabitants are expected to reside in cities, and by 2060, over 80% of the global inhabitants are expected to reside in cities. Nevertheless, various cities are accomplishing far below this trend, primarily in Sub-Saharan Africa, thus limiting chances for the inhabitants and advancement in these areas. Developing cities, similar to the developed counterparts, confront substantial insecurity. Cities that are faced with the responsibility of administering inhabitants' development levels are currently incapable of confronting prevailing backlogs. The decentralisation of obligations to the local level, a weak and inconsistent process at most, is frequently not compatible with the provision of resources and authority. As the number of urban poor inhabitants increase, disparities in chance and earnings are more profound, for example, approximately three-quarters of Africa's urban citizens live in slums, generally unacknowledged and un-serviced by the local authority [12].

The themes that are significant in the main CDS processes are [12]:

1. Sustenance, for instance, employment generation, commercial advancement and sources of household income

Essentially each CDS has to overcome the problem of sustenance, notably the bottom line in each city that is household income. In most developing cities, occupation generation is expected to not contribute to growth in urban manpower.

Therefore, sustenance advancement provides an opportunity to individual entrepreneurs and for the start-up of micro-commercial businesses. The poorer the city, the more significant the informal sector. Therefore, it is a complicated process to sustainably decrease poverty except by increasing household incomes of the poor. Economic development is vital to enhance the number of urban poor inhabitants, particularly recent urban migrants. Livelihood achievement in developing cities is unavoidably related to the commercial context. Local authorities can execute several programs to assist micro-commercial businesses, for instance training, minimisation of sales taxation and help for micro-commercial start-ups. The competitiveness of cities, notably the way this is accomplished in relation to other cities in a specified activity region is forming rapidly compared to the relative benefits. Analysis of competitiveness and policies to increase this is important according to economic groups, instead of conventional economic sectors. Human resource development, particularly across the medium-term, is important for competitiveness. CDS processes should [12]:

- a. Enhance connectivity to education and training, primarily for the poor.
 - b. Enhance the quality of training programs.
 - c. Better coordinate local educational curricula with the increasing urban economy.
2. Ecological stability and energy efficacy of the city and the quality of the delivery provider.

In the previous point, CDS processes were perceived as ecological and energy interests in two approaches [12]:

- a. As supplements to total policies influenced by economic and spatial interests.
- b. As a subject for traditional ecological facility programming.

Due to the increasing cost of energy, the fragility of fresh water sources, the conurbation and associated mobility costs, the enhanced frequency of natural hazards in several cities, ecological and energy judgements need to make up a part of the fundamental CDS strategic process. Secondly, in spite of the fact that programming of facility supplies, for instance main body and supply sewerage networks, is evidently a significant duty of cities, CDS processes should be based on innovative thoughts, for instance solving what types of technologies can be utilised, the function of managerial needs and so forth. The magnitude to which a city overcomes increasing energy and water costs as well as considerable water cost and supply can specify future competitiveness. Energy costs are signified in almost each output and supply that a city sells, as well as the standard of livelihood of households, primarily the poor. An efficient CDS program is expected to propose incentive arrangements to cause attitudinal transformation related with more effective energy consumption, notably in industrial processes, building construction and consumption or green buildings and household use as well as urban facilities. Concerning provider delivery, the CDS should concentrate on coverage or geographic connectivity, affordability or price and quality; notably cost trade-offs need to be made based on the socio-economic rank of neighbourhoods.

3. Spatial shape and infrastructure

The disregard of infrastructure investment in main developing cities in the past 15 years has rapidly limited the achievement of these cities. Infrastructure evaluation and investment planning are difficult but demand cautious interest in CDS processes. Generally, trade-offs and synergies are available among asset objectives, notably supplying fundamental supplies to all residents of an urban community at low-priced levels, as well as economic objectives, which can be fostered by expressways, ports, airports and so forth. Cities should be considered regarding the spatial shape. Nevertheless, urban shape should not control the content of a CDS. Land consumption and physical plans are required to elaborate the physical impacts of the CDS, as well as be intentionally connected. Spatial shape, from a strategic viewpoint, is of specific interest in three aspects [12]:

- a. The close connection between urban shape and energy efficacy.
- b. The close connection between attractiveness of cities or infrastructure and economic achievement; it is essentially difficult for an unattractive city to turn into a larger value economic activity.
- c. The valuable significance of land, notably accessibility, location and career in solving the difficulties of slum societies.

Slums should not be considered as unique or outside the land market. The market value of slum society land is mostly valuable, particularly if in the main city and is expected to be acknowledged provided that beneficial consequences can be coordinated via consumption of market-founded methods, for instance land re-modification with the prospect to invest large amounts of capital. Most significant is the demand to assure available land for a broad rate of factors, notably ranging from formal developers to newcomers to supply housing and societies for recent migrants. It is often faster to avoid poverty by incorporating migrants efficiently towards housing, transportation and sustenance arrangements, compared with addressing the drawback in the usual manner. The number of rural urban migrants moving to developing cities in the next 30 years is expected to surpass the movements of the last 30 years. Therefore, mitigation policies are as significant now, if not more so, compared to mitigation policies of the past. Peripheral societies need to be engaged as occupation hubs by low-priced effective transportation arrangements. Obviously, developing cities are forming in a more multimodal fashion, making densities of occupation more accessible to the poor.

4. Financial resources

Several CDS processes have focused more on the significance of local government budgets. Local government financial management is most significant and it is vital that this be done efficiently. Nevertheless, CDS processes are expected to be founded on a realisation that the function of local authorities is to encourage financial resources from both across and outside the city, as well as from the public, for instance national authority programs, private (notably domestic and multinational firms) and civil community or voluntary agency sources. Throughout the medium term (notably 10 years), the amount of

capital that a city can grow to enhance the public and private conditions is remarkably elastic, and possibly very big, granted the right strategy models, marketing and promotion methods are used.

5. Governance

Similar to the case of finance, governance far exceeds the function of local authority. Nevertheless, local authority has important functions to perform in reflecting the public concern, being a motivation to urban invention and taking obligation for delivery of important supplies, notably directly or indirectly via innovative mechanisms, for instance Build-Own-Transfer. An efficient CDS program needs to overcome national strategy models, both explicit, for instance urban facility grants and implicit, for instance the impact of transformations in tariff arrangements on important companies in the urban economy. Frequently, evaluation of the national urban strategy model was expected to have been undertaken by other organisations. It is important that CDS processes solve the shifting function of urban authority subject to circumstances of decentralisation, which is a global pattern. Accompanying devolution of powers, local authorities often have additional control and obligations for the future of urban areas. However, in several developing cities, decentralisation has reduced achievement due to local capacity restrictions, dishonesty and enhanced obligations not being compatible with sufficient resources as well as generally compounded by the vague assignment of roles. However, it is obvious that decentralisation makes quick transformations in cities more achievable. Simultaneously, decentralisation is expected to increase the variation in city achievement across countries, notably producing success and failure. Decentralisation causes CDS processes to be more significant, with the prospective earnings from executing a CDS often larger in decentralised governance conditions. CDS processes need to solve the problem of metropolitan governance. Essentially each big city in the world experiences inefficiencies and lost chances associated with segmented unorganised urban governance across metropolitan regions, related with a multiplication of local authorities. There is a long and diversified global pattern with reference to metropolitan governance, notably learning practices that are expected to be utilised as a filter to determine suitable metropolitan governance arrangements in CDS cities.

Important methodological doctrines, generated from exposure and successful CDS execution, comprise the following [12]:

1. Commence the process.
2. Quick evaluation.
3. Vision formation.
4. Strengths-Weaknesses-Opportunities-Threats (SWOT).
5. Strategic thrusts.
6. Consciousness construction.
7. Execution.

2.3 Other strategies

The next strategy is policies to satisfy urban-based communities consisting of innovating social safety arrangements, optimising urban growing space, determining obvious urban features, total planning for urban rural advancement, and reinforcing the ecological security. Innovating a social safety arrangement is associated with the importance of addressing the drawbacks of peri-urbanization in transforming a series of assisting arrangements, which are focused on residence registration arrangements. A recent approach to transform residence registration is given by Shanghai, by applying the residence registration arrangement of identity cards and residence licences, which are assumed to be a credential to engage in productivity and livelihood activities in the city and are able to be frequently audited. The managerial classifications of a residence licence provide temporary inhabitants social safety, medical and health care, children education, employment introduction, occupation training, legal assistance, et cetera. The insurance context of safety housing, which is another main element of social safety, is expected to be broadened by the housing complex family having urban residence registration to hold a residence licence residing exceeding a specific year, based on the equivalent kind of housing safety targeting at housing complex family based on earning stage. This method shows how to set up a reasonable and equivalent safety network arrangement across a specific region, for instance, a provincial region, and to relieve tension generated by inhabitant migration. In addition, rural citizens that refuse to reside in the countryside are able to reside in the town and this slowly leads to full urbanization via shifting the farm to safety housing and social safety [13].

To maximise urban growing space in Shaanxi, it is essential to execute the policy concerning local situations of urbanization and acknowledge organised territorial advancement. This requires acceptance of the metro and vast city as the midpoint hub to construct a networked spatial trend of urban arrangement, which is multiple, multipolar and linked by a traffic corridor. The networked spatial trend of urban arrangement accepts Xi'an international metropolis as the territorial advancement hub. Yulin, Baoji, Weinan and Hanzhong are accepted as the development pole of the northern region, and Guanzhong and the southern region are accepted separately to the Shaanxi region. Yan'an, Tongchuan, Ankang, Shangluo, Hancheng and Tangling are the territorial central cities. The urbanization of the midpoint hub is expected to concentrate on mining advancement prospects, increasing the quality and fostering the transition to a senior urban social environment. The cities of territorial development poles should transform to enhance the urban advancement condition, instruct the accumulation of inhabitants and sector, broaden the city scale, increase control, as well as switch to the basic city community. The urbanization of territorial central cities is expected to concentrate on spatial advancement policies that can increase the velocity of the urbanization process via increasing the capability of accumulation and control of territorial central cities on the assumption of ecological security. The advancement of micro-cities should be allocated more interest with the rapid advancement of vast cities. Micro-cities have the prospect to grow into territorial development poles that can assimilate rural inhabitants and have strong radiation capabilities [13].

Determining obvious urban features to set up is expected to be accomplished with city culture as the basis and with city history as the extension. In this manner, the city characteristics will be incorporated in the city features by urban planning, architectural design, landscape design and construction. Urban road selection can subsequently be based on chronological patterns and streets can signify the incorporation of local tradition. Architecture design can signify the local traditions similar to the architectural approach of the rural society, for instance Pingli County in Ankang [13].

Total planning for urban and rural advancement is associated with subsequent acknowledgement of the significance of harmonisation between urban and rural regions. Shaanxi has strategically focussed on authority subsidised housing, questions of agriculture, grower and rural regions, equalisation of fundamental public supply, energy saving and decreasing emissions, organised advancement of area and so forth. Earlier beliefs of stressing urban nevertheless disregarding rural region have been fragmented and the advancement of rural regions has increased at a significant pace. The basic duty is to close the disparity between urban and rural regions. Reinforcing the ecological security is associated with closing the disparity and this involves ecological construction, old plan concept, stage and matures, a series of drawbacks has fragmented the capacity of resources as well as ecological and actions is expected to be carried out instantly. Using Shaanxi as an example, metropolis and vast cities should grow regarding the concept of dense advancement as well as smart development. Promoting the dense mixture land consumption trend to increase land consumption efficacy. Growth investment on construction and operation of facilities, particularly for wastes and sewage treatment plants, will help to minimise the difficult conditions in various states because of expensive operation costs [13].

The stable competitiveness of cities rests on the standard of the structural building blocks or capital needed for long-term affluence, notably knowledge, intellect, economics, social richness, standard of living, facilities and connectivity, strong image, identity and institutions. Capitals transform gradually and are affected by a combination of historical processes, market abilities and multi-stage strategy treatments, largely in the hands of city councils and other urban stakeholders. The discourse regarding stable competitiveness is not only regarding the intensity of the capitals and the economy expected to be favoured by the community. An important challenge is to strive for stability and incorporation among the distinct capitals over time. As well as these capitals, a city's management has to grow various operational abilities or catalysts to stimulate action. These comprise of creative leadership, communication, smart management of the finances and the ability to plan important programmes as well as projects comprising the advancement of quick delivery vehicles. All of this needs to be accomplished in an approach that is stable and with cooperation as well as partnership with residents, the private sector, academia and Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs). On the whole, the setting and dynamics of every individual city largely control the vision and policies established to attain stable competitiveness. For instance, identical open data initiatives can be influenced by distinct urban difficulties and more significantly can lead to distinct priorities, for instance development as well as invention or transparency [14].

Inhabitants of the cities that learn from one another are expected to attain local specialization and there is no one single direction to stable competitiveness. Exceeding simplified sections between cities in modern and growing economies, every coordinated treatment aiming at stable competitiveness in a city is expected to result in an exhaustive evaluation of the growth of the capitals across time, as well as more current dynamics. Stable competitiveness projects need good designs and visions but also sound execution. In the investigation, the usual abilities were the compounding of the structural capitals and the catalysts that deliver visions, design and outcomes. In the majority of the stable competitiveness projects, success in execution outcomes from distributing together distinct agencies' internal abilities to construct the structural capitals maintained competitiveness. The more needs that a project had, notably whether transformational or transitional, the more significant the catalysts that were needed to stimulate this undertaking. Excluding the function of partnering, there are five important catalysts [14]:

1. Dispersed leadership that links and disseminates power between the important stakeholders that need to cooperate to stimulate actions, both across and outside the public management.
2. Communication, producing support, linking stakeholders and attaining buy-in as well as broadcasting the outcomes of projects to broader audiences.
3. Smart financial remediation with the capability to leverage distinct funding resources and financing mechanisms for concrete projects in a maintained, responsible and flexible approach.
4. Prioritisation and piloting namely strategically prioritising and piloting or prototyping concepts across difficult projects before broader adoption.
5. Quick delivery vehicles by designing to address the distinct urban difficulties, integrating between others notably transparency, connectivity, responsiveness, flexibility and accountability.

Cooperation is the glue that bonds stable competitiveness projects together. As seen in several examples, city councils are not exclusive factors but instead the facilitators of wider cooperation. Certainly, in the majority of successful projects that the researcher analysed, leadership was dispersed throughout multiple agencies, which needed to co-operate closely to stimulate stable competitiveness visions. The following are the broader organization of facilitators [14]:

1. Private sector engagement, encompassing micro-entrepreneurs to big transnational companies. Several agencies in the private sector are capable and agreed to leverage the urban conditions to the advantage of the central policies and earnings, in a shared value way.
2. University engagement, comprising educational and study agencies. The achievement of cities rests on the educational and study foundation. Knowledge agencies view cities as study subjects in their own right and cities can benefit from the problem-solving capacity.
3. Completely resident engagement, frequently generated in specific officers more engaged, distributing novelty and determining initially invisible drawbacks as well as chances.
4. Not-for-profit engagement, consisting of not-for-profit companies and NGOs and this was found in several of the projects the researcher analysed, for instance in cases with brokers, with a level of independence to execute projects as well as to promote the right partnership.

Cooperation is not simple. Nevertheless, the attempt is generally beneficial and important for the stable competitiveness of cities. Good cooperation consists of [14]:

1. Trust, mutual realisation and flexibility or capacity to try out new methods.
2. Permitting projects to achieve other aspects and fields.
3. Leveraging complementary resources, for instance, knowledge, finance, assist and legitimacy.

Project consequences are the outcome of the relationship between several stakeholders reacting to the difficulties of every initiative. Distributing stable urban competitiveness demands a modern type of urban manager. Urban management for stable competitiveness is a knowledge-intensive activity, for both voted representatives and executive city employees. The recent urban manager for the 21st century is expected to [14]:

1. Determine, link to and empower leaders across and outside the agency to which leadership can be dispersed. Stable competitiveness projects demand powerful and resilient leadership at distinct stages, in distinct agencies, both technical and political.
2. Mediate stakeholders with distinct concerns regarding bonding missions, if this has distinct powers, assets and time limits.
3. Source and legitimise recent working approaches in the agency, promoting recent methods outside the comfort zone.
4. Encompass common officers in completely developed penta-helices, notably citizens, not-for-profit agencies and universities as well as public and private sector agencies exceeding the common commercial businesses as well as strategy elite.
5. Contribute interest to external enablers as signals of transformation of brand identity. A merger with a city's advantage, demands and possibilities can lead to change, if not increase transformation in distinct city domains and capitals.
6. Think regarding the highest suitable spatial stage for treatments. Especially functional, not administrative, spheres are frequently more suitable to address stable urban competitiveness difficulties and stimulate this to encompass the stakeholders on that subject.

While several cities in rising economies continue to expand, it is unsure if this specified development can be maintained over time. An urgent challenge is the way to disconnect development from ecological deterioration and making this more inclusive. From another point of view, an important challenge in advanced economies is the way to change development and produce employment opportunities while sustaining social well-being as well as standards of living. Several cities' prosperity has to be managed exterior to the city macro-economic and political advancements; cities are not just inactive recipients of a specified setting; and the cities can achieve this advancement. In short, an important urban challenge for the following decades is how to enhance stable competitiveness, namely a city's capability to maintain rising and growing over time, while promoting social cohesion as well as ecological quality. Eventually, the stable competitiveness of a city depends on a number of structural properties or capitals that transform gradually. This produces consequences from a combination of historical processes, market powers and multi-stage strategy treatments. Rising a city's capital is not only in the control of the local authority, but this can be controlled by the action [14].

The city stage can be interpreted as the stage of a functional urban area opposite a single administrative unit and comprises two aspects [14]:

1. The structural setting of the city and the current dynamics examined via the city's capitals for stable competitiveness.
2. The city's total advancement vision and policies as manifested in plans, documents and stakeholder narratives.

There is a connection between a city's advancement policy and the capital, and distinct cities expose distinct difficulties as well as instability in the capital, arising notably on average in distinct urban advancement policies. Normally, a city's total vision and the advancement of the capital are affected by exterior controls as well as patterns, for instance recent phases of globalisation, macro-economic setting and national strategies. On the whole, the city stage of the model sets the setting to better realise the approaches where distinct urban advancement projects and policies are organised, namely the vision and content as well as to spread out notably the way cities plan to execute. The project stage is controlled by the setting of the city. The setting of the city that controls the project stage comprises [14]:

1. The project plan, notably the vision and content that comprise the project's history and rationales, objectives, strategy, concepts and characteristics.
2. Remarkable outcomes and effects ascribed to the project, notably economic, social and ecological.
3. Execution characteristics, comprising the important catalysts that convey visions and outcomes to undertake. In this research, the investigator gave particular interest to six important catalysts: partnerships, for instance by consisting uncommon officers, leadership frameworks, communication, smart financial remediation, prioritisation and the advancement of quick delivery vehicles.

A project's plan and characteristics are controlled by a city's capital and advancement vision. Throughout time, the project's outcomes and effects resubmit to the city's capital, bridging the gap as well as resulting in a bigger or smaller scope for a city's stable competitiveness. As globalisation has accelerated, several cities and areas have accepted the challenge of promoting groups, namely clustering economic activities that benefit from each other's existence, for instance, for sharing resources, coordinating competencies or exchanging knowledge. Groups have long been acknowledged as important factors of the economic competitive benefit of cities and nations. From a stable competitiveness viewpoint, assisting group advancement can be a significant policy to reinforce and provide variety to a city's knowledge and economic potential. Exceeding outside the shelf formulas, fostering groups' demands for an amount of soft skills to stimulate matters certainly undertakes if this pertains to strategy plan and execution; for instance, fostering efficient multiple-helix schemes, notably among distinct compounding of firms, universities, authority, end consumers and civil community; fostering collective intelligence; and uniting the demanded resources for interpreted projects. Presently, traditional group strategies, for instance concentrating on one cherry-picked knowledge industry, have been changing into group platforms, integrating distinct kinds of knowledge, from distinct industries, close to very concrete and unique local difficulties and chances [14].

Group advancement is a long-term attempt with the main effects being complex to view in the short-term. This is a strategy that authorities must use exclusively and with multi-helices as well as partnerships, and aligning governments with the right combinations of skills. Management of urban mobility has enhanced throughout the past decade because of larger society projections and interests regarding crowding namely traffic and transit, as well as project financing, notably consumer charges. To be competitive, cities rapidly need to concentrate on connectivity and effects on economic efficacy. Transport efficacy is consequently an important challenge for several cities in the world. Cities therefore expose an important problem of demanding to increase the internal and external connectivity to continue to be competitive while decreasing the broader social effects of private travel selections. This needs to ensure that transport networks are resilient and capable to handle extreme conditions, for instance travel in extreme weather [14].

In addition, transport is a remarkably argumentative subject on which almost every person has a viewpoint even though frequently one bases this viewpoint on the exposure instead of a full set of information. Various cities are using innovative methods to address transport challenges and utilise proof as well as study to educate the public. Connectivity to education, occupation and supplies that drive city economies, as well as continually increasing mobility across cities only produces longer travel times and enhanced crowding. Management of mobility to attain maximal connectivity is the major goal. Reconciliation of travel needs all residents and visitors to attain financial, community as well as living organism consequences required and this is one of the most challenging difficulties confronting every cities. Cities are regarded as a place where citizens have easy connectivity to their jobs and living conditions or generational shifting chances notably education, occupation and relationships with others. Big cities have transport networks that allow for these chances in the highest effective approach for consumers, authority and broader society. Important difficulties in improving connectivity in cities comprise the following [14]:

- a. Obtaining agreement on comprehensive design priorities.
- b. Funding infrastructure with debt-restricted budgets.
- c. Stringent assessment of choices.

Pooling data in the digital city, the intersection of digital technologies (for instance dispersion of smart personal devices, data pooling platforms and cloud computing), is opening up recent possibilities for the distribution of urban supplies while producing economic and invention opportunities in cities. Therefore, several cities are rapidly fostering open data policies, namely facilitating local data on supplies (water and transport movements, designing, the built landscape, parking and waste collection), and it is publicly accessible to broader audiences, for instance commercial entities, researchers, entrepreneurs and residents. Opening city data can facilitate a city's stable competitiveness in numerous ways, namely [14]:

1. By growing democratic engagement, accountability and transparency.
Potentially greater and more transparent information regarding the city's local authority actions as well as allocations and public decision-making leads to greater accountability and residents have increased incentives to not be passively involved in urban affairs.

2. By stimulating invention and recent commercial chances. The broad connectivity to city data stimulates this link to firms, researchers and entrepreneurs that can be used in addressing concrete city drawbacks, in an open invention way. Accompanying open data, a city's difficulties can involve every person in finding a solution. Several recent technology solutions and urban applications are continuing to grow with open city data, causing recent capitalisation chances, experts and local economic variety.
3. By improving a city's supply allocation. Eventually, open data and the recent remediation improve old allocation frameworks and the approaches benefit urban supplies; for instance, water, electricity and public transport are distributed for more effective remediation.

Ten actions that managers of cities need to regard for innovative competitiveness [14]:

1. Undertake a thorough evaluation of increasing, possibly concealed dynamics of the city. Distinct cities are affected by similar difficulties in distinct approaches, and the visions as well as rationales for identical initiatives can diversify broadly. Cities can learn from each other, there is no one single way to stable competitiveness.
2. Co-develop a shared vision for the stable competitiveness of the city that allows for the particular setting for the city and integrates perceptions of the distinct urban stakeholders. Transmit this vision to the broader stakeholder cluster, coordinate the clusters regarding the shared vision and maintain the groups during the execution process.
3. Build interest in external enablers as an indicator of transformation of brand identity, for instance the chance to host global events. Assuming a bond with a city's intensities, demands and probabilities can facilitate generation, if not increase transformation in distinct city fields and capital, notably exceeding short-term economic effects and multipliers.
4. Attempt to shift single-domain projects into multi-domain initiatives, for instance from pure economic into social and ecological elements. Not every aspect can be connected with each other and there are latent conflicts, but there are several linkages and reciprocities to be explored.
5. Determine prospective leaders in and exterior to the agency to which leadership can be dispersed. Stable competitiveness projects need powerful and resilient leadership at distinct stages, in distinct agencies, both technical as well as political.
6. Encompass uncommon officers. Exceeding the commercial and strategy elite, residents, recent entrepreneurs, not-for-profit agencies can provide new thoughts and better acknowledge the consumers' viewpoint as well as induce action at the grassroots level.
7. Think regarding the highest suitable spatial stage for the treatment, for instance neighbourhood, city and metropolitan region. Functional, not administrative, regions are generally more suitable to address stable urban competitiveness difficulties, and stimulate this to encompass the stakeholders.

8. Precisely determine the abilities, notably technical, expertise, networking, political and institutional that are essential in the medium-term. Regard other stakeholders from the beginning that can add to and accompany the centre abilities of the agency. Universities, private firms, not-for-profit agencies and residents have companion resources in relation to city councils and are willing to apply this leverage in the cities.
9. Strive for quicker approaches to overcome the distinct urban difficulties and deliver public supplies to residents as well as commercial entities. Highlight priorities that are expected to be set and selections that need to be made. At this time, the difficulty is to bind others. Transparency, connectivity, responsiveness, flexibility and accountability are important.
10. Eventually, the modern urban manager is expected to strive for smart financial remediation to stimulate this total undertaking. Producing the capability to leverage recent financing mechanisms and distinct sources of funding for projects is expected to assist in accelerating stable competitiveness.

3. Conclusion

The development of cities and towns is expected to decrease costs for supply distribution, free up land in rural regions, as well as broaden chances for clustering economies. Simultaneously, urban development is expected to increase the needs on land, facilities and supply distribution in the cities. States have to design for future urbanization, confine disparities in the regulative model and make an investment strategically in the cities to broaden connectivity to supplies as well as sustain competitiveness and chances for the private sector. Urbanization is associated with economic advancement, and no state can achieve intermediate income status without an advanced stage of urbanization. Whether commercial farming can arrange materials and tools more effectively is presently restricted by the challenge of accumulating land. Therefore, only market-directed farming is expected to permit rural households to produce sufficient sustenance from the micro-plots, fully sufficient worker, and comparatively large water resources. Strategies on urbanization involve the idea of Horizontal Interventions: Institutional Policies and Reforms, notably determined to be an important strategy goal. Numerous laws and a unifying strategy vision for overcoming urbanization continue to be lacking. Another strategy is CDS and this is founded on the assumption that a city's advancement direction can be shifted by properly positioned and properly-timed public, private as well as civil community strategic treatments. Other strategies comprise policies to satisfy urban-based communities consisting of making changes in social safety arrangements, making optimal urban growing spaces, determining obvious urban features, total planning for urban rural advancement, reinforcing the ecological security and so forth.

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia, for funding this study under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS), S/O code 13228, and Research and Innovation Management Centre, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Kedah, for the administration of this study.

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