MASTER OF ARTS
IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

SEMESTER-II

PAD-2.3: DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

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SEMESTER – 2

COURSE CODE – PAD – 2.3

TITLE: DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

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DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION: AN OVERVIEW

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UNIT-1: Conceptual Analysis of Development Administration

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Conceptual Analysis of Development Administration
- Development
- Administration
- Development Administration
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
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INTRODUCTION

Development administration is mainly concerned with an action-oriented, goal-oriented administrative system. The major hallmarks of the administration are institution building, modernization and socio-economic development. In contemporary times, development administration is associated with the creation and execution of plans, legislations, programmes and projects. Hence, the political and economic aspects of development are the major concerns in developing countries. The key aim of the democratic government is to give a better quality of life to its citizens. As a result, these states, irrespective of size or status, work hard to achieve the goals of good governance and development planning. In order to carry out the plans in a systematic manner, the government laid down certain guidelines which include the detailed information regarding vision, focus and the various steps that will be carried out by the administrative agencies. The plan is one of the most important tools through which the government reviews its functioning. It could be a disaster for the sustainable development of a nation, if there is no plan. Therefore, you cannot ignore the importance of development planning.

The study of public administration in developing countries has embraced a variety of approaches in terms of development administration. According to some academicians, development administration has a narrow and precise meaning, whereas some use the term in order to emphasize the inadequacy of the established discipline of 'public administration'. To some scholars, it is nothing but a field which merely applies the traditional study. Some use this concept in the sense of 'the administration of development' whereas others use it as development of administration.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Understand the basic concept of development and different approaches towards it

- Procure proficiencies in analysing development problems
- Comprehend the role of development administration in third world countries

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CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

In order to be able to appreciate the topic under review in a better manner, it becomes pertinent for the following key concepts to be clarified:

- development
- administration
- development administration

Development

Development is the latest buzzword being talked about by almost everyone — be it a politician a political scientist, a bureaucrat administration philosopher, a manager, an economist, a sociologist or social scientist. The notion of development as such or its objectives and approaches have developed and progressed over the years. It is a global phenomenon. In contemporary times, the concept of development has assimilated a wider and more wide-ranging implication. Under this concept umbrella, it covers not only human development but also political development. Human development includes both socio and civil development. Social development includes the provision of social services like education, health and recreation, and provision of righteousness for the socially underprivileged groups such as scheduled castes, backward classes and women. Civil liberties and political rights fall under the provision of civil development. This is apparent from the evolving human rights perception on development. This term is characterized by scientific progress, industrial advancement, capital speculation and technical knowhow.

'Underdeveloped', 'undeveloped' and 'developed' are the terms that denote social and economic conditions of the people in a particular nation or state. It is an all elusive term. It includes not only the conditions of life but also the goals and objectives that one has to attain and its ability to propagate, change and develop. However, there is not a static point at which a people, state or nation passes from underdevelopment state to a development state. The comparative condition of development is relative and ever changing. It varies according to what is needed and what is desired. A nation which employs its resources effectually is considered to be more developed than a nation which does not. The two objectives of development are:-

(i) Elimination of poverty

(ii) Sustenance and respect for the rights of human dignity and liberty

Hence, the purpose or objective of development is to provide best conditions so that each individual can enjoy maximum benefits from the state. The citizens of a country are vital for development. Therefore, it is considered as the interaction of populaces with the natural resources available to them i.e. people's use of their resources. In many countries people are regarded as the target of development. The drive for development is to improve their conditions, first by guaranteeing the level of sustenance acceptable to them and second by increasing the choices they have for living their own survival up to their optimal expectations. It totally depends upon people to decide what standards of living and choices in life are suitable. It is up to the individuals of the state to get involved in setting the goals of any development programmes. The various goals of development can

be achieved with the rigorous participation of the individuals. The effectiveness of the policies and the methods of development of the several projects can be seen if they are accomplished within a specific time frame.

Besides people, the next important element in the process of development is the institutions. They are regarded as the system of action. Institutions have a concrete organizations and instruments which offer the capacity and support for action. Some of the institutions like bureaucracy, church, academic institutions like schools and colleges, hospitals and jails provide with the system of action. They form the agency with indispensable qualities. These institutions are well recognized in the society. The progression

of development can take place if these institutions work proficiently. The organizational functions can be conceded through proliferation of authority and initiative. There should be appropriate synchronization among all the agencies involved in the development process.

The concept of 'development' has further evolved by taking up two new commencements of development, namely ***Sustainable Development and 'Ethno-Development'***. The notion of sustainable development gained popularity in the 1980s following the importance put on it by the world commission on ***Environment and Development (known as Brundtland Commission framed by the United Nations in 1983).*** In general discourse, sustainable development refers to ***'such development as is not damaging to ecology and destructive of environment'.*** Though the U.N. ingenuity for sustainable development has created consciousness for reformulation and reorganization economic development policy in terms of defending the ecology for the present and future peers, other developments like liberalization, privatization and globalization since 1990's have raised a critical debate over development policy. These policies pursue to shrink the role of the state in the development procedure to the least.

The concept of ***'Ethno-development'*** evolving out of a pragmatic study of development topics and glitches states that development of a country cannot be separated from the socio-cultural veracities and philosophy of its society. Ethno-development highlights a native mode of development, well-matched with the socio-cultural spirit of a society.

An eminent scholar, ***Michael Todaro sees development as a 'multi-dimensional process involving the reorganization and reorientation of the entire economic and social system'.*** Looking into this definition Todaro looks into the drastic alterations in institutional, social and managerial structures as well as in prevalent outlooks, customs and belief. This definition of Todaro is useful whenever the relations to different countries are discussed.

Development is an ongoing process which helps achieve sustainable growth of a country. It also helps in achieving political, social and economic growth and coping with new challenges. Growth is an important ingredient required for development. However, one cannot assume that growth alone can make the economy grow. There are a number of other important areas through which the development can take place like education, health etc. It is easy to achieve economic growth but economic development is not easily achievable. When it comes to economic development, production should be more technical savvy and institutionalized, and its distribution should be equal among every individual.

Administration

The term 'administration' is derived from the Latin words — '*Ad*' and '*Ministrare*'. Administration means to assist or to manage. It is the act of managing something in the public or private spheres.

Administrative system can be viewed in the following manner:-

- An environment that motivates the administration as well as be a recipient of its activities.
- The inputs transferring incitements from the social settings to the administration.
- The outputs transmitting the outcomes of administrative act to the environment.
- The procedure of conversion, which changes inputs into outputs.
- Feedback, which is an important ingredient in the conversion process from output to input.

If you look into the definitions given below, you will be able to understand that administration is taken as a universal process accepted by various public and private organizations. You find administration in varied organizational settings, such as corporate firm, trade unions, ecclesiastical institutions, charitable organizations, educational institutions and governmental units. Some of the important definitions of administration are as follows:-

E.A. Nigro says 'Administration is the organization and use of men and materials to accomplish a purpose'.

- L.D. White says 'The art of administration is the direction, coordination and control of many persons to achieve some purpose or objective'.
- Herbert A Simon 'Administration can be defined as the activities of groups, cooperating to accomplish common goals'.
- Prof. John A. Viegsays Administration '….is the systematic ordering of affairs and the calculated use of resources, aimed at making those things happen which we want to happen and simultaneously preventing developments that fail to square with our intentions'.
- Luther Gulick says 'Administration has to do with getting things done, with the accomplishment of defined objectives'.
- J.M. Piffiner and R. Presthussay 'Administration is the organization and direction of human and material resources to achieve desired ends'.
- A brief analysis of the definition listed above states the two crucial mechanisms of administration —

  (i) cooperative effort and (ii) pursuit of common purposes. After looking into the various views of the scholars regarding Development Administration, let us look into the dual view of the administration.

If you look into the administrative activities of administration you will come across two views. One is that all activities, corporeal, psychological, clerical and administrative which are commenced to achieve a purpose, encompass administration. This is an all-encompassing or integral view of administration. The 'Managerial View' is considered as the other view vis-à-vis the nature of administration. It means that administration is concerned only with the organization, direction, control and supervision on human beings who are functioning to attain a purpose. Hence, appropriate institution and direction of men and material to attain some preferred objectives is termed as administration.

Some of the major characteristics of administrative practices are:-

- *Hierarchy:* Institutions form a chain of superiors ranging from the highest status to the lowest- status manager
- *Unity of command:* Personnel receiving orders from one superior
- *Chain of command:* Organizations are separated into various functional units and departments.

- *Span of control:* Supervisors are given power and responsibility over the number of subordinates that they can have.

You should not get confused with the term 'management' and 'administration'. Both the terms are different.

Administration	Management
It is deals with the formation of goals, strategies and policies.	It means accomplishing the things through and with individuals
It is a thoughtful process	It is a doing process
It is a uppermost level of management function	It is a subordinate-level management function.
The decisions are affected by external environment such as social, political, legal etc.	Its decision are affected by internal factors such as ethics, principles and ideas.
The term is often allied with governmental programs.	The term is extensively used in the world of commerce.

In short, the role or function of the administrative in the institution is mainly concerned with the determination of the cooperate policy. But 'management' is mainly concerned with the implementation of programmes and strategies within the parameters set up by the administration.

Development Administration

The Development Administration is a recent branch of public administration. 'Development administration' is the expression used to indicate the intricacies of agencies, administrative systems and the processes a government set up in order to achieve its development goals. Development administration, which is regarded as the public apparatus was established in order to achieve the social and economic objectives of a nation. Hence it reflects the 'Four P's' — policies, programmes, projects and purposes. It is portrayed by its purposes, its reliability and its outlook. The key purpose of Development Administration is to encourage and assist defined programmes of social and economic progress. Though Development Administration is unique in its nature, it is dependent on the stream of public administration. Besides looking into the maintenance of law and order in a country, it looks into the various other essential services provided by the state apparatus. Some of the services include education facilities, health centres, transportation and communication facilities and public utilities. The comprehensiveness and efficacy of these services sustain and reinforce the environment for development.

The broader view of 'Development Administration' means that it embraces the variety of methodologies and points of view that mark the study of public administration in developing countries. It deals with procedures, programmes, policies and development ventures which concentrate on nation building and socio-economic development. Its main target is to achieve socio-economic goals through the aptitudes and knowledge of bureaucrats. According to some supporters this is the unique form of administration according to which the key duty of the government in a developing country is to lead, inspire and centrally synchronize the country's total development effort. As compared to traditional administration which focuses on strict rules and procedures as well as adheres to hierarchy system, development administration focuses on the results.

The word was coined in the late 1950s. The term 'Development Administration' was used to signify the intricate organizations, administration systems and process of government forms to accomplish its developmental goals. It is the public apparatus set up to transmit the numerous mechanisms of development in order to articulate and achieve national social and economic goals.

Some of the variables which are essential for development administration are: Reconstruction of society, socio-economic development, institution building and formation of an assimilated political community. The main aim of development administration is societal change in the direction of modernity. When we talk about the direction of modernity it does not mean the drastic transformation of society into a contemporary western society. The main focus is on the native development which is justifiable and which looks into the welfare and needs of its citizens. It should focus on bringing about strategic changes in order to meet the nation's broad political, cultural, economic, and social objectives. It strives to work for the establishing social justice through equitable distribution of social and economic benefits for the upliftment and betterment of various social groups in the society. Various modern and scientific techniques are employed in order to achieve the development objectives.

In order to meet the challenges of the developing countries, the development administration need to deal with the political development of a nation. It also tries to bring about changes in the ideals and outlooks of people which vary from the current ones and are supportive of the developmental activities. The development administration also needs restructuring of the administration, i.e. the formation of new administrative arrangements and reorientation of the present ones. Then only it is possible to have effectual development programmes. Thus, we see that development administration focuses on improving an entire society with political, economic, social and administrative components interconnected for the purpose of change. Hence it is the process of organizing and administering public agencies to aid and assist for the implementation of development programmes.

During the 1950s and 1960s, Development Administration was swayed by the early theoretical approaches towards development. Bureaucrats or the high level administers believed that:

- Development was necessary.
- Poverty could be eradicated by improving the magnitude of public goods and services.
- Impediments to development could be overcome.

Earlier development was viewed in terms of economic development, and development administration was largely economic administration, with little or no concern for an equitable dissemination of social benefits. Hence, there is an acute difference between administration of development and other systems of administration within the state such as police, military and judiciary. Each of these systems has its own unique outlook, requirements and techniques. These systems have major impact on development administration. The repressive police and military system will be least considerate towards people development and their needs. Whereas on the other hand if they are liberal one then through their own constituted agencies they can encourage the socio and economic development activities.

Hence, the main function of development administration is to achieve the defined development purposes. If the purpose of administration is accomplished then the administration is considered to be good, if the purpose is inadequately achieved then it is termed as bad administration. A good or bad

administration, hence, depends upon the delivery of result. Development administration success

depends upon how the administration provides the delivery for capital, material and services that is required for the productive process, be it in public, private or in mixed economies.

In order to discharge mammoth responsibility and to carry out diverse and multifaceted functions of social and economic development, development administration had founded various new agencies and reorganized the existing ones.

Some of the important definitions on development administration are:

- **George Gant:** 'Development Administration is that aspect of public administration in which the focus of attention is on organizing and administering public agencies in such a way to stimulate and facilitate defined programmes of social and economic progress. It has the purpose of making change attractive and possible'. He further stated: 'Development administration denotes the complex web of agencies, management systems and processes, a government establishes to achieve the development goals. Development administration is the administration of policies, programmes and projects to serve development purposes'.

- **Donald Stone:** 'Broadly, Development Administration is concerned with achieving national development'.

- **Merle Fainsod:** 'Development administration is a carrier of innovating values. It embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernization and industrialization. Development administration ordinarily involves the establishment of machinery for planning, economic growth and mobilizing and allocating resources to expand national income'.

- **Jose V. Abueva:** 'Development Administration is the administration of development programmes in the economic, social and political spheres, including the programmes for improving the organization and management of the bureaucracy as a major instrument for national development'.

- **K.R. Hope:** 'Development Administration in contextual and operational terms implies efficient organization and management of the development activities of a nation to attain the goals of development'.

- **Katz:** 'Development administration' is generally similar to the traditional 'public administration' in its concern with how a government implements its rules, policies, and norms. It differs, however, in its objectives, scope, and complexity. Development administration is innovative, since it is concerned with the societal changes involved in achieving developmental objectives.' Then, in spite of his first sentence, he adds: 'It follows... that the administrative functions of decision, specification, communication and control may take different forms in development administration as compared with traditional public administration.'

- **Esman** says of development administration '. . . central core is the role of governmental administration in inducing, guiding, and managing the interrelated processes of nation building, economic growth, and societal change.'

- **Prof. S.R. Maheswari:** 'The administration of developmental programmes designed to promote nation-building and socio- economic development and the concomitant development of administrative practices and institutions necessary for the implementation of such programmes.'

Looking into the various definitions of development administration one can look into its various

hallmarks:

(i) Development administration is not narrow. Rather, it is more universal in its approach. It lays stress on new inventions. It lays prominence on new methods, policies, programmes and procedures which would provide assistance to accomplish the developmental purposes with the greatest possible expedition.

(ii) It aids in planning the policy to meet the varied experiments and challenges of administration. It concentrates on such devices to be carved out whereby competence and efficacy are shaped for achieving the goals at hand.

(iii) It is a useful mechanism in institutional building which concentrated on planning and building of new organizations and accordingly fetching variations in values, functions and technical know-how.

SUMMARY

- Development administration is an action and goal-oriented process.
- Development administration is a synchronized effort incorporating a very wide range of undertakings directed to ameliorate the lot of millions of unfortunate; less privileged people leading a life of deprivation and misery.
- The quintessence of development administration is holistic change undertaken through cohesive, structured and appropriately focused governmental action. It rummages around for progressive political, economic and social intentions to be achieved.
- The crucial dimensions of development administration are Industrialization, Modernization and institution – building for a planned economic growth.

KEY TERMS

- **Accountability:** Accountability refers to the obligation on the part of public officials to report on theuse of public capitals and answerability for failing to meet stated performance objectives.
- **Administration:** The supervision and direction of the affairs of governments and institutions.
- **Developing countries:** The term is used for Asia, Africa and Latin America. These countries were underdeveloped and were colonized by the European powers. Their per capita income was low and was engaged in perpetual struggle against poverty, disease, ignorance and hunger.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What are the major characteristics of the administrative practices?
2. Distinguish between traditional and development administration.
3. What are the problems faced in development administration?
4. Give any two criticisms of development administration.
5. What is the difference between the terms 'administration' and 'management'?

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UNIT-2: Nature of Development Administration

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Nature of Development Administration
- Developmental Administration vs Traditional Administration
- Public Administration and Development Administration
- Models of Development Administration
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

Development has to be holistic having its bearings on the polity and society. Each nation attempts to be on the path of development irrespective of the fact whether the nation is developed, underdeveloped, or developing. In order to know clearly about development administration, which is innovative, achievement oriented, and dynamic, it becomes important to be conversant with the concept of development because the meaning of "development" has a distinctive understanding in the literature on development administration.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Explicate the Nature of Development Administration
- Expound the approaches of development administration
- Distinguish between traditional administration and development administration

NATURE OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Development administration lays importance on decentralization of authority so that the native political authority can take the independent decisions then and there only. It is ecological in nature i.e. it is affected by its environment be it social, political or economic. It is influenced by the environmental factors. It is closely linked with the political processes in a society. As most of the

changes come from political leadership, development depends on the know-how of the political management. It stresses on independence and participation of the individuals in developmental undertakings. It emphasizes on devolution, responsive and responsible management of developmental plans, procedures and policies.

Physiognomies of Development Administration

- Development intrinsically is change oriented. It discards status quo. According to Pai Panandikar *'Development Administration is mainly the administration of planned change. The essence of development is holistic change undertaken through integrated organized and properly directed action'.* Planned development is intended to achieve explicit results within a fixed time- frame.

- Every single development programme has a specific goal to be accomplished. For example, the aim of economic development is to improve the quality of life, such as better literacy rate, life expectancy and decreasing poverty lines. In order to achieve the goals of development, planning and organizing the development programmes and policies in a systematic manner is necessary. Hence development is result-oriented as changes need to be brought about promptly and within a specific time frame.

- Development administration has an innovative component; it is malleable enough to strategies new approaches, techniques, procedures which would save time, increase efficacy and quality of the administration.

- The personnel administrators under development administration are required to be dedicated to the policies, plans and programmes. The dedication or commitment need not necessarily be to thepolitical parties, who endorse the policies but to the morals and beliefs that an administrator shouldsustained in his/her profession. Hence, in order to realize the objectives of development it becomes necessary that development administration involves a firm commitment, a sense of participation and concern on the part of bureaucrats.

- As the main focus of development is people, it should accord preeminence to the public. The administration should be client-oriented.

- For the development functions to be operative and for it to be people oriented, a lot of emphasis islaid on the involvement of people in formulating plans, and executing and sharing the benefits derived. Thus, development administration should concentrate on 'planning with people' rather than 'planning for people'. It should be people-centric rather than production centric i.e. not in maximizing production, goods and services but to address the needs and necessities of people and empower people.

- It deals with the development of a country's economy and the social order. This is associated with the optimistic change of the society in overall aspects for their betterment. Hence, the system of development administration depends on the socio-economic system prevailing in the country, whichin turn, depends on socio-economic factors.

- Assimilated and holistic process — Development administration is an interrelated and holistic process of change. It deals with the structure, organization and behaviour essential for the execution of schemes and programmes of socio-economic change commenced by the governments of developing nations.

- It reflects two important dimensions of development. (i) It refers to the administration of developmental programmes, the approaches used by large-scale institutions, particularly governments, to implement policies and plans intended to meet developmental goals. (ii) Development Administration implicates the strengthening of administrative capabilities. These two aspects are interwoven in developmentadministration.

- Much wider in scope of operation - Traditional public administration was narrow in its functioning i.e. it was restricted in maintaining law and order. But the scope of development administration is muchwider. It looks into social, political and economic aspects of life.

- Stress on planning - It is planned change. The administrative capabilities are reinforced to attain developmental goals. This objective is linked with planning. The planned development is intended to achieve specific results within the specified time.

- Staunch supporter of decentralization

- It is progressive and vibrant in thought and action.

Hence, development is a crucial aspect in the life of people. It fulfills the basic requirements and necessities of the people. As a result, it has become a major focus of administrative activity in the country today. It ismuch wider in scope as it covers people from all walks of life.

According to J.N. Khosla, the major functions of development administration are:

(i) Formulation of development goals and policies;

(ii) Programme formulation and programme/project management;

(iii) Reorganization of administrative structures and procedures;

(iv) Evaluation of results;

(v) People's participation in the development effort; and

(vi) Promotion growth of social and political infrastructure.

Developmental Administration vs Traditional Administration

The emergence of development administration had led certain scholars to make a distinction between development and traditional administration. However, some scholars are a bit apprehensive about making any distinction between the two. The reason is that if we make a distinction between the two then the government servants working under the system of traditional administration will be labelled as unsuitable employees in development administration and will be regarded as men of orthodox attitudes. Moreover, the term development is not correctly analysed in its association with the prevailing governmental machinery.

The other word for traditional administration is general administration. The distinction between the two can be made on the following lines:-

- Traditional administration did not respond to the demands of socio-economic development, whether in colonies such as Thailand and Ethiopia. They were not expected to be quick to respond to legislature or other representatives of the people. Development administration responds to the socio-economic and political needs of the people.

- Traditional administration is a creation of industrial revolution, whereas development administrationis a product of post-colonial and post World War II.

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- Development administration has more emphasis on approachable administration in contrast to traditional administration.
- Development administration has more rigorous and all-encompassing interest in planning whereastraditional administration has partial concern in planning.
- Traditional administration is supervisory and status quo-oriented while development administrationis evolving and change oriented.
- Development administration is much more revolutionary and innovative than traditional administration.
- Traditional administration focusses on chain of command-oriented structure whereas developmentadministration lays emphasis on group orientation.
- Development administration is more evolved whereas traditional administration is more consolidated. The bureaucracies were highly centralized. The authority was concentrated at the center level only. The top officials did not like to share their power with their juniors.
- Development administration is vigorous in nature while traditional administration is not.
- Traditional administration is limited while development administration is participatory and involved in its nature.
- Traditional administration is more inner looking but development administration is outer looking.

Public Administration and Development Administration

If we look into public administration we find that it is the study of various activities carried out by the government. It is nothing but the administration of the government. It is mainly concerned with maintenance of law and order, collecting revenue and application of rules and procedures. On the other hand, development administration deals with the overall administration of the government. It is much wider in scope. It is involved in utilization of resources and their distribution to a great variety of developmental activities. It is the most recent and the vast branch of public administration. Public administration deals with **POSDCORB** principles *i.e. planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting.* Development administration deals with the four P's i.e. planning, policies, programmes and procedures.

Approaches of Development Administration

The various approaches of development can be categorized under two major headings i.e., Initial Approaches and Modern approaches.

1. **Initial Approaches:** The scholars who supported the development theory during the era of the 1950s and the 1960's view the term in the western context. They believed that the developing countries and under developing countries had to progress in a western way. The promoters of this approach have confidence that the Western developed societies have attained administrative proficiencies that are transferable to underdeveloped or developing countries. The supporters of this approach were of the view that if the bureaucratic changes can be brought about then the political development will be achieved more easily. If such a change is accomplished then the political and economic development can proceed more rapidly. According to them the indicator for the development is Gross National Product through which

the development of the Third World countries can be measured. The following approaches fall under this ambit.

- Economic Approach: According to this approach, the underdeveloped countries should save more and invest it as a capital. Economic progress is possible only through the process of industrialization. The promoters of this approach are *Keynes, J.S. Mill* and *Adam Smith*, among others.

- Diffusion Approach: According to this approach, the third world countries tried to embrace capital, technology and social structure from westernized countries. Hence, development is explained in terms of diffusion. It was propounded by *R.S.Edari* and *E. M. Rogers*. In the work *'Diffusion of Innovations', Rogers defines diffusion as the 'process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system'.* He also emphasized industrialization for development.

- Psychosomatic Approach: This approach laid emphasis on individual personality mannerisms like accomplishment-enthusiasm and change orientation. The chief exponents of this theory are *David McClelland, Everett Hagen,* and *Inkeles*.

Hence, this approach emphasizes governmental reforms in administrative structural arrangements, personnel management, administrative organization and tax and revenue collection.

2. **Modern Approaches:** During the 1970s and 1980s, the development theorist laid emphasis on context-based approaches to development. There is no single concrete theory of development. It looks into the following features:

- Widespread involvement, information sharing
- Independence and objectivity in development
- Restrictive growth of population
- Greater equality in dissemination of development aids

MODELS OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

In recent times we saw that development administration is a new facet of public administration. It is a vibrant notion which brings about political, cultural, social and economic changes in society. Edward Weidner is a notable protagonist of development administration. His writings include *'Development Administration: A New Focus for Research', 'Theory of Development Administration', 'The Elements of Development Administration'; 'Development Administration in Asia',* etc.

Edward Weidner: According to Weidner the former administrative theories have lots of loopholes and problems. Too much of emphasis was given to the means of administration and the goals to achieve the desired results were underemphasized. *According to Weidner, 'Public Administration has glorified the means and forgotten ends. Good administration and good human relations have become ends in themselves, quiet apart from the achievement of other values that may or may not facilitate'.* Weidner had introduced the concept of goal-oriented development administration which was not there in the earlier administrative theories. For him the process of development should be

towards nation building and for socio-economic progress. *He rightly points out 'development is never complete; it is relative, more or less of it being possible'.* According to him in order to achieve the development objectives the development administration should distinctively concentrate on administrative enquiry. This is necessary to comprehend the managerial roles, practices and managerial arrangements. The main emphasis of development administration is the focus on administrative rudiments for attaining public policy aims and objectives and recognizing conditions under which the maximum level of development can be achieved. He has observed development administration in government as *'the process of planned or intended change in the direction of modernity or nation building and socio-economic change'*

Fred W. Riggs: One of the eminent scholars of the subject, comparative public administration, Fred W. Riggs, has made a qualitative contribution in the arena of development administration. His work includes *'Frontiers of Development Administration', 'the Idea of Development Administration'* and *'Administration in Developing Countries'.* According to Riggs, 'development' can be seen as a procedure of accumulative autonomy of social structures made possible by an increasing level of diffraction. He was of the view that such autonomy demonstrates itself in the form of augmented ability of human societies to contour their cultural, social and physical settings. He has offered an ecological view of development. Riggs has reflected differentiation and integration as two significant components in the process of development. According to him, a high level of differentiation combined with a high level of integration creates a society diffracted. A low level of differentiation with an equivalent level of integration creates a society prismatic. Hence, diffraction leads to development. The higher the level of differentiation and integration, the greater the level of development and the lesser their level, minor is their development.

For the study and inquiry of transitional societies, Riggs developed an archetypal, i.e. 'prismatic society'. He referred to a popular approach known as structural-functionalism. It is common knowledge that whatever type of society we may take as an example, they all perform certain functions, be it of settling disputes or making rules and procedures or doing welfare functions for its residents. The organizations by which the functions are consummate differ massively from society to society. Western countries, by contrast, maintain a massive number of structures with very precise functions. The procedure of transformation, from this perception, encompasses amassed structural differentiation.

For administration in developing countries, Riggs presented the idea of 'prismatic society' to elucidate the distinctive circumstances and the undercurrents of politics and administration in developing countries.

Riggs presented his 'prismatic model' based on the allegory of a prism. This term is used in physics where the light is seen in the form of diffracted beams. When white light passes through a prism it is diffracted into diverse colours, i.e., it forms a rainbow. Similarly, Riggs says that in the progression of development, societies travel from a fused genre in which slight or no differentiation exists to a diffracted situation in which there is an elevated degree of functional specialization. If we look into the administrative terms we will find that there is a drastic change from a situation in which a few organizations execute diverse functions, as it happens in underdeveloped countries, to one in which numerous specific organizations execute specific functions, as in developed countries of the West. The concept can be better understood with the help of a diagram (refer Figure 1.1).

FUSED   PRISMATIC   DIFFRACTED

The Prismatic Model: Conceptualizing Transitional Societies
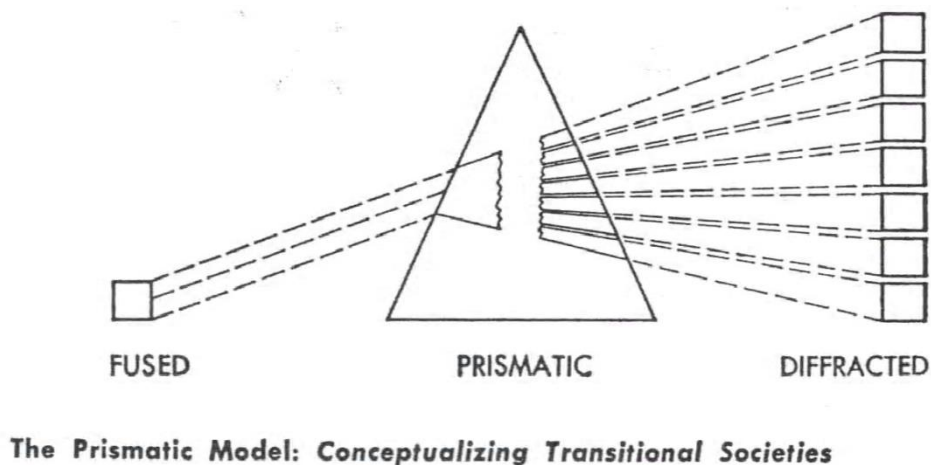
Fig. 1.1 *The Prismatic Model of Riggs*

For Riggs, the prismatic model was not a temporary state of shift between traditional agriculture and modern industrialization. It established a distinct model in its own right, a third kind with its own procedures and ethos*.* According to Riggs *'The prismatic situation was neither traditional nor modern, but it contained novel elements generated by the juxtaposition of old and new social structures.'* Riggs was of the view that in order to comprehend public administration in a prismatic society, one had to apprehend the specific features of that situation.

The three main characteristics of the model of 'prismatic society' are as follows:-

- **Heterogeneity** which denotes the co-existence and blend of both contemporary and traditional structures. Here the contemporary notions are super levied upon the outmoded one.
- **Overlapping** refers to those two sorts of structures executing alike functions. The administrative structures are intermixed with the socio economic, cultural and political aspects of society.
- **Formalism** refers to a gap between prearranged rules and procedures and actual practice. Hence the existence of discrepancy between the formally prescribed norms and their practice is known as formalism. Hence, there is a wide gap between administrative plans and their execution. It intensifies to administrative ills like rigid official procedure, inefficiency and bribery.

Riggs defined development as a **'process of increasing autonomy of social systems, made possible by rising level of diffraction'**. He deliberated differentiation and integration as two significant ideas in the procedure of development. Riggs has made the biggest contribution in popularizing comparative administration movement at the global level. However, he stresses on the necessity for *'development management'* and *'international comparisons'* for enhanced public administration.

While Edward Weidner explored development administration as an action-oriented, goal-oriented administrative system with societal change as the crux of development, Riggs considered development administration with regard to both administrative problems as well as governmental reforms. As Riggs observed: *'Administration cannot normally be improved very much without changes in the environmental constraints (the infrastructure) that hamper its effectiveness and*

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the environment itself cannot be changed unless the administration of development programme is strengthened'

SUMMARY

- It embraces improving and re-organizing the organization of administration and enhances the competence of administrators who are to implement the development schedule.
- Development administration addresses itself to subject of human rights and guarantee rudimentaryhuman needs of people.
- It has to act as a tool in the execution of development programmes, projects and policies.
- Development administration pursues to carry out development programmes as swiftly as possible and within a definite time frame as a result ii is regarded as target oriented.

KEY TERMS

- **Equality:** The idea that all persons have an equal claim to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.
- **Globalization:** The course of globalization not only comprises of opening up of world trade, growth of advanced means of communication, internationalization of financial markets and services, growing prominence of MNC, population movements and, more generally, increased mobility of persons, goods, capital data and ideas, but also of infectious diseases and environmental problems like pollution.
- **Liberalization:** A process of freeing the economy, from various governmental regulations, such as industrial licensing, controls on pricing and distribution of products and services, imports and exports and foreign exchange regulations; control of capital issues by companies; credit controls, restriction on investment, etc., so that the development and operation of the economy is increasingly guided by freely operating market forces.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What are the two key objectives of development?
2. Give Herbert Simon's definition of 'administration'.
3. What is the difference between the terms 'administration' and 'management'?
4. List some of the major functions of development administration.
5. Edward Weidner has made a huge contribution to the field of development administration. Name some of his books on development administration.
6. Fred W. Riggs' 'prismatic model' is based on the allegory of a   .
7. What is Fred W. Riggs' definition of development?

FURTHER READING

Kathleen Staudt, *Managing Development: State, Society and International Contexts*, Newbury Park: Sage,
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UNIT-3: Challenges, Scope, and Growth of Development Administration

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Challenges of Development Administration
- Problems of Development Administration
- Scope and Significance of Development Administration
- Growth of Development Administration
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

Some scholars have identified development administration with a high degree of innovation in administrative system, which in turn is expected to encourage innovations in non- administrative areas. Weidner has stressed that:

"The problem of how to maximise the effectiveness of a bureaucracy so that it contributes to growth in the direction of modernity or nation-building and socio-economic progress is a problem of how to strengthen innovational forces in the bureaucracy." (Weidner, op. cit)

It has been stressed that development administration, by its very nature, is innovative (Katz, 1965). However, this should not imply that there are some administrative systems, which lack innovation absolutely and, therefore, are entirely non-developmental. What this means essentially is that an administrative unit devoted to the attainment of developmental goals is likely to need greater innovation and creativity than the one engaged primarily in "routine" administrative activities.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the scope and significance of development administration;
- Discuss the emergence of development administration and
- Discuss the Growth of Development Administration

CHALLENGES OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

In order to retain sustainable development the developing countries face a lot of difficulties. Some of them are:

(i) **Topographical location:** It has been observed that most of the underdeveloped countries live on problematic geographical situation, some have isolated land, some are land locked and some are alienated by many miniature islands. All this led to imbalance in development.

(ii) **High rate of population:** The total population of the world is divided into 80 per cent in underdeveloped countries and 20 per cent in developed countries. The economic growth rate is not as much of the population growth rate in under developed countries, which gives a negative impact for the development.

(iii) **Political unpredictability:** Most of the underdeveloped countries see the instability of the government, policies and programmes. The government does not serve their full term which leads to impediment in the path of development.

(iv) **Foreign intervention:** The budget of the development countries relies on foreign aids, grants and loans. These may be bilateral or multilateral. They try to impose their policies to the receiver countries. The foreign hegemony affects the development efforts of the receiver countries.

(v) **Malpractices in administration:** Looking into the administration of the underdeveloped countries, we see that the efficiency of the development activities is affected by corrupt mentality, irresponsibility and unaccountability. These deficiencies lead to administrative inefficiency. Moreover, violation of the rules and regulations in the working organization and cumbersome process in decision-making have further added to the faulty administration in underdeveloped countries.

(vi) **Paucity of economic resources:** Inaccessibility of raw materials, technical manpower and irrational use of resources are major limitations in the process of development.

(vii) **New innovations in development:** Rural development component, cohesive development, paucity reduction and women's development have been verified as development models. The developed countries have verified these various development models in underdeveloped countries.

(viii) **Brain draining:** One of the major drawbacks of the developing and underdeveloped countries is brain draining. Most faculties, researchers and qualified people prefer to go to the developed countries due to their eye-catching facilities.

Besides the factors mentioned, there are many other factors that may hamper the sustainable development of the country. The **economic growth rates**, **funds of the people**, **investment in the productive sectors** are the substantial factors of development.

Problems of Development Administration

(i) The first and foremost problem of development administration is the lack of administrators and personnel with sufficient aptitude to deal with development administration.

(ii) Second, are the fraudulent practices among political and managerial personnel engaged in Development Administration programme. This wears down the integrity of the Development Administration.

(iii) Third, there is an absenteeism of adequate monitoring system to measure the regulated enactment during execution of Development Administration programme. Monitoring, if appropriately scheduled, can help managers keep the project operative as planned.

(iv) Fourth, absence of exceptional leadership which is an indispensable component of development administration.

(v) Fifth, absence of usage of IT for e-governance for development administration.

SCOPE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

There are two schools of thought that basically deal with the scope of development administration.

(i) **Narrow view of development:** This basically deals with the programme-oriented approach givenby Fainsod and John Montgomery; and

(ii) **Broader view of development:** This deals with the action-oriented approach given by LucianPye, Riggs and Edward Weidner.

With regard to the first approach, Merile Fainsod observes that *'development administration is a carrier of innovating values. It embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking upon the path of modernization and industrialization. It ordinarily involves the establishment of machinery of planning, economic growth and mobilizing and allocating resources to expand national income'.* John Montgomery said that: *'Development administration is one which carries out planned change in the economy, in agriculture, industry or the capital infrastructure supporting either of these and to a lesser extent in the social services of the state, especially education and public health.'*

The scholars who stood for the action-oriented approach are Lucian Pye, Riggs and Weidner. According to Edward Weidner, *'Development administration is directly concerned with goal oriented and emphasis on nation building and socio-economic progress'.* According to Fred Riggs, *'Development Administration is characterized to both administrative problems and governmental reform. The problem relate to governmental tasks connected with agricultural, industrial, educational and medical progress.'*

By taking into account the functional approach, Merla Fair Soul, an eminent scholar, has explicated the notion of development administration. This administration clasps the new range of functions assumed by developing countries boarding on the path of modernization and industrialization. It encompasses the establishment of apparatus for planning economic growth and mobilizing and distributing resources to increase the national income.

Thus, modernization, industrialization and institution building for planned economic growth and development create some vital dimensions of development administration.

The notion of development has two essential facets. First, it looks into the process through which a public administration system guides socio-economic and political change in the social order,

it measures the growth in the administrative capabilities; second, it studies the crescendos of alteration within the administrative system i.e. to administer as a mechanism of national development. The former refers to the administration of development, while the second is related to administration development.
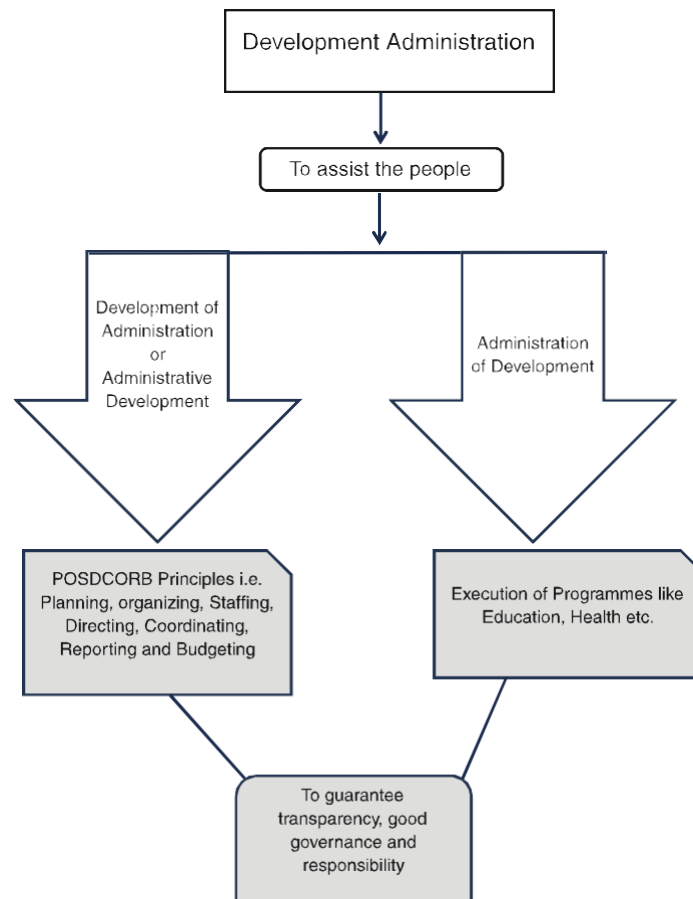
Development of Administration or Administrative Development: The administrative capabilities are vital elements for effective and responsive administration. **'*Administrative development'*** denotes the enhancement, growth and formation of administrative capability. It presumes administration to hold aptitude to regulate new stimuli or transform by referring to compliance, self-sufficiency and consistency in administrative maneuvers. The Development of Administration is conceivable through the following ways:

- The outlook and values of the bureaucratic employees entrenched in hierarchal authority need tobe changed.
- Generalization of rules and procedures in public functioning is an imperative measure.
- Administrative re-organization and rationalization.
- Eliminating or reducing bureaucratic immovability and widespread corruption.
- Forming a strong group of administrators who can offer leadership in thought-provoking and supportive programmes of social and economic enhancement.

Administration of Development: In simple terminology, it means managing the growth or development. This is acknowledged with organizational expansions –administration departments, public inventiveness, monitoring agencies and public corporation. The government mechanism is accountable for accomplishing wider socio-economic and political objectives. The utilities of administration of development are:

- Equal pay for equal work
- Participation of workers in the management of undertakings, organization in any industry
- Deconcentration of wealth and means of production
- Right to work, to education and to public support in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness
- Justifiable distribution of material resources to subserve the common good
- Effective and effectual use of scarce resources
- Emphasis on social development and human capital as a major resource.
- Emphasis on development at the grass root level.

The above concept can be better understood with the help of Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 *Scope of Development Administration and Administration of Development*

The major scope of development administration is as follows:

(i) It is related with the democracy and development. It plans its policies of development for the upliftment of a country's economic, political and social situation.

(ii) The role of the government has been expanding. In order to meet the high expectations of the people the government is working in joint collaboration with privatized companies and the partnership for development with NGOs.

(iii) In the case of India, one comes across the Five Year Plan that was undertaken by the Governmentafter its Independence. The plan was basically adopted to improvise the economic development and to achieve the targets in time. The Five Year Plan was based on the socialistic pattern of society. In order to achieve this, reservation in jobs was introduced which helps bridging the gap between rich and poor. *Panchayats* have been vested with power and authority for democratic decentralization.

(iv) For effective implementation of development plans it is vital to carry out the effective research activities. It reveals the ways and procedures as to how to carry out the developmental activities effectively.

(v) The crucial responsibilities of development administration are:

- To arrange for skilled personnel at each level
- To organize training
- Make actual use of proficient managers and bureaucrats
- Embrace enhanced devices of planning and management.

GROWTH OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

The word 'Development Administration' is very new. It was first devised by an Indian Civil Servant, U.L. Goswami in his article *'The Structure of Development Administration in India'* in 1955 in the background of Community Development Programme, and was propagated later on by renowned scholars like *Fred W. Riggs, Edward W. Weidner, Joseph La Palombara and Albert Waterson*. In public administration the term development administration was incorporated in order to reflect the changes in policies, projects and programmes in order to improve the social and economic conditions of the society. Unquestionably, the conception has been useful. It has served as a reconvening point for academicians and experts concerned about public administration in developing countries.

After the end of World War II, 1945, colony after colony flung away the imperial bondage. Country after country succeeded the liberation and administrative autonomy. This fresh status gave assurance of sovereignty and liberty and self-determination in administrative systems of archetypal democracy. Independence and self-determination gave high hopes for individual freedom, equality of treatment in the society, higher national and per capita income, a quick rise in standards of living, and an escalation in individual prospects. Even those countries which were not directly controlled by the imperial powers but were administered by the authoritarian governments took the shelter of development administration in order to improve their political, social and economic conditions. New governments and their bureaucracies, their managerial organizations and procedures, were projected to give reality to these predicted fruits of independence and liberty.

Looking into the Third World Countries, the colonial rulers, for their own profit and advantage had exploited their natural resources. The imperial powers had showed little concern for their growth or well- being and consequently those countries under colonial rule became stranded preys of paucity, malnutrition, ignorance, discrimination and retrograde. The main agenda of the Third World countries, after attaining their liberation was to get out of this progression of paucity and backwardness, and quicken the speed of their economic, social and political development.

After World War II, the advent of international and bilateral strategies for methodical assistance to developing countries has been a foremost purpose for augmented consideration to Development Administration. With the help and assistance of the United Nations and the US foreign aid, during the 1950s and 60s, various economic and technical assistance schemes were efficaciously carried out in the developing countries. But these programmes were futile to yield any desired results. This elucidates the constant attention shown by the American academicians in the administrative structures of the developing nations. Hence, the rise of former colonies into sovereign nations, copiousness of research subsidy with the *Comparative Administration Group* and monetary and procedural assistance under the *USAID programme* led to propagation of development administration as a device for accomplishment of socio- economic development and nation edifice in the so called Third

World. Moreover, certain incidents in history like the disastrous influence of the Great Depression of the 1930s, post-World War II challenges and lessons learnt from Marshall Plan and UN determination to improve the socio-economic status of the developing countries influenced the growth of the concept of development administration. Development administration was seen as concerned with the will to organize prevailing and new assets and to generate adequate administrative capabilities to attain agreed-upon developmental objectives. Thus, development administration developed into an action-oriented administration indicted with the responsibility of answering the requirements of the people.

During the period of the 1960s the affiliates of the *Comparative Administrative Group of the American Society for Public Administration* carried out a study in the field of Development Administration. The study discovered that the Western developmental models and perceptions of Public Administration may not be suitable or practicable for the developing countries. In order to enjoy the technical assistance given by the Western countries, these newly independent countries need to alter their administrative system. This led to an examination for a new administrative model which meets the developmental requirements of the developing nations. Since the 1960s, in the developing states, the notion of deliberate change to carry out the rapid socio-economic transformation has become a kind of administrative ideology.

In order to meet the development requirements of developing countries, there arose a new kind of administration, a distinctive genre of administration called development administration. However, it will be incorrect to believe that development administration is exclusively concerned with the management of developing countries. One cannot deny the fact that the developed western countries, also encounter the complications of continuing socio-economic and political development. Even they are in dire need of development administration. Moreover, restraining the notion of development administration to developing countries will diminish its effectiveness.

In short, the main causes for the birth and growth of the notion of development administration are:

- The advent of new decolonized states in Asia, Africa and Latin America after World War II
- The rise of international and American economic and technical plans for assisting of developing nations; and
- The establishment of the Comptroller and Auditor General (CAG) and the attentiveness shown by its members in developing nations and their managerial systems.

Due to the above stated factors, since the 1960s, development administration has become the dominant issue and attained a massive importance in the developing countries. In the developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America, the necessity of such an administration has been well acknowledged as a means of executing policies, and plans focused on their nation–building and socio economic progress. However, the developing states did not comprehend that the most vital component in the process of development was going to be the contribution of foreign proficiency and assets. During the 1970s, a number of techniques for the development process were popularized. Some of them were, five year planning, community development programmes and administrative reforms. Moreover, the period saw ups and downs in both North and South countries. Turmoils and fragmentation proliferated in the countries of Asia, Latin America and Africa. The events of energy crisis, and growing economic recession had further dampened the spirit of development administration.

During the period of 1980s the groundwork of the development administration archetype was ruthlessly questioned. The New International Economic Order became a significant icon in the arena of development. It demanded a basic readjustment of the global economy, through vicissitudes in trade. Aid and technological transfer were valued but generally overlooked by the wealthy benefactor nations. During this period, the developing nations became disheartened when they found out that instead of being beneficiary of capital from the West, they were forced to make net transfers of their meager assets to the developed countries. In order to make provisions for their debts, several developing nations became almost penniless. Constricting trade practices banned the developing countries from exporting their goods and services. No wonder, famine, poverty, disparity and oppression became the order of the day in most of the developing nations.

In today's scenario the role of development administration has changed enormously. Once limited to distribution of foreign aid, development administration in contemporary times focusses on planned change to meet the nation's broad political, economic and social purposes. If we take a look at any institution, be it religious, cultural, non-governmental agencies and so on they all are increasingly getting involved in development administration. In recent times, we see that there has been a considerable shift in the development administration theory from a *'blue print approach'* to *'learning process approach'.* The former basically deals with a closed and inflexible system and is unable to respond to the needs of the changing environment. The latter deals with an open-ended system and can adapt itself to the needs of the changing environment. They work in collaboration with the people. They lay emphasis on empowerment of people, equality, self-reliance, and so on. According to the World Development Report: *'Today's intense focus on the state's role is reminiscent of an earlier era, when the world was emerging from the ravages of World War II and much of the developing world was just gaining its independence. Then, development seemed a more easily surmountable- and largely technical-challenge'.*

In the changing scenario of administration we find that administration has become more decentralized and market-friendly in nature. This 'market-friendly' administration was championed by the Ronald Reagan and George Bush administration in the U.S, by Margaret Thatcher's government in England and by various other European governments. The market-friendly approach stands for minimum functions to the state and permits more free play in the market.

Development Administration in Third World Countries

The end of colonialism had led to the greatest structural adjustments of government in the third world countries. As the countries declared themselves independent, one after another from the colonial subjugation, they asserted various plans for comprehensive societal change. Independence of these Third World Countries required substantive adjustments in almost all spheres of life. The demand for better standards of living, improvement in both agrarian and industrial sectors had led to the adoption of development administration. Being vibrant, innovative, and result-oriented, development administration is considered as an appropriate system for the underdeveloped countries where every policy and plan is development-oriented.

Development has become a crucial factor in almost all the countries. However, the immediate need was felt in the developing countries. In order to carry out comprehensive plans and policies of development, state was regarded as the best choice for coordination and bringing about changes and

innovations in the society. Keeping this in mind, a chain of experiments has been carried out by well-known multilateral agencies for providing assistance to low income group countries and underdeveloped countries. But then again the anticipated results have not mirrored as required. The Third World Countries have the following characteristics:-

(i) In most of the underdeveloped countries there is a lot of diversity in their societies and their organization.

(ii) People are indifferent toward development. There is a lot of overlapping in development undertakings, the main reason being illiteracy and embryonic infrastructures. Also, a number of development agencies are working in the same sector and geographical areas.

(iii) There is formalization in the process of development administration. The common people cannot taste the fruits of government services as the civil servants follow stringent rules and procedures, lengthy processes and official procedures. As a result, the disadvantaged section of the populationis always at the burning end.

(iv) Due to the lack and non-availability of resources on time there may occur hindrances in the implementation of plans and policies. The tedious efforts carried out by planners for nation building and the bureaucrats, for effective implementation of the policies are brought to naught.

(v) The unstable government in developing countries hinders the progress of development. The bureaucratic structure in such countries is feeble. As a result, development does not get the projected output.

Immediately after achieving political independence, the developing countries came head on with the gigantic problems of nation building. Some of the conspicuous problems faced by them were:-

- Improvement and development of the rudimentary infrastructural facilities
- Provision of social service to the people
- Stress on national security
- Social and economic development and
- Agricultural intensification and to look into the problem of land degradation
- Nation building and modernization
- Restructuring of the bureaucratic machinery

The one and only institution that can handle these gigantic problems was the government. The government took upon itself the responsibility of finding solutions. This step was a drastic retreat from the colonial government whose main function was to provide law enforcement, accumulate revenue from the colonized people and arrange for such services that were essential for the working of the administration.

It was crystal clear that the traditional public administration could not manage the emerging new role and increased undertakings of the government. In order to cope with this mammoth task of politico- economic and socio-cultural development, therefore, called for the embracing of a system of governmental administration which was vigorous, avant-garde and development oriented. Thus, this development administration came into existence. The greatest responsibility for achieving the well-being of its citizens lies with the government. If we look into the arena of health, the doctor does the operation but it is the nurse who takes care of the patient, so is the case with respect to the well-being

of the nation. Amongst the two divisions of politics and administration, the latter is more accountable for the achievement of direction with dynamism and devotion. Hence, importance is given to the training programmes for administrators. These programmes will instruct not only the technical know how of the particular problem but they will also attain a sense of national prophecy. Development administration must generate social change and introduce modernization.

Criticism of Development Administration

Criticism against development administration is varied. Some of the important ones are as follows:

- It tends to disrupt public administration as a homogeneous discipline. There is an artificial differentiation between development and non-development administration. There is a lot of overlapping and interdependence between the cognate arms of administration.
- It only scrutinizes the role of bureaucracy in the Third World countries. The development list has overexaggerated the role of bureaucrats and tends to forget other forms of public management. Hence, this despotic approach of the bureaucrats will not stimulate the individuals to vigorously participate in fulfilling the plan programmes.
- Development administration just serves the ideological purpose of covering the true nature of the Third World Countries.
- Development administration has been found to be feeble and inefficiently equipped to lookout for evolving challenges. Decision-making procedures and professional methods followed are slow and infuriating to those people who are affected by them. Corruption is severe and defies solution. Political intrusion in administrative paperwork is another aspect constraining the socio-economic growth of the developing countries.

SUMMARY

- Development administration pursues to carry out development programmes as swiftly as possible and within a definite time frame as a result ii is regarded as target oriented.
- It is 'people centric' and comprises greater participation of the people in the development process.
- In order to achieve the good governance the administration has to be efficient, committed, and goal and result oriented.
- In today's world, development administration is not only desirable but essential as well.
- At the heart of the question of development, is the fact that apart from the indispensable thrust on the socio-economic aspects, development is a complex interplay of political administrative forces as well.

KEY TERMS

- **Privatization:** It means transfer from the public to the private sector of ownership or control over assets or activities. Privatization fosters efficiency, encourages investment – and thus new

growth and employment – and frees public resources for development of infrastructure and social programmes.

- **Sustainable Development:** Development that does not terminate or eventually deplete a location's natural resources. Sustainable development helps ensure a better, healthier living environment and contributes to an area's quality of life.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. List some of the problems of development administration.
2. What are the two schools of thought that basically deal with the scope of development administration?
3. List some of the utilities of administration of development.
4. The 'Blue print approach' deals with a closed and inflexible system and is unable to respond to the needs of the changing environment. On the other hand, the 'learning-process approach' deals with an open-ended system and can adapt itself to the needs of the changing environment.

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UNIT-4: Planning and Development Strategy

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- India's Socio-Economic Conditions Post Independence
- Mixed Economy Model: Rationale and Significance
- Role of Planning
- Goals of Development
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

Planning is an age old human activity. It began when man started imposing himself upon the environment as distinct from living in and off the natural surroundings. Development is the process of directed social change in society, intended to bring about both social and material advancement including greater equality, freedom, and other valued qualities for the majority of the people. Every society, in order to grow and cater to the needs of its members must keep developing with time. This can only be done through proper planning and strategizing. 'Development Planning' is broadly defined as the planning of any organized venture whose main target is to promote development. It embraces a wide range of thrusts in the economic, social and international fields at various societal levels, from the local to the international, and generally gives importance to the relations between the societal sphere and its units. Development planning is possible only through a strategy. This term has wide meaning. Internationally known authority on business management, Henry Mintzberg, defines the strategy of an organization as 'the mediating force between the organization and its environment'.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Write about the socio-economic conditions of India post independence
- Explain India's present socio-economic problems
- Analyse the mixed economy model, its rationale and significance
- Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the mixed economy model

INDIA'S SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS POST INDEPENDENCE

India gained Independence on August 15, 1947 and became a federal republic on January 26, 1950. It

brought together all the regional entities to form one country — India. The British left India in a stagnant state with its economy burdened under distortions and imbalances. This was due to the largely pre- capitalist modes of production in industry and agriculture and the colonial arrangements of foreign trade. The country was economically stagnant with widespread poverty, unemployment and the consequent human misery. The partition of the country further added to the crisis. India was falling behind the first world countries by almost a century. Therefore, the country had to be brought back on its feet in a short span of time. The backward industrial sector had to be improvised to make the economy self-reliant and the agricultural sector, which was at a standstill at that moment had to be revived to bring about prosperity and to strengthen rural India.

In the 1950s, while the Indian National Congress adopted socialism and self-reliance as the basis of its economic programme, the top directors from the managing agencies shared most directorships in foreign-controlled companies in India. Thus, apparently the autonomous Indian companies were actually being controlled by foreign capital. For instance, in 1945-50, 85 per cent of the area of tea plantations and most of the paid-up capital in plantation industry were enrolled by foreign companies. 70-90 per cent of Jute production, 73 per cent of all mining including gold and 70 per cent of coal mining were also owned by the foreign countries. Nearly half of the net assets of the organized sector were being controlled by other countries in 1953. Despite all this, the nature and scope of foreign capital investment and control by managing agencies gradually deteriorated in its importance. The American MNCs had started looking for outlets for capital export and had started penetrating India. This was further strengthened by then Indian Prime Minister, Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru's development strategy.

Netaji Subhas Chandra Bose initiated rudimentary economic planning in 1938. Even the British set up a planning board which functioned from 1944 to 1946. At least three development plans were devised by industrialists and economists, such as Ghanshyamdas Birla, Jamnalal Bajaj, J. R. D. Tata and Ambalal Sarabhai independently in 1944.

The concept of Five Year Plans originated in the erstwhile Soviet Union in 1928 and the Soviet Union owes much of its industrial success to such plans. Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru, inspired by this system, introduced the same in India and adopted the Five Year Plans as a model for the country's development. The founding leaders strategized development through state-led industrialization and a Planning Commission was set up on March 15, 1950, with the Prime Minister as its chairman. The commission has been formulating Five Year Plans and Annual Development Plans ever since in pursuit of development and growth of the country.

India's five greatest problems, according to Nehru (as stated in one of his speeches), were: (i) land, (ii) water, (iii) capital, (iv) babies and (v) cows. To curb these problems, he launched the First Five Year Plan. The plan was able to cope with the problems of land, water and cows, but even till date, babies and capital persist as problems. The year 1951 marked the beginning of the First Five Year Plan. Later, two subsequent Five Year Plans were formulated till 1965 after a break because of the conflict between India and Pakistan. Two successive years of drought, a general rise in prices and devaluation of the currency disrupted the five year planning process and after three Annual Plans between 1966 and 1969, the Fourth Five Year Plan was started in 1969.

The Eighth Five Year Plan could not be implemented due to changing political situations and the years 1990-91 and 1991-92 were rather considered as Annual Plans. Subsequently, the Eighth Five Year Plan was launched in 1992. The Five Year Plans mainly focused on growth of the public sector with investments in basic and heavy industries but since the launch of the Ninth Plan in 1997, the emphasis on the public sector has become less pronounced and the current thinking on planning in the

country, in general, is that it should increasingly be of an indicative nature.

India's present socio-economic problems

Since Independence, the country has been facing many social and economic issues. Overpopulation, poverty, corruption, sanitation, religion-based violence, terrorism, naxalism, caste-related violence and illiteracy are the country's major problems.

1. Overpopulation

India ranks second with a population of about 1.2 billion. In terms of population density, India ranks 33rd. Overpopulation stands as a barrier in the way of India's development in every field. Most of the problems that the country faces are due to overpopulation. Despite many failed attempts to curb the problem, it still persists. Indira Gandhi's attempt to enforce a forced sterilization programme stands as an example. According to this programme, men with two or more children had to submit to sterilization but the programme did not work out well with many unfavourable repercussions. The programme is still criticized for generating a public aversion to family planning and has been hindering government programmes for decades.

2. Poverty

One third of the country's population lies below poverty line and India houses one third of the word's total poor population. Although the upper classes have been growing economically due to favourable economic developments, India suffers from a severe problem of poverty. According to the World Bank's 2005 estimates, India has 456 million people living below the international poverty line of $1.25 per day. Also, India has about 828 million people (i.e. 75.6 per cent of the total population) living below $2 a day, compared to 72.2 per cent for Sub-Saharan Africa.

Wealth distribution is very uneven in India. Top 10 per cent of the income groups earn 33 per cent of the income. One fourth of the country's population earns less than the government-specified poverty threshold of $0.40 per day. A *2007 report* by the *National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector* found that 25 per cent Indians lived on less than Rs. 20 per day.

3. Sanitation

As of 2008, only 31 per cent of India's total population was using enhanced sanitation facilities. One in every ten deaths in India is a result of poor sanitation and hygiene. Diarrhoea accounts for one in every

20 deaths. 450,000 people died due to diarrhoea in 2006, of which 88 per cent were children below five years of age.

Due to lack of proper sanitation, people defecate in the open. The river Ganga, which could easily be the most frequented river by people in the country, receives 1.1 million litres of fresh sewage every minute.
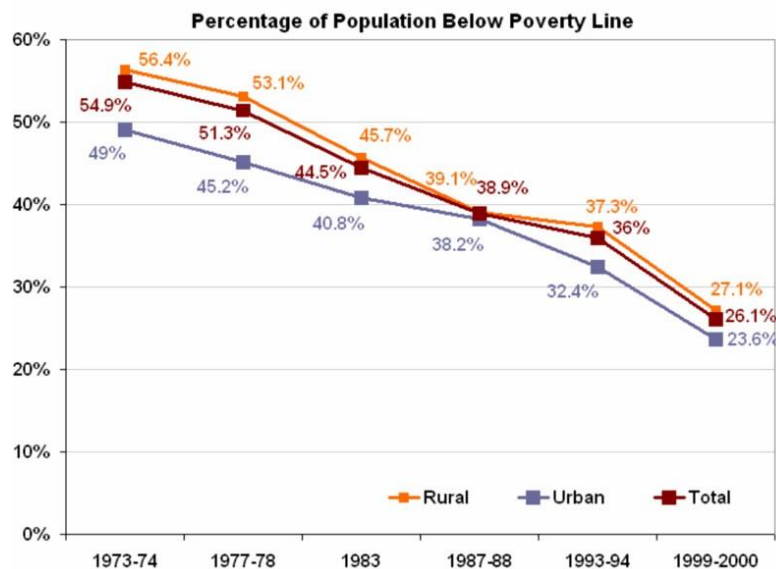
Fig. 2.1 *Percentage of Population Below Poverty Line*

*Source: Estimate by Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation*

In 2006, India lost 6.4 per cent of its GDP (i.e. about $53.8 billion) to inadequate sanitation. Thegovernment has launched many programmes in order to curb the problem. Some of them are-

- Central Rural Sanitation Programme, 1986;
- School Sanitation and Hygiene Education;
- Community Sanitary Complex;
- Individual Household Latrines;
- Anganwadi toilets; and
- Total Sanitation Campaign

The government proposes to grant access to toilets to all by 2017. To meet this objective, the government has given out many incentives, along with adequate education regarding the same through mass media and other communication techniques.

4. Corruption

Corruption is another widespread problem that India is infamous for. The country ranks 95 out of 179 countries in Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index. Corruption is now a major aspect of Indian politics and bureaucracy. Corruption mainly exists in the form of bribes, tax evasion, exchange controls and embezzlement. This causes huge losses to the exchequer and creates an unhealthy environment for investment. The cost of government-subsidized services, which are indispensable for gradual and even growth of the society, also increases manifold as a consequence. The basic services like education, healthcare, judiciary and police are handicapped by this problem. In terms of foreign investment, India becomes less lucrative and this gives an upper hand to other growing economies like China over India.
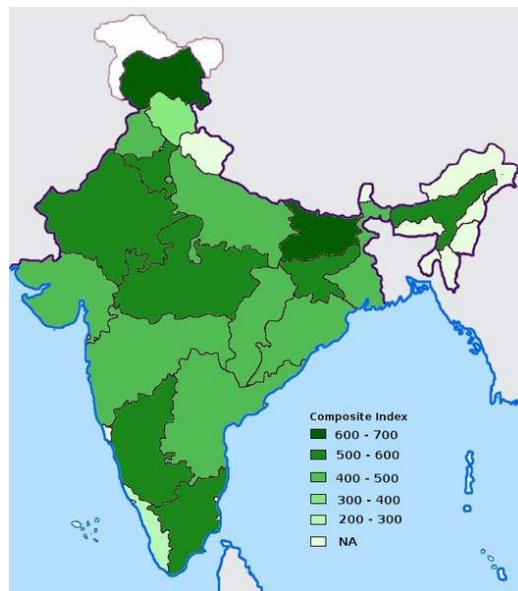
Fig. 2.2 *Corruption by Indian States in 2005*

Source: *India Corruption Study 2005, Transparency International India*

5. Religion-Based Violence

Although secular constitutionally, India has been experiencing large-scale violence in the name of religion. India has had a history of such violence and it still continues. Communal tensions and religion-based politics have emerged as major problems in recent decades. As per the 'Hindutva' ideology, India is for Hindus only and considers Christians and Muslims as aliens. Therefore, proponents of the 'Hindutva' ideology portray violence against people from other religions as a form of 'self-defence' against 'invaders'.

Jammu and Kashmir is a living example of such violence. Here, 250,000 to 300,000 Kashmiri pundits are reported to have migrated to other states and regions due to persecution by Islamic fundamentalists. Islamist terrorists have also killed many of them in incidents like the Amarnath pilgrimage massacre and the Wandhama massacre.

People from other religions too have been facing such problems. There have been reports of distribution of threatening literature, raping of nuns, burning of Bibles, destruction of Christian colleges and schools, and killing of Christian priests. There was a further flare-up of tensions in Orissa in the year 2007 and 2008, the first following the Christians' putting up a *Pandhal* in the area used by the Hindus and the second after the murder of a Hindu Guru during Janmashtami Puja. Four of his disciples were also killed along with him. After that, a 150-year-old church in Madhya Pradesh was attacked, and more attacks were reported in Karnataka.

6. Terrorism

The dictionary definition of terrorism is '***the systematic use or threatened use of violence to intimidate a population or government and thereby effect political, religious, or ideological change'.*** India faces external as well as internal terrorism. External terrorism emerges from neighbouring countries whereas internal terrorism occurs due to religious/communal violence and Naxalite-Maoist insurgency.

Jammu and Kashmir, the north-eastern states, Central India and major cities are the primary

victimsof terrorism.

7. Naxalism

Naxalism is considered to be the biggest security challenge faced by the country. Fourteen of the twenty- eight Indian states face this problem and thousands have died as a result of the same. The term 'Naxalite' is derived from Naxalbari, the name of the West-Bengal town where India's Maoist movement began. The

regions devoid of state control and subject to poverty are home to the Naxalites. The Maoists construct a shadow state with their own system of courts, taxation and regulations. Violence occurs when the police try to drive the Naxalites out of such areas and there is obvious conflict between the two. The region affected most by Naxalism is referred to as the 'red corridor', which runs from the southern tip of Andhra Pradesh to the eastern regions of West Bengal.

Fig. 2.3 *The Naxalite Problem: Red Corridor*

Source: HT

8. Caste-Related Violence

The caste system, originally devised with good intention mainly for division of work, took an ugly turn and now poses a major threat to the Indian society. The lower castes were not able to develop and still remain oppressed. Efforts made to uplift such castes have lead to caste-related violence. In 1979,

the Mandal Commission was established to 'identify the socially or educationally backward', and to establish seat reservations and quotas to uplift such oppressed classes. Subsequently, the members of lower castes were given exclusive access to a certain portion of government jobs and slots in public universities. Massive protests were held in the country when the government tried to implement the recommendations of the Mandal Commission in 1989.

9. Illiteracy

One of the major priorities on the national agenda has been eradication of illiteracy to meet the objective of the National Literacy Mission (NLM). The Total Literacy Campaign aimed to achieve total literacy by

year 2005 but the target was not met. Emphasis was laid on education of the girl child and recruitment of rural women as teachers through special provisions like the Mahila Samakhya Programme and revamped blackboard scheme.

Education is a major instrument for improving the socio-economic conditions of the people, but it is not well linked with poverty eradication objectives despite the initiatives that have been taken from time to time to integrate poverty issues with education. It has long been on the state list, but with the introduction of the New Education Policy (NEP) in 1987, the intervention of Central government has increased and with the initiation of liberalization in 1991, major initiatives have been taken up by the private sector as well. Even though the education network has expanded vastly over the country, the quality of education is deteriorating.

Fig. 2.4 *A Map Showing India's*
Literacy Rate

MIXED ECONOMY MODEL: RATIONALE AND SIGNIFICANCE

The principles of socialism and capitalism come together to form the concept of 'Mixed Economy'. It is a combination of freedoms and regulations that keep changing because of the lack of principles

involved. It is often criticized as an attempt by the government to gain the advantages of freedom without having togive up its power. Mixed economies are also known as dual economies.

Narrowing down the concept of mixed economy to one single definition is not possible, however, in a nutshell; it is a mixture of economic freedom and government regulation. It displays the characteristics ofcapitalism and socialism while dealing with public and private control.

The essence of a mixed economy is the fact that the two primary players, the private sector and public sector, work to benefit each other. The private sector aims at making profit and for every single penny in revenue for the private sector, the government earns a certain amount of tax.

There exists a mixture of free enterprise and government control in a mixed economy. The government may even have a monopoly in some areas of a mixed economy. The concept of mixed economy exists in most of the developed countries of the world. There could be a variety of consequences of the mixture oftwo different economic philosophies. Some may be beneficial, while others are neutral or detrimental.

The basic idea behind a mixed economy is to keep the means of production mostly under private ownership so that markets remain the dominant form of economic coordination and the fundamental driving force behind economic activities are profit-seeking enterprises and the accumulation of capital. But the catch is that unlike a free-market economy, there would be a considerable indirect influence over the economy by the government through fiscal and monetary policies which are designed to counteract economic downturns and capitalism's tendency toward financial crises and unemployment. It also plays a role in interventions that promote social welfare.

Here is an example of symbiosis between the elements of economic freedom and regulation:

Freedom: To own the means of production. It will give the people the right to own as well as operate a small grocery shop, a farm, or a factory.

Government Intervention: Transportation. All levels of government levee taxes on the public to fund maintenance of interstates, bridges, tunnels and roads, and the construction. Using transportation as example, the government will hire private companies to construct bridges and roads which are used by the public as well as private sectors.

A large variety of economies come within the ambit of mixed economy, ranging from the United States to Cuba. It also includes the economies of countries which are referred to as welfare states, like the Nordic countries. Mixed economy governments often provide benefits, such as environmental protection,maintenance of competition and maintenance of employment standards.

Mixed economies are supported by people of various political persuasions, like centre-left and centre- right. Fascists, for the purposes of national unity, promoted mixed economy in the form of corporatism, which involved a tripartite arrangement between labor, business and the state, diminishing class-conflict and unifying the national economy through class collaboration.

Advantages of a mixed economy

The concept of mixed economy, with its own distinct features has proven to be advantageous. Some of itsadvantages are as follows:

- It allows for competition among producers and manufacturers with enough government regulationsin place to protect the society;
- It promotes the right of people and businesses to produce, sell, and decide on their own prices;
- Both private and public sectors work side by side in a mixed economy which leads to rapid

economic development;

- The economic resources of the economy are used efficiently;
- Wastage of resources is reduced;
- There is reduction in income gap;
- Law of inheritance is also applied, which makes certain members of society progress at a high rate;
- There is balanced regional growth. The planning commission of the country keeps in mind the development of every region of the economy while making policies. Hence, all regions and every section of population gets a chance to develop;
- Freedom to own private property: The initiative to work more and earn more is there as individuals are free to acquire and retain property in their own names. It helps in the rapid development of the economy in the many fields such as agriculture, industry and other services;
- There is planned development, which is the Planning Commission's major priority. India has adopted planned developmental economy and Five Year Plans have been introduced; and
- Public interest or interest of the general public is looked after by the public sector. Under this economy, the government is said to be a welfare state. It incurs expenditures, introduces social insurance schemes and manages the economy in the interest of general masses of the country.

Disadvantages of a mixed economy

While mixed economy provides numerous benefits, it has its own cons as well, which are as follows:

- Certain features of production could get wrongly affected in case of wrong regulation on economic processes;
- Merchants and businesses must locate markets for their goods and services;
- Also, they have no control over the taxes they are required to pay;
- Fear of nationalization:

  Under the mixed economy model, the government has the power to nationalize and own any industry. Therefore, there is always a psychological fear that their industry could be nationalized or taken over in the public interest.
- The regulations always force people to act against their own interests. In case of a policy failure, other regulations are enforced in the hope that more control will produce better results. The results could end up being so destructive that they must either be removed, or violent oppression is needed to be put on the people to make them accept it.

Developed countries following the mixed economy model are:

- United States of America
- United Kingdom
- Australia
- Japan
- Germany
- Canada
- Italy

Developing countries with mixed economies are:

- South Africa

- Slovenia
- Mexico
- India

Mixed Economy in the United States

One of the most prominent examples of a mixed economy is the economy of the United States. The economy, as it now stands, has both private enterprise and government regulation as its integral parts. The principle of free enterprise in the US stands as a live example. Businesses reserve the right to incorporate, employ and deny employment to whoever they wish, as long as they do not engage in discrimination or other illegal employment practices. The means of production are mostly privately owned and owners can buy, sell, and invest in any way they choose.

Owing to the prevailing idea that some services are better provided for by the government than private enterprise, government regulation has a strong presence in the U.S. Although, there is a strong emphasis on individual freedom as a part of the country's governing philosophy, it is generally accepted that the services like highway construction and repair, vital records like birth certificates, national defenseand others like them are performed best at a government level.

Mixed Economy Model in India

Primacy of Public Sector

The soviet model of initiating planned growth was adopted by India after Independence. In order to achieve this, the popular model of economic development, the **Nehru Mahalanobis Model of economic growth** was adopted. The key focus of the model was on developing heavy industries which required huge investments and were usually monopolies. With the private sector playing a supportive role, the sector was to be entrusted upon in this area. The Industrial Policy Resolution - 1956, spelt out this primacy of the public sector. These industries were divided into three important categories, *viz.* schedule A, B and C. All the important industries were contained in schedule A and B, and 29 industries were reserved for the public sector. The remaining industries were contained in schedule C. The private sectorwas able to operate only in this area.

As a result, the public sector expanded quickly and import substitution was achieved. Some of the industries which showed impressive growth were mining, chemical, petrochemical, metallurgical and fertilizer. Emphasis was laid on reducing reliance on import and improving foreign exchange earnings. However, the government lacked resources to mobilize funds for larger projects. This led to underutilization of the private sector despite its impressive pool of talent and funds.

Industrial Policy of 1991

Freeing the economy from bureaucratic control was the key objective of the Industrial Policy of 1991. In order to achieve this, the policy of liberalization was introduced. Apart from this, the government also removed restrictions on foreign direct investments in some of the areas. Relief from the Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Act was provided to the domestic industries which permitted them to expand and grow. The loss making public sector units were disinvested from by the government.

In order to promote privatization, initiatives in the form of three sets of measures were taken. They were:

1. **Organizational measures:** After the introduction of a number of organizational measures, intervention by the government in industries was restricted to just policy-making and leasing of

assets.

2. **Ownership measures:** There was to be total denationalization and liquidation of assets.

3. **Operational measures:** These measures were implemented to grant autonomy and instill the spirit of commercialization.

Impact of Reforms

This situation led to a complete reversal of roles. Initiative was to be taken by the private sector and investment for the growth of the economy was to be made. Meanwhile, the public sector was to play a supportive role. As a result, exclusive reservation for public sector was almost done away with. Industrial licensing was almost scrapped and many public sectors were privatized. An open door policy to foreign capital was followed, along with rationalization of tax structure. However, the reforms were not total. There are still areas where FDI was not liberalized. For example, until very recently, the retail sector had not been opened up owing to objections from domestic retailers who feared that the entry of big supermarkets in India would smother them.

ROLE OF PLANNING

It is through planning that the Government of India works out or makes strategies and transforms them into yearly budgets. Other important aspects of government policy making and implementation are considered while formulating a plan. The role played by planning can be divided into two categories:

- issues relating to the budget
- strategic policy issues

The former concerns the Commission's role in allocating (primarily) investible resources while the latter's role is principally non-monetary.

The division of labour between the Government and the Planning Commission is clear in principle *viz.* the Planning Commission is advisory to the government. It has, in practice, however varied whether Government or Planning Commission have taken the lead on strategic issues. This 'fuzzy' element in the relationship is to a large degree due to the fact that the Planning Commission, the Prime Minister and the Government are closely interlinked: the Prime Minister is the Chair of the Planning Commission, and all Cabinet Ministers are members of the National Development Council (NDC) or the Rashtriya Vikas Parishad which approves all major decisions of the Commission. Notably, the Chief Ministers of the states are also members of the NDC. Thus, effectively, this body coordinates planning decisions between different sectoral ministries as also between the Centre and the states.

From the very onset of the planning process, when the first Planning Commission was established in 1950, the strategic role of the Plan was clearly envisaged. 'To formulate a Plan for the most effective and balanced utilization of the country's resources' was a part of its remit and this plan was to be a 'national plan which embraces both the public and the private sector'. As a result, the Planning Commission was asked to be in charge of a process establishing the overall development direction of the Indian society.

To be a government resource plan is the second function of the Plan, which covers the Government of India Plan budget ('investment' budget), but not its non-Plan ('recurrent' budget). Therefore, the Plan is crucial for the strategic development of the public sector. The Plan covers *'All developmental programmes, new non-Plan revenue expenses, all capital accounts and any others that require special funding in the Plan. Non-Plan items normally fall under the definition of the*

operating budget, covering those items needed to run the government annually.'

Since 1991, the role of the Plan in Indian development has changed considerably.

As the state ceases to be the main actor in development and takes on the role of provider of an enabling environment for the private sector instead, to support this enabling role and to deal with areas that are not (yet) covered by the private sector (e.g. infrastructure and social development) becomes the role of the Plan. The Plan budget has decreased from constituting more than 40% of the overall Government of India budget to constituting around 26% (2001/02) in an effort to cut government budgets since the early 1990s. Relative to private investment, public sector investment has also decreased. This may also be due to the general budget squeeze since 1991 apart from being a deliberate policy.

Relative to the decisions made by the rest of the Government, the Plans have also become less influential at the strategic policy level. The Ministry of Finance with the backing of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet has been driving the reforms from 1991 onwards. There are several reasons for that, including the need felt for reforms here and now; the lengthy (five year) cycle of the Plans which were also delayed mainly due to political and economic turbulence in the 1990s; the pre-eminence of the Finance Ministry in presiding over the fiscal stabilization process, which is often seen as the core of the reform process; the necessity for the political leadership to take direct charge of the reform process, given its potential costs to different sections of society, and the role shift for the Planning Commission necessitated by the ideology of reform.

India has been actively participating in poverty analysis and in formulating and implementing anti- poverty programmes. Since the 1950s, extensive debates on the nature, measurement and magnitude of poverty in India have taken place. Lately, in line with current international thinking on the issue, there hasbeen a more nuanced and multi-faceted understanding of poverty.

The actual evolution and implementation of poverty reduction policies and their effectiveness in India is to a large extent dependent on political pressure from below. Poor people tend to vote according to who they trust will protect their interests.

The 1950 resolution, which set up the Planning Commission, outlined its functions as follows-

1. To assess the material, capital and human resources of the country, including technical personnel, and investigate the possibilities of augmenting such resources as are found to be deficient in relation to the nation's requirement;

2. To plan for effective and balanced utilization of the country's resources;

3. To prioritize the stages in which the plan is to be carried out and propose the allocation of resourcesfor the due completion of each stage;

4. To identify the factors which hamper development and the conditions that need to be created for successful execution of the plan;

Planning is very important to achieve development in an efficient manner. Adequate planning has its advantages and can help achieve the following goals in a timely and efficient manner-

1. **Increase in National Income:** Planning aims at utilizing the resources of the country in such a manner that it increases the national income in a sustainable manner. Planning is very useful for increasing the production of the country, especially in the developing countries.

2. **Superior Decisions:** Planning authorities keep in view the interest of the whole nation. They consider the economic conditions of the country while formulating plans. Thus, the decisions of theplanning authorities are superior to the decisions made by individuals.

3. **Achievement of Full Employment:** Unemployment is emerging as a major issue in most developing countries and even in many developed countries. Hence, one of the major priorities in present dayplanning is to create jobs for as many people as possible.

4. **Equal Distribution of Wealth:** In the capitalistic countries, the gap between the rich and poor is increasing, which leads to many social problems and imbalances. This gap can be reduced throughproper planning.

5. **Elimination or Regional Disparity:** Special funds are allocated for the development of backward areas and for the upliftment of backward classes. Many reservations are also made for the same purpose. This is possible only because of efficient planning.

6. **Improvement in the Balance of Payment:** The balance of payment of developing countries remains deficit which adversely affects the rate of economic growth. Government can reduce the imports and can increase the exports through proper planning.

7. **Balanced Economy:** Proper planning aims at allocating the resources of the country in such a manner that it provides balance to the economy, which is very important for overall development of the country in all fields.

8. **Control of Economic Crises:** Economic crises affect every economy in some way or another. Depression can be controlled and production can be increased through adequate planning.

9. **Industrial Development:** Industrialization is indispensable to improve the country's economic condition. Planning is essential for the establishment of new industries.

10. **Increase in Welfare Programmes:** The main aim of the planning is to provide adequate social services. Developing countries plan various facilities like housing, schooling, transport and water provided to the people.

11. **Increase in Capital Formation:** Rate of saving is very low in the less developed countries and rate of investment is low as a result. Effective planning can increase the rate of savings in the country.

12. **Elimination of Poverty:** Planning aims at increasing national income and per capita income, which will reduce poverty. This is essential for a country's development.

GOALS OF DEVELOPMENT

India, along with 192 other United Nations member states, agreed to achieve the *Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)* by the year 2015. Eight goals were officially established following the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in 2000. The goals are as follows-

1. To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger;
2. To improve maternal health;
3. To combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases;
4. To ensure environmental sustainability;
5. To develop a global partnership for development;
6. To achieve universal primary education;
7. To promote gender equality and to empower women; and
8. To reduce child mortality rates.

Progress towards reaching the goals has been uneven. While some of the countries have achieved many

of the goals, others are not on track to realize any. Progress to date was reviewed at a UN conference inSeptember 2010. The review concluded with the adoption of a global action plan to achieve the eight anti- poverty goals by their 2015 target date. New commitments on women's and children's health were madeand new initiatives in the worldwide battle against poverty, hunger, and disease were also taken.

India's position at achieving the MDGs-

India and China are the two countries that have been doing extraordinarily well at achieving the aforesaidgoals.

India's goals-

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

*Target 1:* Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollara day.

Achieve Decent Employment for women, men, and young people

Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from Hunger.

Poverty headcount ratio is the main target for this goal, although the monitoring framework includes other indicators like the poverty gap ratio, and share of the poorest quintile in national consumption. India is well on track to reduce the head count poverty ratio to 18.6 percent (traditional definition) by 2015 according to the CSO projections. At the subnational level, as many as seven states are likely to miss thetarget, most of them being the poorer states. These poor states, burdened with low per capita income, will find it most difficult to achieve this target.

Another target for this goal is to halve between 1990 and 2015 the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. Percentage of under-weight children is the main indicator used for this. Initially, India had a burden of under-weight children of nearly 54 per cent in 1990. The country is going to miss this target witha projected outcome of 40.7 per cent in 2015 compared to the target of 26.8 per cent.

Fig. 2.5 *India's Poverty Map 2009-10 Source: Maps of India*
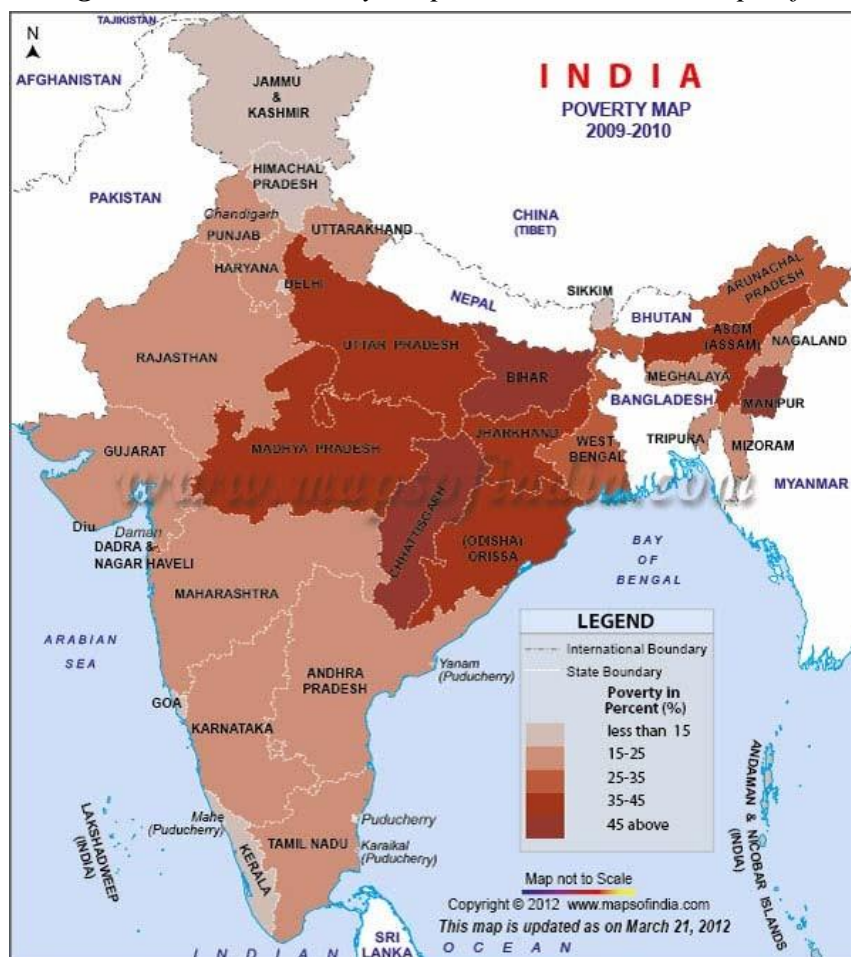
Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education

Target: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. Projections suggest that India will achieve this target before 2015. Hundred percent of children of the primary school going age attending school in the near future is a good indication, but quality of their learning is the main challenge here.

Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women

Target: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, and to all levels of education no later than 2015:

- By stabilizing the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education.
- By increasing the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector
- By increasing the proportion of seats held by women in the Parliament.
- By ensuring that education does not remain elusive to girls.
- By eradicating poverty and increasing the rate of literacy among women
- By ensuring that the quality of female employment is improved (men outnumber women in paid employment in every developing region except the CIS. This hinders upliftment of women. Also, men continue to get most of the top level jobs. These problems need to be solved so as to truly empower women.)
- By introducing quotas and other special measures to help women rise to political power.

Goal 4: Reduce child mortality

Target: The target was to reduce Under Five Mortality by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015. It mainly targets under-five mortality rate and infant mortality rate. Another goal is to immunize more infants against measles. Lack of medical facilities and quick road connectivity in remote or rural areas in case of emergencies and poor health infrastructure appear to be to be the key factors accounting for child mortality in India. India targets to reduce the under- five mortality rate to 42 per thousand live births. Worst performing states like UP, MP, Chhattisgarh, Orissa, Bihar, and Jharkhand expected an outcome of more than 90 per thousand live births, which is not even close to the target.

Goal 5: Improve maternal health

Target: To reduce the maternal mortality ratio by three quarters between 1990 and 2015 by providing skilled personnel for attending births.

Only 62 percent of deliveries are expected to be covered by trained personnel by 2015. MP, UP, Bihar and the north-eastern hill states of Arunachal, Assam, Meghalaya, and Nagaland are lagging behind the most. Another target is to provide more access to reproductive health, which includes increased access to contraceptives, reducing adolescent birth rate and increasing awareness about family planning.

Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Target 1: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS. The population lying in the age group of 15 to 24 years is most prone to HIV/AIDS. They can be protected by providing adequate sex education and by increasing access to condoms. Also, the population suffering from HIV/AIDS is to be provided with complete access to antiretroviral drugs.

Target 2: To have halted the spread of malaria and other major diseases by 2015 and then to reverse the spread.

Children under five years of age are most prone to these diseases. They must be provided with

adequate protection against the same e.g. bed nets, mosquito repellants, medication, etc. Detected tuberculosis is to be cured under DOTS (*Directly Observed Treatment Short Course*)

Goal 7. Ensure environmental sustainability

Target 1: Principles of sustainable development to be integrated into the country policies and programmes and the loss of environmental resources is to be reversed. The biodiversity loss is also to be reduced. This would mainly be done by-

- Increasing the forest covered area
- Reducing the CO_2 emissions
- Bringing the proportion of fish stock within safe biological limits;
- Reducing the proportion of total water resources used;
- Protection of species threatened with extinction

Target 2: To reduce the number of people without access to drinking water and basic sanitation to half by2015 (by improving sanitation facilities and drinking water resources)

Target 3: To improve the standard of living of slum dwellers.

Goal 8- Developing a global partnership for development.

Target 1: To develop an open and non-discriminatory trading and financial system.

Target 2: To develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth in cooperation with other developing countries.

Target 3: To make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications in cooperation with the private sector.

Target 4: To provide access to affordable and essential drugs in cooperation with pharmaceutical companies.

Although this goal is mainly for the developed and land-locked countries, there is one target that is relevant for India under the MDG framework, that is, to make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communication in cooperation with the private sector. Telephone density has risen from only 0.67 percent in 1991 to 36.98 percent in 2009 in India. Internet subscribers have gone upfrom 0.21 million in 1999 to 13.5 million in 2009, and are expected to go up to 100 million by 2014.

National Development Council

The National Development Council has a very important role in the process of Indian Planning and Development. It is a type of discussion forum where the political leaders of our country discuss the development plans in the important phases of their formulation, after which the plans are approved and presented before the Parliament and the respective state legislatures. In this manner a National Character is provided to the plan.

The first meeting of the National Development Council was held in November 1952. The aim of the first meeting was to prepare a Draft report on the First Five Year plan. The Second Five Year Plan was discussed in the phase of four meetings beginning from May, 1955 in which a tentative framework was discussed and in May, 1956 the report was accepted. The Third Five Year Plan was discussed by the council in six meetings March, April and September 1960 and January, March and May 1961. Because of the importance of the agriculture production and price policy, two special meetings were held just to consider this issue. Between 1955 and 1958 a standing committee of 9 to

12 states has been constitutedby the National Development Council. This committee held six meetings before it was dissolved as the total number of states were reduced and there was no need for a smaller body.

Five Special Committees were formed by the National Development Council at its 21st meeting, which areas follows:

  (i) Committee on agriculture and irrigation

 (ii) Committee on industry, power and transport

(iii) Committee on social services

(iv) Committee on development of hill areas

 (v) Committee on resources

Prof D.R Gadgil presented the paper *'Approach to the Fourth Five Year Plan'* to the National Development Council. In view of this, the Council decided that the main aim of the Fourth Five Year Plan was to increase the living standards of the people which also promotes equality and social justice. The National Development Council decided that the Fourth Plan should cover the period of 1969-1974. The Planning Commission's

suggestion of merging agriculture income tax with the general income tax was discussed. The Council decided to set up Committees to solve the problem related to electricity and water rates. The Council decided to stabilize the agricultural prices and set up buffer stocks.

The Fifth Five Year Plan was discussed by the Council in five meetings from May 30 to 31, 1972 to February 24 to 25 1979. The main aim of this plan was to remove poverty and attain self-reliance. Importance was given by the Council to the Family Welfare Programme which was being started by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare. In its meeting, the council stated that the Family Welfare Programme covers all the aspects of human welfare. They stated that it is important that all the ministries and all the departments of the Government of India and all the states give due importance to this programme and it will be wrong to leave it only to the Ministry of Health and their counterparts of the states.

It was decided by the National Development Council that the core of the Fifth Five Year Plan is the revised 20 point Programme which was discussed at the 36th meeting of the Council. The National Development Council focused on the 20 point programme which included social and economic programmes in the Sixth Plan. Minister of Planning, S. B. Chavan, addressing the National Development Council stated that all theUnion Ministers and the Chief Ministers should give personal guidance in order to achieve the objectives and ensure the mobilization of funds.

Four meetings of the National Development Council from August 1980 to July 1984 were held to givethe final shape to the Sixth Five Year Plan. The Seventh Five Year plan draft was presented to the Council on November 8-9, 1985 for approval. The main objectives of the Plan were food, work and productivity. These objectives were put into the framework of growth, equity, social justice and the pursuit of self- reliance.

The National Development Council met under the Chairmanship of Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi to consider the document "National Policy on Education-1986 "a presentation which was prepared by the Ministry of Human Resource and Development at its 39th Meeting held on 29th April 1986. It was discussedby the Chairman that the objective of putting Education on the Concurrent list is that both the Union and State work together and without Education there is no development.

In its 41st meeting, the National Development Council approved the draft of the Eight Five Year

Plan. The main area of the Eight Plan was agriculture, human resource development, promotion of efficiency and higher productivity.

The National Development Council at its 43rd Meeting decided to set up the following five committees:

(i) Committee on population control

(ii) Committee on employment generation

(iii) Committee on literacy

(iv) Committee on decentralized planning

(v) Committee on Medical Education

The Ninth Five Year Plan was approved by the National Development Council in its 48th Meeting on February 19, 1999. The National Development Council Committee on Power asked the Union and state governments to implement the recommendations on a priority basis. The meeting took the note that Several State Governments already started with the implementation of the recommendations. The National Development Council decided to set up a subcommittee under the chairmanship of Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission with members taken from central ministries and the states to look into the issue of major rural poverty alleviation schemes.

The National Development Council by majority approved the Draft Approach Paper to the Tenth Five Year Plan at its 49th Meeting. It directed the Planning Commission to prepare the Tenth Plan on the basis of approach to irrigation, agriculture infrastructure, drinking water, urban infrastructure, state highways and bridge construction. A sum of Rs. 17,000 crores as Railway Safety Fund was approved by the National Development Council, which stated that to revive the economy was the basic priority. Both the Centre and the state governments were to ensure that the problem of investment is taken care of both private and public. The National Development Council unanimously agreed to grant special status to Uttaranchal.

The National Development Council on 21st December 2002 decided to set up four *Empowered Sub-Committees of the National Development Council.* They are:

1. Empowered Sub-Committee on Governance Reforms with special reference to e-governance

2. Empowered Sub-Committee on creating an investor-friendly climate

3. Empowered subcommittee on removal of barriers to internal trade

4. Empowered subcommittee on financial and administrative empowerment of Panchayati Raj Institutions

SUMMARY

- India gained Independence on August 15, 1947 and became a federal republic on January 26, 1950. The British left India in a stagnant state with its economy in a mess.

- In the 1950s, while the Indian National Congress adopted socialism and self-reliance as the basis of its economic programme, the top directors from the managing agencies shared most directorships in foreign-controlled companies in India.

- The concept of Five Year Plans originated in the erstwhile Soviet Union in 1928 and the Soviet Union owes much of its industrial success to such plans. Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru, inspired by this system, introduced the same in India and adopted the Five Year Plans

as a model for the country's development.

- India's five greatest problems, according to Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru, were land, water, capital, babies and cows. To curb these problems, he launched the First Five Year Plan.
- The plan was able to cope with the problems of land, water and cows, but the issue of babies and capital persisted. The year 1951 marked the beginning of the First Five Year Plan.
- Since Independence, the country has been facing many social and economic issues. Overpopulation, poverty, corruption, sanitation, religion-based violence, terrorism, naxalism, caste-related violence and illiteracy are the country's major problems.
- India ranks second in terms of population, with a population of about 1.2 billion. In terms of population density, India ranks 33rd.

KEY TERMS

- **Development:** It is the process of directed social change in society, intended to bring about both social and material advancement including greater equality, freedom, and other valued qualities forthe majority of the people.
- **District Planning:** It is the procedure of formulating a united plan for the native government sectorin a district taking into account the resources (natural, human and financial) available, and covering the sectorial activities and schemes assigned to the district level and below and those implemented through local governments in a state.
- **Indicative Planning:** It is a form of planning in which the government is expected to indicatethe direction of growth and not to dictate it.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Name the person who initiated rudimentary economic planning in 1938.
2. Who introduced the concept of Five Year Plans in India?
3. List some of the important programmes launched by the Indian government in order to curb sanitation problem.
4. The areas affected most by Naxalism collectively form the_____.
5. When was the Mandal Commission established?

6. What were the socio-economic conditions of India at the time of Independence?
7. What was the key objective the Nehru Mahalanobis Model?
8. Write a brief note on the Planning Commission of India.
9. What are the eight Millennium Development Goals?
10. What role did NDC play in State level planning?
11. Write a short note on the Swajal project.

FURTHER READING

Adiseshiah, M., P.S Mukherji, P.S., R Hegde, et al. *Decentralized Planning and Panchayati Raj.* NewDelhi: Institute of Social Sciences and Concept Pub. Company, 1994.

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Block-2

DECENTRALIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Unit-5: Planning Commission

Unit-6: Decentralized Planning

Unit-7: The Panchayati Raj System

Unit-8: Reform of Panchayati Raj (73rd Amendment Act 1992) and Voluntary Organizations

UNIT-5: Planning Commission

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Planning Commission
- State Planning
- District Development Council
- District Planning Office
- District Planning
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

When we plan for development it is termed as development planning. Planning and development strategy have been closely interlinked since before Independence. The consensus at the time of Independence was that the state should play a major role in enabling the country to achieve economic growth and prosperity for its population. Consequently, the Planning Commission was established, which was chaired by the Prime Minister, and the evolution of a planning strategy through successive Five Year Plans from 1951 to date began. Present day plans are different from their early predecessors, but 50 years of planning experience has given rise to a specifically Government of India development approach and style of working.

Till the early 1990s, the goals of the Indian development strategy, and the principal objectives of the plans included growth of national income through rapid industrialization and, related to this increased employment, reduction of income inequalities and, as a means to achieve these goals, sustained high agricultural growth.

Import substitution was envisaged and the development of heavy industry was emphasized by the industrialization strategy. Need for the public sector to take a central and direct role in the industrialization process and self-reliance were also promoted. Another facet of the strategy (better known as the Nehru- Mahalanobis strategy) was the growth of an employment-intensive and light consumer industry in the private sector. The latter fitted well with the Gandhian emphasis on cottage industry and led to measures

to encourage and protect the small and cottage industry sector. Balanced regional development and control of the concentration of economic power are some other goals of planning.

An accelerator to speed up economic reforms and liberalization was the balance of payment crisis in 1991. Although we had moved away from the existing control of the private sector, especially the

'*License Raj'* system that had begun in the 1980s; it was not till after 1991 that liberalization fully became part of the Indian policy agenda. The post-1991 reforms have gone quite far In the light of previous development trends in the country, but India is still far from being a market-driven liberal economy as compared to many other economies. Many of the earlier developmental goals, especially the emphasis on rapid economic growth and poverty reduction, are reiterated even today and are still the guiding principles of the plan, but the means to achieve these goals have changed due to the reform process under way

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Expound the role of planning
- List the key goals of development
- Explain the role and significance of the Planning Commission
- Understand the concept of state planning and district planning

PLANNING COMMISSION

Origin of Planning in India can be traced back to 1933, at the time when M. Visvesvaraya formulated a ten-year plan with the objective of doubling the income of the country. After five years, in 1938, with the recommendation of the Congress Party a National Planning Committee was set up with Jawaharlal Nehru as its Chairman. In 1941, a committee for planning was appointed by the Government of India which was replaced in 1943, by the Renovation Committee of the Executive Council with the Governor General himself in the chair. The following year, a separate Planning and Development Department was established. The very same year some well-known industrialists prepared a Plan for the economic development of the country known as the Bombay Plan. Under the inspiration and guidance of the planning department, a number of development schemes were prepared by the Central and Provincial Governments to be undertaken at the end of the war. Problems of planning were reviewed towards the end of 1946 by the advisory planning board established by the Interim Government.

The Board suggested the setting up of a planning Commission, single compact authoritative organization, directly responsible to the Cabinet and devoting its attention continuously to the whole field of development. The Recommendation was accepted and the Planning Commission was established by a resolution of the Government of India, dated 15 March, 1950.

Functions

The Planning Commission with the Prime Minister as the chairman has emerged as a powerful and effective staff agency in India. The functions of the Commission are as follows:

- To make an evaluation of the physical, capital and human capitals of the country, including technical personnel, and to investigate the possibilities of augmenting such of those resources as are found to be deficient in relation to the nations requirements
- To frame a plan for the most effective and balanced utilization of the country's resources
- To determine priorities as between projects and programmes accepted in the plan
- To indicate the factors that retard economic development and to determine conditions which

shouldbe established for the success of the plan

- To determine the nature of the machinery to secure the successful implementation of the plan
- To appraise from time to time the progress of the plan to recommend the necessary adjustments ofthe policy and measures
- To make recommendations either for facilitating the discharge of its duties or for a consideration ofthe prevailing economic conditions, current policies, measures and development programmes or for an examination of problems referred to it for advice by Central or State Governments

At present, the **Planning Commission has the following functions:**

- Assessment of the material, capital and human resources of the country including technical personnel and formulation of proposals for augmenting such resources as are found to be deficient
- Formulation of Plan
- Definition of stages in which the plan should be carried out on a termination of priorities
- Determination of the nature of the machinery necessary for the implementation of the plan
- Appraisal from time to time of the progress achieved in the execution of the plan
- Public co-operation in national development
- Hill Areas Development Programme
- Directorate of Manpower
- Perspective Planning

One must note that the National Informatics Centre has now been transferred to the Ministry of Information Technology.

Composition-

The Commission consists of the chairman, deputy chairman and other members. The Prime Minister is its Chairman. The Deputy Chairman is the full-time functional head of the commission. Of members, some are ministers in the Central Government and others are full-time members. All cases involving policy are considered by the Commission as a whole. The formulation of the plans, adjustments in the plans, matters involving departure from the plan policies, important cases involving disagreement with a Central Ministry or a State Government and difference of opinion between members of the Commission are some such cases.

There is a close liaison between the Cabinet and the Commission. The Chairman is the Prime Minister himself. Other members of the Commission are invited as and when necessary to attend the meetings ofthe cabinet and its committees. On the other hand, important economic issues arising in the ministries aregenerally discussed in the Commission before they are considered in the Cabinet. Thus, there is a regular stream of ideas and suggestions flowing from the Commission to the Union Government, and vice versa.

Organization

The Planning Commission works through three major divisions- Programme Advisers, Central Secretariat and Technical Divisions

Programme Advisers: There are four senior officers designated as advisers having the status of ex officio Additional Secretaries to the Government of India. They assist the members of the Commission in matters concerning field study and observations of various schemes and projects and the progress of their implementation. The Advisers also pay specific attention to the problem of finance,

public cooperation and administration connected with the implementation of the plans

Central Secretariat: It has four branches, namely, Administrative Branch; Plan Coordination Branch; Central Coordination Branch; and Information and Publicity Branch.

Technical Divisions: The Commission has 20 Technical Divisions and Sections which fall broadly fewer than two groups namely- Specialist Divisions and Subject Divisions. The Specialist Divisions are concerned with the problem of overall economic and social planning each examining some specific aspects of those problems e.g. perspective planning, financial resources and development policy division. The Subject Divisions, on the other hand, deal with specific sectors of the economy like irrigation and power, food and farming, education, accommodation, etc.

The Specialist Divisions functioning in the Planning Commission are:

- Development Policy Division,
- Financial Resources Division, including State as well as Central Finances.
- International Economics Division,
- Labour, Employment and Manpower Division,
- Perspective Planning Division, including Statistics and Surveys
- Plan Coordination Division,
- Project Appraisal and Management Division
- Socio-Economic Research Unit
- State Plan Division
- Multi-Level Planning Division including Hill Area Development, Western Ghats
- Development, Development and Reform Facility, Decentralised Planning etc.
- Infrastructure Division [as Secretariat of the Committee on Infrastructure]

Some of the Subject Divisions are:

- Agriculture Division
- Backward Classes and Tribal Development Division
- Communication and Information Division
- Education Division including Youth Affairs and Sports and Culture
- Environment and Forests Division
- Housing and Urban Development Division
- Industry and Minerals Division
- Rural Development Division
- Science and Technology Division
- Social Justice and Women's Empowerment Division
- Transport Division
- Village and Small Enterprises Division
- Voluntary Action Coordination Cell
- Water Resources (including Water Supply) Division
- Tourism Cell

One of the important organizations of Planning Commission is the ***Programme Evaluation Organization (PEO)*** with a duty to undertake assessment studies to evaluate the effect of selected Plan Programmes/ Schemes in order to provide useful feedback to the p lanners and executing

agencies. It has its headquarters in Delhi.

As on 21 March, 2013, The members of the Planning Commission are as follows:

- *Chairman:* Manmohan Singh (Prime Minister of India)
- *Deputy Chairman:* Montek Singh Ahluwalia
- *Minister of State for Planning and Parliamentary Affairs:* Shri Rajeev Shukla
- *Members:*
- Shri B.K. Chaturvedi
- Saumitra Chaudhuri
- Dr. (Ms.) Syeda Hameed
- Dr. Narendra Jadhav
- Prof. Abhijit Sen
- Dr. Mihir Shah
- Dr. K. Kasturirangan
- Sh. Arun Maira
- *Secretary:* Ms. Sindhushree Khullar
- Senior officials
- Grievance Officers

STATE PLANNING

The State Planning machinery consists of-

- Planning Departments
- State Planning Boards together with its specialized working groups
- Ministries of the State Government
- State Legislature
- State Planning Board

The main functions of the State Planning Boards, as recommended by the Administrative Reforms Commission are as follows:

- To evaluate the State resources and formulate plans for the most effective and balanced utilizationof those resources
- To determine plan priorities of the state within the framework of the priorities of the National Plan
- To assist district authorities in formulating their development plans within the spheres in which suchplanning is considered useful and feasible and to coordinate these plans with the state plan
- To identify factors which tend to retard economic and social development of the state and determine conditions to be established for successful execution of the plans
- To evaluate the development of application of the plan programmes and recommend such adjustments in policies and measures as the review may indicate

In a Federal set-up, close coordination between the Central and the State governments in the sphere of development policy and administration is essential for a balanced and rapid socio-economic

development. In India, the subject of 'planning' is mentioned in the Concurrent List of the Indian Constitution and therefore the responsibility for undertaking planned development through systematic formulation, implementation and evaluation of plans is a responsibility of both the Centre and the States.

The NDC plays a significant role in acting as a federal agency for synthesizing the planning goals and strategies of the Union and state governments. However, as it meets only once or twice a year, its impact cannot be felt on a continuing basis. At best, the NDC coordinates the "political" dimensions of planning, while the administrative aspects of the planning process are handled by the Planning Commission at the central level and at the state level by the State Planning System.

Presently, almost all the Indian States have planning departments, each of which is headed either by the Chief Minister or a senior Cabinet Minister. Even when the Chief Minister is not the political head of the planning departments, major issues concerning planning eventually reach him. Through him, these reach the cabinet for final approval. At the administrative level, it is generally the Chief Secretary who is the head of the planning department. In Rajasthan, this practice continued for about three decades and only in 1992 was a separate Planning Secretary appointed. Likewise, in several other states, there is a Planning Secretary who looks after the administration of the Planning disposed of at the administrative level the Chief Secretary who in turn passes them on the political level.

In Rajasthan, the Planning Department is headed by the Secretary, Planning who belongs to the super-time scale of the IAS, assisted by four deputy secretaries- one each for planning, institutional finance, planning finance and district planning. The Director of Manpower is also the ex-officio Deputy Secretary. The Director, Computers and the Director, Monitoring also assist the Planning Secretary. Further, there is a large staff comprising Joint Directors, Deputy Directors, and Assistant Secretaries who collectively man the Planning Department.

Attached with the Planning Department are two functional departments. They are the Directorate of Evaluation and the Directorate of District Gazetteers. The Planning Department is the administrative department at the Secretariat level for these two directorates.

There is a regular plan cycle which involves the formulation of the annual and the Five Year Plans and their constant evaluation and monitoring. There have been functioning in the State of Rajasthan several Planning and Development Coordination Committees. These committees under the chairmanship of the Chief Secretary are instruments of collective decision-making in matters pertaining to inter-department developmental projects. They include senior secretaries and directors, relating to the concerned subject-areas and senior offices of the concerned autonomous organizations. The number of these committees differs from time to time though their number generally has been around a dozen. There are state planning and development coordination committees on subjects like agricultural production, animal husbandry, Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), industries and mines , medical and health , tourism and transport , irrigation and power , tribal area development, etc. It may be mentioned that as per conventions the decisions taken in these committees are considered as decisions of the state government. In appropriate cases, however, a matter may have to be referred to the concerned ministers, the Chief Minister and the State Cabinet. Whenever these committees have functioned effectively, they have cut the red tape and facilitated a greater integration in the administration of planned development.

Variations of such committees have existed in other states. For instance, in Andhra Pradesh in 1974 three planning and development coordination committees were set up to formulate plans

and schemes for the regions of coastal Andhra, Rayalaseema and Telangana. These committees were later abolished in 1983.

In U.P., a State Planning Institute was set up in 1971, working under the chairmanship of the Planning Secretary. It has ten technical divisions through which it provides technical support to the planning departments of the state government.

As the planning departments of a state continues to be the key unit for the formulation and evaluation of state annual and five year plans, there has been continuing stress on increasing its effectiveness. In 1972, the Planning Commission had recommended to the States that their planning departments should be made more competent by setting up in them the following units where they did not exist:

- Perspective Planning Unit;
- Project Appraisal Unit;
- Plan Coordination Unit; and

- Monitoring, Plan Formulation and Evaluation Unit;
- Regional District Planning Unit;
- Manpower and Employment Unit

As the central financial assistance was available for the purpose of state planning departments, most states have availed themselves of this facility and strengthened their planning machinery. However, there is no uniformity, however in the structural configuration of the planning

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CASE STUDY

State Planning: Community Contracting in Rural Water and Sanitation, *Swajal*, Uttar Pradesh and Uttaranchal

Background

Majority of the areas in Uttar Pradesh suffer from water scarcity. The rural water supply scheme includes open wells, hand pumps, piped water supply schemes with treatment plants and private connections. Over one-third of these are out of order at any given time due to lack of maintenance. The process of regionalization of rural water supply systems has been limited to handing over of hand pumps to village panchayats. Moreover, the sanitation level in the state is significantly lower than the nationwide average.

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departments at the cross-state level, though a kind of functional uniformity does prevail in this sphere.

Objectives

The chief ideas of the project were to identify and implement an appropriate policy framework to promote long-term sustainability of the rural water supply and environmental sanitation sector. It aimed at delivering sustainable health and hygiene benefits to the rural population through improvements in water supply and environmental sanitation services.

- To classify and apply an appropriate policy framework to promote long-term sustainability of the rural water supply and environmental sanitation sector
- To convey supportable health and hygiene benefits to the rural population through improvements in water supply and environmental sanitation services
- To refine the rural economy through income-generating opportunities for women
- To arrange specific test alternatives to the current supply-driven delivery mechanism
- To encourage sanitation and gender sensitivity

The Thrust

The scheme has been scheduled to support investments and policy reforms to deliver sustainable health and hygiene benefits to the rural population.

The reserves are designed to progress knowledge, attitude and practices in the linkages between health and hygiene, improve water supply service levels and improve the environment through safe disposal of human waste. The scheme is demand-responsive and community-driven. It makes sure that most of the society participates in this drive.

The Project

Swajal was introduced in 1996 as a six-year project in 26 districts of Uttar Pradesh and 12 districts of Uttaranchal. The Swajal approach of assimilating rural water supply and environmental sanitation is applied jointly by the Government of Uttar Pradesh and the World Bank. This six-year project (1996- 2002) signifies a shift in terms of delivery of sustainable water supply and environmental sanitation facilities. The scheme is being applied in 1000 villages in seven districts of the Bundelkhand region, 19 districts across the whole of Uttar Pradesh, and also in the 12 districts of the Kumaon and Garhwal region in Uttaranchal.

Pre-Planning Phase

The scheme starts with a pre-determined phase that works for a year, and includes the selection of villages and support organizations (SOs), i.e. the shortlisted NGOs that act as social intermediaries, and mobilize the community. Field official visits are undertaken by the District Programme Management Units (DPMUs) to make sure that each SO: (1) Is legally registered, (2) has a constitutional provision to engage in rural water supply and environmental sanitation service delivery and related activities, (3) has audited and certified accounts, (4) has a proven track record of at least three years' experience in rural water supply and environmental sanitation or community development activities, evidenced by the satisfactory completion of a participatory and demand-driven project; and (5) has demonstrated staffing capacity to carry out the proposed services or ability to procure such staffing capacity.

To encourage sustainability of rural water supply and sanitation systems, the project has involved the rural communities in planning, constructing and maintaining these facilities.

Planning Phase

Public mobilization activities constitute an important part of the project planning phase and are expedient to the formation of the village water and sanitation committee (VWSC), which consists of 7-12 members. The group is constitutionally elected and is representative of the user community, with a lowest of 20 per cent reservation for scheduled caste/ scheduled tribes and a 30 per cent reservation for women. Notable feature in the community contribution process is the preparation of three community action plans (CAPs). These sketch the process by which societies

would implement the project, based entirely on their needs.

During civic mobilization, a significant tool used for gender sensitization is SARAR (self-esteem, associative strength, resourcefulness, action planning and responsibility), where the groups engage in games based on problem analysis, investigation, sensitization and community decision-making.

Implementation Phase

Project Implementation Village Water and Sanitation Committees (VWSCs) are formed through a process of consensus. Clean-up campaigns are organised, along with sensitisation of the community on environmental sanitation issues. Engineering surveys are done and various water supply options are worked out. In a community-wide 'agree-to-do meeting', a water supply option is chosen by the community. A project report detailing the engineering design of the chosen water supply and sanitation systems is prepared by engineers of the SO with full participation of the community at every step.

One of the most innovative and significant features of the Swajal Project is that communities demonstrate their demand for the water and sanitation facilities by sharing the capital cost of the facilities. Cost sharing includes: (i) a 10 per cent share in the capital cost, contributed in the form of cash and labour in varying amounts, depending on the region and type of technology selected; and (ii) operation and maintenance (O&M) financed entirely by the community, of which 50 percent is collected during the planning phase as testimony of their commitment to the scheme.

Another unique feature of the project is community contracting, whereby the project has to come up with innovative methods of facilitating community procurement of goods, works and services. The village community, DPMU and SO engineers arrive at the best possible rates for material and labour based on a market survey. All the materials are procured from authorized dealers or manufacturers to ensure quality and quantity.

The rural water supply (RWS) and latrine components of the project provide choices to consumers in terms of type of technology and service level. In the hilly region, this includes piped water supply schemes, captured springs with hand pumps, rainwater harvesting and spring development (including combinations of technologies most suited to local conditions). In the Bundelkhand region and foothills, water supply choices include piped water schemes from tubewells, dug wells, surface sources (where required) and hand pumps. A typical choice for latrine technology is twin pit pour flush system. The environmental sanitation component focuses on local behaviour change, personal, domestic and environmental sanitation improvements, including drainage, garbage, soak and compost pits, and catchment protection.

Major Achievements

According to a sample survey conducted by the PMU, the Department of Rural Development,

Government of UP, the Swajal project has ensured direct benefits to about 8 lakh rural inhabitants. It is estimated to cover about 12 lakh inhabitants as populations rise to design levels. The project has also made considerable impact both at the policy and the project levels. The following are a few highlights:

1. Increased access of women and young children to improved, adequate, and safe water and cleanliness facilities, which in opportunity have had a positive impact on their health and productivity.

2. A positive impact on the environment, rising from improved ecological conditions in watershed areas, which has increased the availability and quality of water.

3. Condensed bacterial pollution of the environment due to better hygiene and sanitation practices, organized disposal of human wastes and better environmental management.

4. Better quality and sustainability of water sources due to catchment protection

5. Community capacity for self-reliance and independence for VWSCs developed as a result of training.

6. *Changing village dynamics*: Women, as key stakeholders, have begun to express themselves more vociferously. Communities, independent of their headmen, have begun asserting their rights and are more aware of their needs.

7. *Transparency and reduction in corruption levels*: The transparency in dealings that characterises the Swajal project has led to a unanimous demand that all village dealings be conducted along similar lines, leaving little room for corrupt practices and the misappropriation of village funds.

8. *Sensitisation of PMU staff*: The process of dealing with SOs and village committees has inculcated a degree of sensitivity within government units, fostering a demand-driven, people-centric approach.

The Swajal project represents a paradigm shift in terms of delivery of sustainable water supply and environmental sanitation facilities. The Rajiv Gandhi National Drinking Water Mission of the government of India is designed on similar lines as the Swajal model.

The success of the Swajal project has prompted the Government of India to earmark 20 per cent of funds provided to state governments for implementing projects on similar lines.

Influence on the Uttar Pradesh Jal Nigam, responsible for the existing delivery of rural water supply in Uttar Pradesh, is making efforts to strengthen its community development activities, as well as to become more responsive to its beneficiaries, as demonstrated by the success of Swajal.

The PMU model is being used as the basis of joint forest management projects in Uttar Pradesh. The use of NGOs as an interface between local communities and the government, formation of village communities and community participation methods are some of the strategies replicated from the Swajal project.

By developing procedures for the public funding of demand-driven, community-based development, the Swajal project will enable wider replication of sustainable rural water and sanitation facilities, which has not been possible through top-down public programmes.

The project has not only improved rural water supply and sanitation facilities, but also empowered village communities, and enhanced community participation through confidence building. It has improved female participation in various economic activities through the

formation of women's SHGs. Components of Swajal such as SARAR, integration of the Panchayat Raj Institutions or PRI model, and community mobilisation activities have helped generate a sense of ownership in the minds of the villagers and empowered women. The cost-sharing strategy is the most innovative and significant feature of the project, in which communities have to demonstrate the demand for the water and sanitation facilities by sharing the capital cost of the facilities. This generates a sense of ownership of the WSS scheme in the community and enables them to operate and maintain the facilities.

DISTRICT DEVELOPMENT COUNCIL

Role and functions of the District Development Council are as follows:
- Take stock of the natural and human resources of the District as well as the level and pattern of development and exploitation of these resources.
- Projection of local needs and aspirations and translating them into schemes and programmes and fixing priorities within the objectives of the State/ National plan.
- Formulation of District development plans.
- Co-ordination in the implementation of district plans and programmes.
- Monitoring and review of the implementation of district plans and programmes.
- Take up such other studies and functions as may be assigned to it from time to time and such to make suitable recommendation to the State Government.
- Make recommendation with a view to ensuring co-ordination in the matter of planning in the State.

District Planning Office

The main duties and function of District Planning Office are as follows:-
- To convene meetings of the District Planning Boards at least once in two months and to pursue the recommendations of such meetings with the concerned Departments of the State Government and other agencies;
- To prepare District Annual Plans for the districts and to place the same before the District Planning Boards for consideration before submission to Government;
- To monitor the implementation of various plan schemes in the districts in general, to identify the limiting factors in the implementation of plan schemes and to place the matter before the District Planning Boards and State Government with specific suggestions for ensuring speedy and efficient implementation of plan schemes;
- To compile and consolidate quarterly progress reports of district-level plan schemes hitherto done by the District Statistical Officers, to place such consolidated reports before the District Planning Boards for review and then to finalise the consolidated quarterly progress reports of such district-level plan schemes for submission to Government in the month following each quarter. Quarterly progress reports may be obtained from the District Heads of Development Departments, who may also furnish such other information and materials as may be necessary for compilation of the reports;
- To take up such other activities as may be assigned to them from time to time by the District Planning Boards or by the Government;

- To perform all other functions as assigned to them by the Government; and
- To ensure co-ordination among all the District heads of Development Departments in the formulation and implementation of plan schemes.

District Planning

District Planning is the process of preparing an integrated plan for the local government sector in a district taking into account the resources (natural, human and financial) available and covering the sectoral activities and schemes assigned to the district level and below and those implemented through local governments in a state.

The document that embodies this statement of resources and their allocation for various purposes is known as the District Plan. It would essentially have three aspects, namely:

(i) Plan to be prepared by the Rural Local Bodies for the activities assigned to them and the national/state schemes implemented by them with their own resources and those earmarked for these purposes;

(ii) Plan to be prepared by the Urban Local Bodies for the activities assigned to them and the national/state schemes implemented by them with their own resources and those earmarked for these purposes;

(iii) Physical integration of the plans of Rural and Urban Local Bodies with the elements of the State Plan that are physically implemented within the geographical confines of the district.

All the three aspects would be considered and consolidated by the District Planning Committee (DPC) into a District Plan.

Quite obviously, the District Plan cannot be prepared in isolation, and must take into account and respond to the expected activities of the non-government sector of the local economy.

Important among these would be as follows:

- Plan emerging from activities of people's groups like SHGs, Co-operatives etc.
- Plan emerging from the financial institutions like the local branch (es) of Commercial Banks (both in the public and the private sector), NABARD, Co-operative Banks and the like.
- Plans of International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs)/NGOS and Bilateral Agencies operating in the District.
- Plans of other private agents that would either have an impact on the activities of the government or would need the government to respond to those developments insofar as its own areas of functioning/service delivery are concerned.

Preparation of District Plan

In the preparation of the draft district plan, the various steps mentioned in the Report of the Expert Group on Planning at the Grassroots Level may be generally followed. The present state of development and the resource endowment including capability vary widely across states. It is not necessary to wait for perfection or the latest technology to get started with the process. Separate steps may be taken to improve internal capabilities.

The following thirteen steps are suggested:

1. The available data may be put together for each local government. The state government agencies, the departments and the district statistical organizations (central and state) should assist them in this. Some of the essential items of data are listed in the suggested form at

Annexure-II.

2. Based on the data, a vision document for 10 to 15 years is to be prepared by the district and for each local government based on a participatory assessment. The DPC may hold formal interactions with local governments and other key stakeholders on this and then finalize it. The document should clearly identify the key reasons for backwardness/ development shortcomings and address issues impeding development. It will cover:

   (i) Agriculture and allied sectors (as relevant)

  (ii) Availability and development of water sources

 (iii) Industries – especially traditional, small industries including food processing

 (iv) Infrastructure including power

  (v) Drinking water and sanitation

 (vi) Literacy, school education

(vii) Health and medical facilities

(viii) Poverty reduction and basic needs

 (ix) Gender and children

  (x) Social Justice – SC/ST, Persons with disability, etc.

3. To assist the DPC in preparing the vision document (and subsequently to vet the draft plan proposals), a Technical Support Group may be constituted in each district. It may consist of departmental officers (where available) mandated and nominated for the purpose in addition to their duties **or** retired persons locally available **or** a local academic institution **or** established NGO with a proven record - Similarly, technical support as appropriate, may be organized for the urban areas, intermediate panchayats and village panchayats.

4. If undertaken in a campaign mode, the preparation of vision documents can be completed in two months' time.

5. Further, if District is to be the **economic unit** for planning exercise, the scope of **the vision document** could be expanded to include areas of comparative advantage of each district (availability of technical institutions, BPO, tourism, agro-industry etc.), which would be the basis for attracting private investment.

6. Based on the vision document/s and following the same participatory process, the needs may be prioritized and goals set for a five-year period for a draft Five Year Plan in the manner indicated as follows:

  (i) The draft plan preparation should start at the Gram Sabha level. The Gram Panchayat may finalize its Plan based on priorities emerging from the Gram Sabha and give suggestions for the Intermediate Panchayat. Projects and activities which can be implemented at the Gram Panchayat Level should be included as "Gram Panchayat Plan". Those projects and activities which can be implemented only in **more than one** Gram Panchayat, will be forwarded to the Intermediate Panchayats to be considered for inclusion into the "Intermediate Panchayat Plan". *The Gram Panchayat Plans should also provide an estimate of the community contribution that can be mobilized for the purpose of implementing the development plan.*

  (ii) Based on these suggestions received from Gram Panchayats and its own priorities the Intermediate Panchayat should finalize its Plan. Projects and activities which can be implemented at the Intermediate Panchayat Level should be included as "Intermediate Panchayat Plan". Those projects and activities which need to be implemented in **more**

than one intermediate Panchayat will be forwarded to the District Panchayat to be considered for inclusion into the "District Panchayat Plan".

   (iii) Based on the Gram Panchayat Plans, the Intermediate Panchayat Plans and District Panchayat Plans, the District Planning Committee shall finalize the District Plan for the District.

   (iv) A similar exercise may be undertaken in Urban Local Governments. Each local government may be asked to give separate suggestions for inclusion in the Departmental components of the District Plan.

7. The time limit for different steps, in para 6 above, needs to be indicated. Similarly, the time frame for integrating District Plans with State Plans also needs to be indicated in view of limited time available for the beginning of the Eleventh Five Year Plan.

8. The draft plan proposals of each local government should be in accordance with the approved activity assignment and the centrally sponsored flag-ship and related programmes (as and where applicable).

9. The draft plan proposals will cover the sectors mentioned in (2) above and will indicate the expected outcomes in terms of production, employment, infrastructure and human development.

10. While preparing the draft plan in accordance with (6), (7), (8) and (9) above, the concerned local government will take into account the district component of the departmental plans as also the Centrally Sponsored Schemes and the Externally Aided Projects that have been assigned to it for implementation. In addition, the physical integration of the District Plan with the elements of the State Plan that are being implemented in the geographical area of the district would need to be given close attention. The resources and outlays in respect of these items of State Plan located in the district (but not implemented through the local bodies) would not, however, be included in the Plan Resources and outlays of the Local Bodies.

11. The local government component of the District Plan would emerge out of the resource envelope containing the following sources of funds:-

   (i) Own resources available for development

   (ii) Transfers by State Finance Commission for development purposes

   (iii) Twelfth Finance Commission grants passed on by the State Government.

   (iv) Untied grants for local planning.

   (v) Grants in respect of Centrally Sponsored Schemes that have been assigned to the local bodies for the purposes of implementation.

   (vi) Grants for State Plan schemes assigned for implementation through Local Governments.

   (vii) Grants for Externally supported schemes assigned for implementation through Local Governments.

   (viii) Estimated contribution by the communities themselves.

12. The DPC will consolidate the two streams – the Panchayat plans and the urban area plans, integrate them with the departmental plans for the district and prepare the draft Five Year Plan and the Annual Plan.

13. The State Planning Commission/Board/Department may issue the above as guidelines and

suggest the broad structure of the district plan document and the forms to be annexed to the document.

As Indicated earlier, micro-level planning cannot be done for each village separately. It takes into account the interlink ages and the hierarchies of a whole range of settlements. Yet, one has to draw a boundary around such a system or systems which will provide a unit for planning and development. Ideally, this unit should be a region based on a certain amount of homogeneity. Criteria such as agro climatic characteristics, ecological conditions, common resources and cultural ties have been used in the past for delineating a region. In India attempts at identifying such regions have just begun. In the current socio-political context, however planning for such regions may be difficult as these regions are bound to cut across the boundaries of various states. Our past experience in inter-state planning has not been very encouraging. One practical difficulty will be the non-availability of inter-state data. Secondary data maintained in the various official records on agriculture, industry, etc. are all aggregated at the existing administrative levels. To collect data for a region which overlaps with some of these units will mean a near-impossible task of reclassification and collation of huge volumes of data.

The idea of district-level planning is founded on the opinion of local level planning. It also undertakes that achievement of the planning needs better mobilization and utilization of local resources. Under the state, the district has a pivotal role in planning because of its location and administrative advantages

Not only does it have adequate administrative and technical expertise and good sources of data and information to execute plan programmes but it also has a well-knit scheme to involve people's participation and make the gains of planning reach the grass-root level. Hence, there is an ample group of scholars who consider the district as an ideal and viable unit of micro- level planning.

SUMMARY

- The soviet model of initiating planned growth was adopted by India after its Independence. In order to achieve this, the popular model of economic development, the **Nehru Mahalanobis Model of economic growth** was adopted.
- To free the economy from bureaucratic control was the key objective of the Industrial Policy of 1991. In order to achieve this, the policy of liberalization was introduced.
- From the very onset of the planning process, when the first Planning Commission was established in 1950, the strategic role of the Plan was clearly envisaged. 'To formulate a Plan for the most effective and balanced utilization of the country's resources' was a part of its remit and this plan was to be a 'national plan embracing both the public and the private sector'.
- Planning is very important to achieve development in an efficient manner. Adequate planning has its advantages and can help achieve the following goals in a timely and efficient manner.
- India, along with 192 other United Nations member states, agreed to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by the year 2015. Eight goals were officially established following the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in 2000.
- India and China are the two countries that have been doing extraordinarily well at achieving the MDGs.

- The National Development Council has a very important role in the process of Indian Planning andDevelopment.
- Origin of Planning in India can be traced back to 1933, at the time when M. Visvesvaraya formulated a ten-year plan with the objective of doubling the income of the country.
- The Planning Commission with the Prime Minister as the chairman has emerged as a powerful and effective staff agency in India.
- The Planning Commission works through three major divisions- Programme Advisors, Central Secretariat and Technical Divisions
- One of the important organizations of the Planning Commission is the Programme Evaluation Organisation (PEO) with a duty to undertake assessment studies to evaluate the effect of selectedPlan Programmes/Schemes in order to provide useful feedback to the Planners and executing agencies.
- The Swajal project was introduced in 1996 as a six-year project in 26 districts of Uttar Pradesh and12 districts of Uttaranchal.
- According to a sample survey conducted by the PMU, the Department of Rural Development, Government of UP, the Swajal project has ensured direct benefits to about 8 lakh rural inhabitants.
- District Planning is the process of preparing an integrated plan for the local government sector in adistrict taking into account the resources (natural, human and financial) available. It covers the sectoral activities and schemes assigned to the district level and below and those implemented through local governments in a state.
- In the preparation of the draft district plan, the various steps mentioned in the Report of the Expert Group on Planning at the Grassroots Level may be generally followed.
- The present state of development and the resource endowment including capability vary widely across states. It is not necessary to wait for perfection or latest technology to get started with the process.
- The idea of the district-level planning is founded on the opinion of local level planning.

KEY TERMS

- **Mixed Economy:** It is a mixture of economic freedom and government regulation. It displaysthe characteristics of capitalism and socialism while dealing with public and private control.
- **National Development Plan:** A large scale investment plan for development of theinfrastructure of a country.
- **Planning:** Programme of action for a particular period to achieve specific progressive goals.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. When was the first Planning Commission established?
2. What are the key functions of the Planning Commission?
3. What are Millennium Development Goals?

4. What are the key development goals of India?

5. In which year was the first Meeting of the National Development Council held?

6. When was the Planning Commission established?

7. What is the key role of the Programme Evaluation Organization?

8. Who are the present members of the Planning Commission?

9. What are the key functions of the State Planning Boards?

10. Name the two functional departments of the Planning Department.

11. What is the major achievement of the Swajal project?

12. What are the functions of the District Development Council?

13. What do you understand by District Planning?

FURTHER READING

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UNIT-6: Decentralized Planning

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Decentralized Planning
- Decentralized Planning in India
- Evolution of Decentralized Planning
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

One of the most important aspects of the development process, whether at micro-level or macro-level, is planning. Planning is of two kinds – centralized and decentralized. While attaining higher growth rate of national income is at the core of centralized planning, people development forms the main focus of decentralized planning. Power, authority and governance are the essential factors that are important in ruling a country. In all the countries, power is created then structured, maintained and changed from time to time. But depending on the size, area and geography of a big country, power cannot be vested in one's hands. Hence, it has to be divided to such an extent that the governance of the country can be made efficient. The key to achieving the goal of efficient governance is decentralization.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Understand the meaning of decentralized planning
- Decentralized Planning in India
- Evolution of Decentralized Planning

DECENTRALIZED PLANNING

In the literal sense, decentralization is 'moving away from the centre' or otherwise de-concentrating the powers of the upper level of the organization to its lower levels. There are many theorists who have given various definitions for decentralization:

According to Henry Fayol, '*Everything that goes to increase the importance of the subordinate's role is decentralization, everything that goes to reduce it is centralization.;*

According to Louis Allen, *'Decentralization refers to the systematic effort to delegate to the lowestlevels of all authority except that which can only be exercised at central point.'*

According to Rondinelli, *'the transfer of responsibility for planning, management, and resource-raising and allocation from the central government*

(a) field units of central government ministries or agencies;

(b) subordinate units or levels of government;

(c) semi-autonomous public authorities or corporations;

(d) area-wide regional or functional authorities; or

(e) NGOs/PVOs.'

Decentralization is one of the major elements of good governance and nearly all the countries in the worldare implementing it in their governance policy since the early 1980s.

Redefining decentralization, it states the transferring of the responsibilities of the national or state functions from:

- Central to sub-national governments
- Central agencies of offices to regional bodies or the branch offices from non-governmental organizations to the private entities.

The transfer of competencies downwards has noticeably transformed both the structure and capacity of many national governments. Decentralization has been seen as a very good framework which is analytical and can also refine the traditional practices which are dominant. It is considered as an element, which is important in democratic participation, and when combined with deregulation and privatization, it substantially reduces the authority of national governments over state policy.

Decentralization of governance is a major institutional framework which has caused considerable industrial growth and other diversified growth in many countries. In several countries, centralized governance has lost its legitimacy and has failed in many instances, while decentralization is showing many benefits in varied areas like economic growth and reduction of poverty. Decentralization not only makes the government more efficient in handling things but also responsive. The core of decentralized planning is the autonomy enjoyed in devising and executing plans. It is a process through which the planning procedure is brought nearer to the people, who are the ultimate target of development. Many countries have opted for decentralization of governance because they feel that it will strengthen civil society and deepen democracy. Some countries consider it a way of reducing the role of state by fragmenting central authority, offloading some of the important responsibilities to lower level governments, launching some more competition between governments inside the country and also using the system of checks and balances.

Decentralized Planning in India

India has the following dimensions:

- Land area- 3.3 million sq. Kms
- Length- 3,214 Kms
- Width- 2,933 Kms
- Number of states- 28
- Number of Union Territories- 7
- Population- Over 1.21 billion (according to Census 2011)

These statistics show the need to have a proper decentralized set-up in the country as a large country like India cannot have a complete centralized set-up. Due to its quasi-federal and democratic nature, decentralization shows the way towards the actual growth of the country.

Majority of the Indian population lives in the villages. The best way for effective governance is to enhance grass-root democracy. It is believed that the enduring and decentralized image of a decentralized India was Mahatma Gandhi's vision. He had a vision of a village, which was economically self-sufficient. He had in his mind the symbolic imagery of the independent 'village republic', which had an important element of formal, constitutional changes in India's administrative system and can have a lasting impact on informal and unequal structures like caste, class and gender. India, which has a completely diversified strata, has mixed goals of development, and decentralization has with the change in time, developed democratic decentralization which implies devolution of governmental responsibilities and powers, decentralization of political institutions, development of local leadership starting with the villages and strengthening the efforts for economic modernization all over the country.

Planning is an important element of decentralization. It can be a part of individual, collective or cooperative endeavour. It is said to be a '*rational process characteristic of all human behaviour'.* In the context of a developing country like India, planning is the best way to pull up the economy to a self- sustaining and self-generating stage.

According to Dimcock, planning is the '*use of rational design as contrasted with chance, the reaching of a decision before a line of action is taken instead of improving after the action has started.'*

Seckler-Hudson define planning as, *'the process of devising a basis of a course of future action.'*

According to Millet, *'Planning is a process of determining the objectives of administrative effort and of devising the means calculated to achieve them.'*

Planning involves the following steps:

- *Determining the objective:* To determine an objective, a collection of data is required. There should also be an enquiry into the problems. After examining all the problems, a final decision is taken. It is a policy decision and hence, political in nature.
- *Considering the possible courses of action to achieve the objective:* It involves finding of the best alternative methods. Examination of the methods is also required.
- *Selecting the best course of action:* It includes evaluation of the results of investigations and tests, and picking the best one out of them.

India adopted the policy of economic planning with the goal to achieve quick economic development in the year 1947. The main purpose for the planned development was to eradicate poverty in a short period of time and bring great wealth and fortune to every citizen of the country. However, sadly, poverty still persists on a large scale in the country. The inequalities in the income levels between the rich and poor still persist, and continue to expand.

Planning in India, as mentioned above is executed in the form of five year plans. In the plans framed, the programmes and policies are formulated centrally at the top level of the government. The responsibility was given to the Planning Commission of India which is the highest policy-making body in our country. These plans are implemented also at the lower levels, i.e., the state, district, blocks and panchayats.

It was observed that planning only at the centre cannot understand and fulfill the needs of local

people. Moreover, it will also hinder proper utilization of resources. It has been observed that in many cases, policies are formulated and implemented without addressing a number of issues, such as environmental problems. However, efforts can be put to enhance local participation to a greater extent in the formulation and implementation of these plans. This kind of planning is called decentralized planning.

Decentralized planning in the government starts from the national or central level to the state level and sub-state level. The lower level, that is, the sub-state level includes district, block and panchayat. All the levels have a particular role to play in the process of planning and are given certain powers and responsibilities. These powers are related to:

- Determining the goals
- Increasing the production of local resources.

Decentralized planning, can be defined as a type of planning where all the local organizations and institutions formulate, adopt, execute actions and supervise the plan without any interference by the central body.

The Planning Commission of India has the responsibility of planning for the whole country to meet various objectives, such as economic goals, infrastructure, growth and employment. Thus, the concept of decentralized planning was evolved.

The Planning Commission of India was established in the year 1950. It was set up to make possible the proper utilization of the resources of India. The key role of the commission was to increase employment opportunities for the people of the country. This was done by implementing various schemes and policies which aim at development of the society. The balanced exploitation of the wealth of India is also a major responsibility of the Planning Commission of India. The Prime Minister of the country is the chairman of the Planning Commission, and the first Chairman of the Planning Commission was Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru.

As an advisory body attached to the Planning Commission, the National Planning Council was established in 1965. The council has experts representing all the sections of the Indian economy. With this, the members of the Planning Commission and the Chief Ministers of the States constitute the National Development Council which was established in 1951 and is headed by the Prime Minister.

With the establishment of the Planning Commission at the national level, the First Five Year Plan was launched in the year 1951. All the subjects were divided into three categories — Central, State and Concurrent. They were given the work in the following manner:

- Centre: To evolve a national plan; work on the plan, for its implementation; keep an eye on the progress of major development schemes in different parts of the country.
- State: To plan for implementing the subjects in the State list.
- Concurrent: To deal with both Centre and State subjects like social and economic activities.

Two-level planning was started in both national and state levels. However, soon the policy makers realized the need for multi-level planning. They realized that there were potentials in the areas below the state levels as well. Therefore, a lot more was required to be done on the theme of decentralized planning in the country.

EVOLUTION OF DECENTRALIZED PLANNING

A number of Five Year Plans were introduced in our country with different key objectives set for each different plan.

First Five Year Plan (1951-1956): The Community Development Programme was the first programme which experimented with the concept of decentralized planning. To create an infrastructure, the Community Development Blocks were established at the block level. This was done for integrating the administrative and developmental work for efficient functioning. For all the activities of development of the villages, the block level was given the crucial responsibility. The experiment at the block level was closest to the idea of micro-level planning but certainly lacked popular involvement.

Second Five Year Plan (1956-61): This emphasized on setting up a 'socialist pattern of society'. *'The accent of the socialist pattern is on the attainment of positive goals; the raising of living standards, the enlargement of opportunities for all, the promotion of enterprise among the disadvantaged classes and the creation of a sense of partnership among all sections of the community'.* During the Second Five Year Plan, two important steps were introduced as districts were the pivot of the structure of democratic planning:

- Planning of village and District Development Councils was initiated, though it was only at the early stage.
- There was an idea of popular participation through democratic decentralization.
- The main motive was to bring the district and state plans to the intricate grass-root level so that more people can be benefitted from it. This would solve the pressing problems of each local area through community participation. The idea of creating such councils was quite good but it could notsucceed as it was conceived in isolation.

Third Five Year Plan (1961-1966): The idea of decentralization was reiterated in the Third Five Year Plan as the annual plan was to be framed on the basis of the need in the district and block levels. The planning included sectors of agriculture, village industries, elementary education water supply and minimum rural amenities and utilization of manpower in rural areas. Importance was given to the development of the urban and rural areas in the district the district planning authorities a much clear understanding of the resources that would be available for development purposes and reducing the rigidity regarding outlay for different structures.

Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-1974): With the successive annual plans, district planning in the states became more general, detailed and a coordinated programme. Reduction of regional disparities as an objective of district planning was added. Detailed guidelines for preparation of district plans were issued by the Commission regarding methodologies along with medium and annual plans.

District plan preparation was started by Maharashtra in 1972 and separate planning boards like the District Development and Planning Councils were established. Gujarat initiated district plans in 1979.

Three significant developments also took place:

- Banks were nationalized and were given various responsibilities in the massive programme of rural development, relating it with the district development plans.
- Concept of integrated area development came up throughout the world and India did not remain unaffected. In this concept, growth centres i.e. small towns or large villages which had the potential to become the hub of future economic, social and political development, were established.
- Area-specific and beneficiary oriented programmes like CADA, DDA, HADA, TDA, SFDA, and DPAP were introduced, which were centrally sponsored programmes on a sharing basis and were operated in districts.

- During the same year, a committee headed by Asoka Mehta was set up to enquire into the workingof the Panchayati Raj Institutions.

Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79): It emphasized on two strategic goals.

(i) Removal of poverty

(ii) Economic self-reliance

In addition, the National Development Council (NDC), while adopting the Fifth Five Year Plan passedcertain resolutions, in the year 1976 :-

- Taking effective steps to curb the inflationary tendencies
- Endorsing the emphasis on agriculture, irrigation, energy and related core sectors
- Implementing new economic programmes

Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985): This highlighted the importance of block-level planning for the eradication of poverty with gainful opportunities of employment to even the poorest of the poor. In the year 1983, the Prime Minister's Economic Advisory Council suggested that there should be a cluster of four districts each. This tier was termed as the Divisional Development Authority (DDA) which constituteda Policy Planning Council and a Programme Executive Council.

During the Sixth Plan period, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh also started district planning. A working group chaired by M.L. Dantwala was appointed to draw up guidelines for block-level planning. It advocated that block-level planning will accelerate the process of decentralization in the hope that a more systematic approach with a smaller coverage will help speed up the development process and be more responsive to the weaker sections of the society. The IRDP also came up with a plan to lift the poorest families in the block above the poverty line by providing credit and inputs to such families.

Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990): The process of decentralization was to be followed on the recommendation of the Rao Committee. The Planning Commission played a guiding role to impart momentum. In 1985, a committee was set up which was chaired by G.V.K. Rao by the Planning Commission of India and was given the charge to look into the administrative activities and recommend a proper structural mechanism. The report produced was called CAARD 1985 and emphasized the need to activate Panchayati Raj institutions.

On Panchayati Raj Institutions, the Sarkaria Commission was set up to see the existing arrangements between the Union and States. The commission recommended effective participation by the bodies elected and suggested creation of the Finance Commission at the state level for the State Government to devolvethe resources to districts.

This was the approach of The Planning Commission to do decentralized planning. Hence, the Planning Commission played an important role in the decentralization planning of the country.

Ninth Five Year Plan: (1997-2002): This plan gave due consideration to decentralized planning. It clearly states that the panchayats should be given certain powers and authority so that they can discharge their functions efficiently and independently as envisaged in our Constitution. To discharge the functions properly, the panchayats should have strong financial and administrative support. Hence, one of the mostimportant priorities in this plan is the mobilization of one's own resources.

This plan covers various provisions of decentralized planning, governance and development in orderto make sure that the Panchayati Raj functionaries are provided with information with respect to various programmes/schemes of the government.

These were the policies in the Five Year plans related to decentralization. As discussed earlier in this unit, Five Year Plans can be termed as decentralized plans to a great extent. From the very first plan onwards, attempts have been made by the government to introduce some degree of decentralization into the planning function by strengthening local level planning. Sometimes, such attempts have proved to be strong and visible. However, the fact that cannot be denied at times is that, they have been weak and dormant. Thus, decentralized planning in our country has started over the years.

To get a clearer picture of the evolution of decentralized planning, the evolution can be discussed in five phases as follows:

(i) **The Community Development Planning Phase:** The phase talks about two Five Year plans, i.e., the First Five Year Plan (1951-56) and the Second Five Year Plan (1956-61). In order to give a concrete shape to Gandhi's idea of a self- sufficient village, the planners in the First Five Year Plan had incorporated the Community Development (CD) Programme with great enthusiasm. It was inaugurated on October 2, 1952, in 55 selected blocks of the country. It was completely intended to be a people's movement. According to the Ministry of Community Development, Government of India, *'The initiative for Community Development Programme comes from the people themselves. Village Communities not only choose the priorities according to which the problems are to be tackled, but they also undertake the major responsibility for implementing them. The role of the Government is to assist all these activities at every stage. Officials guide and help the villagers, provide technical advice and organize supplies, services and finance.'*

This programme was implemented by the National Extension Service. In practice, however, the method adopted for the purpose was 'top-down' i.e. in all the directions that came from the centre. However, planning does not reflect the local needs of the people, nor does it come with the necessary financial or technical assets. As a result, the members of the community did not show any interest in the programme as it was expected.

(ii) **The Panchayati Raj Phase:** The period from 1960-70 marks the establishment of the Panchayati Raj institutions. The institution of Panchayati Raj originated on the recommendations of the Balwantrai Mehta Committee. This committee was set up to study the functioning of the Community Development projects. The Committee made a very important observation relating to decentralization:

'So long as we do not discover or create a representative and democratic institution which will supply the local interest, supervision and care necessary to ensure that expenditure of money upon local projects conforms with needs and wishes of the locality, invest it with adequate power and assign to it appropriate finances we will never be able to evoke local initiative in the field of development.'

Based on the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee's recommendations the Panchayati Raj System was to have three tiers: at the village, block and district levels.

o At the village and block levels the bodies were elected, and hence, democratic.

o At the district level, an advisory body was constituted. It was chaired by the District Collector and the MLAs and MPs were to be its members. There were some elected bodies of the panchayat as well. The key function of the body was planning. At this level, the body needs to improve the functioning of the Panchayat as well.

Problems- Panchayati Raj institutions found a place in many states based on the Committee's report. Panchayati Raj institutions are not regarded as a separate level of government as it comes under

district. Some decisions which are political in nature were taken by the authority at the State and Centre. One of the problems was related to the domination by the people in power like the political leaders, in the meetings of the Zila Parishad and Panchayat Samiti. The decisions related to activities of development were taken by the authorities at the Centre and State. Hence, it cannot be said that there was effective decentralization. There was no Panchayat Samiti or Zilla Parishad at both the levels of block and district that can be differentiated with an authority. Lower level units are generally supposed to follow orders from higher authority and had no scope for taking their own decisions. As a result, these institutions had to suffer a huge turmoil by the end of 1970s. The Ashok Mehta Committee was another Committee appointed in 1977 to review the existing situation of Panchayati Raj in the country and had recommended a two-tier system.

(iii) ***The Period of Special Programme:*** This phase was during the Fourth Five Year Plan when some significant moifications were brought about in the planning related to economics and development. Till this point of time, States were assisted by the Centre. Calculated funds for specific projects proposed by the State were given on the approval by the Centre. This did not work as far as the plan of giving away of funds with the help of the Centre is concerned. In the Fourth Plan, it was changed.

Then the Gadgil Formula came into the picture for the allocation of blocks between the Centre and the States. The percentage of grant and loan was 30 per cent and 70 per cent respectively. It did not include the priorities and schemes of the states. So, to use the funds properly, the States had to work hard to strengthen their position in the system.

Soon, realization dawned on people that these schemes were not affecting many societies or people in various regions. It was not compatible with the economic growth. Some special change was the ardent need for benefitting as many people as possible. Hence, some special programmes in the plan were launched like:

- The Minimum Needs Programme (MNP)
- The Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers Agencies Programme (MFALAP)
- The Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Project (PIREP)
- The Small Farmers Development Agency Programme (SFDAP)
- The Tribal Areas Development Programme (TADP)
- The Hill Areas Development Programme (HADP)
- The Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP)

The specialty of these programmes is that it makes clear that now the focus on rural development was given to 'target areas or target groups'.. The activities which were suitable for the area were planned and people with great enthusiasm were supposed to help in implementing them in the Development Block which was viewed as the most suitable, especially in the context of area planning. Under the chairmanship of Prof. Dantwala, a working Group on Block- Level Planning was appointed by the Government that prepared guidelines for block-level planning. However, later on, government was changed and the new government brought in a new 6th Plan (1980-89). With this the focus shifted from the Block-level to the District-level.

(iv) ***The District Planning Phase:*** The District Planning Phase was the time of the Sixth and Seventh Five Year Plans that starts from the 1980s till the 1990s. The planning, during this period took place with the help of special programmes. The government had set up a Working Group on District Planning Chaired by C.H. Hanumanth Rao in 1982. Decentralized Planning at the district and local levels was the main focus in this period.

Finally, the committee of C.H. Hanumanth Rao recommended a plan which covered all the sectors at the district level. This process was a unified one and prescribed all the details regarding methodology, institutions and other avenues required. There was another committee set up, that was the G.V.K. Rao Committee. It suggested some arrangements related to administration and focus was also given to rural development in the year 1985. It also pointed out that the district planshould not be seen merely under the purview of the State Plan. It was to be coupled with the State Plan and executed into the same plan. These committees provided detailed guidelines to the states to reorganize planning below the State level. This plan showed ways to many state governments for implementing decentralized planning in their respective states while following these guidelines in ageneral manner.

*(v) **The Period of Revival of Panchayati Raj:*** Decentralized Planning depends greatly on devolving the powers from the top-level government to the local-level government. But the problem is that even when powers and functions are given to these institutions, they are not as effective as they should be

because of some competing agencies. The Panchayati Raj institutions are considered to be the lower level authorities in India but the problem is that they have a constitutional position which is not strong. The Government, with the 73rd Amendment, introduced some important guidelines to strengthen the Panchayati Raj institutions, in the year 1993. The States have considerable functions in their hands and have been given the powers to mobilize resources. Nowadays, the aim is to decentralizeeffectively through panchayats. Till now, 29 subjects have been recognized as the Panchayati Raj institutions. The following content will extensively deal with the Panchayati Raj system for better understanding.

SUMMARY

- In the literal sense, decentralization is 'moving away from the centre' or otherwise deconcentratingthe powers of the upper level of the organization to its lower levels.
- The majority of the Indian population lives in the villages. The best way for effective governance is to enhance the grass-root democracy.
- It is believed that the enduring and decentralized image of a decentralized India was a vision ofMahatma Gandhi.
- Planning is an important element of decentralization. It can be a part of the individual, collective ora cooperative endeavour.
- India adopted the policy of economic planning with the goal to achieve quick economic development in the year 1947.
- Planning only at the centre cannot understand and fulfill the needs of local people.
- Decentralized planning in government starts from the national or central level to the state level and sub-state level. The lower level, that is, the sub-state level includes district, block and panchayat.
- The Planning Commission of India has the responsibility of planning for the whole country to meet various objectives, such as economic goals, infrastructure, growth and employment. Thus, the concept of decentralized planning was evolved.
- The Planning Commission of India was established in 1950 to make possible the proper

utilization of the resources of India. The key role of the commission was to increase employment opportunities for the people of the country.

KEY TERMS

- **Decentralized Planning:** Kind of planning, where all the local organizations and institutions formulate, adopt, execute actions and supervise the plan without any interference by the central body.
- **Magna Carta:** It is the Charter in the History of England granted by King John at Runnymede in the year 1215. It recognizes the rights and privileges of the barons, church, and freemen.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What is the difference between centralized planning and decentralized planning?
2. Give Louis Allen's definition of decentralization.
3. What are the key steps involved in planning?
4. What were the two strategic goals of the Fifth Five Year Plan?
5. In which year was the Ashok Mehta Committee appointed?

FURTHER READING

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UNIT-7: The Panchayati Raj System

Structure:

- Introduction

- Unit Objectives

- The Panchayati Raj System

- History of the Panchayati Raj System: Pre-British Rule

- Panchayati Raj after Independence

- Structure and Major Functions of Panchayati Raj Institutions in India

- Summary

- Key Terms

- Questions and Exercises

- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

Theoretically, the most important point related to decentralization is that the government will become more responsive and accountable, thus, improving governance. Many real world reformers also bear risks and costs in the interest of devolution for improving governance.

The national governments, following the concept of decentralization, have started delegating powers in developmental activities, such as those related to policy and decision-making, environment and public services. During the last three decades, many developing countries have been practising devolution of power in political and economic activities to local governments like Brazil, Uganda and Pakistan. They have greatly changed their system to a great extent and concentrated on political and economic decentralization. Brazil and India decentralized in a great manner and through a gradual process.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Examine the working of the Panchayati Raj system in India
- Discuss the History of the Panchayati Raj System: Pre-British Rule
- Assess the importance of Panchayati Raj after Independence

THE PANCHAYATI RAJ SYSTEM

Mahatma Gandhi advocated that 'India lives in her villages. Indian independence must begin at the bottom, thus making every village a republic or panchayat, enjoying full powers. His remarks say that true

democracy cannot be worked by twenty men sitting at the centre and has to be worked from below by the people of every village'. These very dreams were responsible for the inclusion of Article 40 in the Directive Principles of State Policy of the Constitution of India.

There has been socio-economic transformation in rural India. The grass-root units of local self-government that have made this transformation possible are the Panchayati Raj institutions. Local governments are able to respond better to local needs not only because of their proximity to the people but also because they are in a better position to make the best use of resources. In India, Panchayati Rajis seen as an institutional expression of democratic decentralization. Power is decentralized to the panchayats to empower people and involve them in decision-making processes at the ground level. Panchayati Raj is another name for the system of decentralizing democratically. Panchayati Raj is the tool that helps ensure democracy. It is also the tool that is capable of transforming the socio-economic condition of a village/region. Democracy can be ensured in a country only through mass participation in the country's governance.

The Government of India took a revolutionary step in 1993.It made Panchayati Raj Institutions a part of the Constitution. Panchayati Raj has been able to withstand several political changes and upheavals in the ancient and medieval periods till the British Raj. Following colonial administration, the manner of functioning of these local bodies changed drastically.

History of the Panchayati Raj system: Pre British Rule

In the Rig Veda and other scriptures, there is mention of the term 'Panchayat' was mentioned in scriptures, such as Rig Veda, which were composed over 1000 years before Christ. The word is derived from *Panch,* which means five, referring to the five members of the Panchayat. These five members of the village Panchayat were called *Pancha Parameswar*, or the five Gods. The word is also said to be a derivative of ***pancha panchasvanusthitah.*** The Panchayat was responsible for distributing land, collecting revenue and settling disputes.

It would not be wrong to say that Panchayati Raj, as an insitution, existed since the time the Indian civilization has existed. Since ancient times, it has not only been present but has been controlling and managing affairs, both judicial as wel as civil, in Indian villages. In addition to the Rigveda, the Manusamhita, Dharmashastras, Upanishads and Jatakas mention local administration extensively, for instance, the panchayat system of administration is mentioned in the Manusmriti while the Shantiparva is mentioned in the Mahabharata. Grama Sanghas or village councils are also mentioned in the ancient scriptures.

These village councils are described in detail in Kautilya's ***Arthashastra*** of 400 B.C. This work gives a detailed discussion of the village administration that prevailed during that period under the supervision of the *Adyaksha* or headman who controlled everything. He was of course supported by other officials, such as *Samkhyaka* (accountant), *Anikitsaka,* (veterinary doctor), *Jamghkarmika (* village couriers) and *Chikitsaka* (physician).

It was the responsibility of the headman of the village to collect the state dues and also control the actions of criminals and offenders. In Valmiki's *Ramayana,* the village federation or *Ganapada* is mentioned, which was probably a type of federation of village republics.

In India, there were self-governing village communities, which were primarily agrarian economies, that were in existence since time immemorial. Even the Rig Veda from approximately 200BC mentions that the basic unit of administration was the village during the Vedic era. The *Sabha* and the *Samiti* were the most important features of the early Vedic polity. These were the popular

assemblies of the time.

- Samiti- This was the folk assembly of the Vedic period, and at times enjoyed the right to elect a king.
- Sabha - This assembly also performed certain judicial functions.

Both the *Samiti* and the *Sabha* had the power and right to debate, unlike other popular assemblies of those times. The village headman held the office of ***Gramani***, indicating that the village emerged as a unit of administration. In the later Vedic era, the Samiti slowly lost popularity and vanished while the Sabha shrank to a narrow group or body corresponding to the king's Privy Council only.

In due course of time, village bodies formed into panchayats that managed village affairs. They had the powers to enforce law and order. They were also put on a pedestal by various customs and religious norms that bestowed on them a sacred position of authority. In addition, there also existed caste panchayats. This was the pattern in the Indo-Gangetic plains. However, in the south, the village panchayats generally had a village assembly where the executive body comprised representatives of various groups and castes. These village bodies in northern and southern India, had not only been the focus of administration but also the center of the social life of the people and pivot of social solidarity.

During the reign of the Mauryas, the village was the basic unit of administration wherein the disputes were settled by villagers; they also did work that was useful for the public, and organized recreational activities. They played the part of trustees for property owned by minors. Regular councils had not come into being. The village council appeared to have evolved into regular bodies in the Gupta period where they were known as ***Panchamandalas*** in central India, and ***Gramajanapadas*** in Bihar. These bodies negotiated with the government for concessions and settlement of disputes between the people. The inscription of the Chola dynasty reflects the construction and functions of the village assembly and their executive committees. The village administrations were performed by the elected representatives that formed the village council.

Medieval Period: Village bodies formed the central point of administration during the medieval and Mughal eras. During the Mughal era, particularly during the reign of Sher Shah, the villages were governed by their own panchayats. Every panchayat consisted of the elders of the village who ensured that the interest of the people was protected and there was justice for all. They ensured that the defaulters were punished. The village head was considered a semi government official who coordinated between the village panchayat and the administrative authority. Akbar not only favoured this system purely but also accepted it as an integral part of civil administration. During this age, each village had its own panchayat consisting of the elders. The Mughals came up with elaborate administrative hierarchies of officals, particularly in the revenue department. They had autonomy in local taxation, administrative control, justice and punishment of the local administrative system of the Mughals for several centuries. Following the fall of the Mughal empire, the British established their foothold in India. The panchayat concept weakened later under the feudal and Mughal rulers. There was a whole new class of feudal chiefs or zamindars, who were the link between the king and the commoners.

Panchayati Raj under the British Rule

Under the British rule, the Panchayats started losing their self-governing character gradually and the authority of the state had direct control of the British rulers. In the new judicial system, disputes arising in the village were carried to the courts that were outside the village. Special programmes like construction, relief works,

and maintenance of irrigation work and payment of grants-in-aid to schools were implemented by the stateunder them. Hence, the age-old functions of the Panchayat were carried by the external agencies.

The British arrived on Indian soil with the main objective of trading. They did not have much to do with governance and development. Their first priority was never the local government were not at all their first priority and before the advent of the British rule in India, the local and rural republic had grown and thrived. With the emergence of the British Raj in India, the panchayati raj institution ceased to play the role that it had earlier. The truth remains that local self-government as a representative institution came about during British rule.

In the beginning, the British were only interested in creating local bodies comprising nominated members. These bodies were built around trading centres. In 1687, a municipal corporation was formed inChennai (Madras), based on the British model of town council. This body possessed the power to levy taxes for building guild halls and schools. With the passage of time, similar bodies came up in other major towns and a model became prevalent to help the British to widen their taxation power. This model continued to comprise nominated members without any elected elements at all.

After the First War of Independence in 1857, local-self-government received some more attention from the British Government and District Funds were set up in several states with some power to levy a tax on land, education, revenue and roads. With them, the District and Taluka local fund committees were set up, the fate was such that the funds were small and the village was hardly touched by the district committee.

Mayo Resolution of 1870

Lord Mayo, the then viceroy of India from 1869 to 1872, felt it was necessary to decentralize powers to bring efficiency in administration. In the year 1870, he launched the system of elected representatives in urban municipalities. Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870 under the British Rule, is considered as a huge step in thehistory of evolution of local self-government. It aimed at enlarging and increasing the powers and responsibilities of the governments, ruling in the Provinces and the Presidencies. Local public works, sanitation, health services and education had a chance to receive more attention from them as well as the local-self- governments also.

The revolt of 1857 had put the finances of the Britishers under a lot of pressure and it was necessary to finance local service by the way of local taxation. Hence, Lord Mayo's resolution on decentralization was adopted because of financial reasons.

The Bengal Chowkidar Act of 1870

The Bengal Chowkidar Act of 1870 was an initiative to re-introduce the age old tradition of village panchayati system in Bengal. The Chowkidar Act gave the power to district magistrates for setting up panchayats. It comprised nominated members, who were the residents of the villages, and their work included collecting taxes for the purpose of paying the chowkidars (watchmen) hired doing this work.

Ripon Resolution (1882)

Lord Ripon is regarded as the father of local self-government in India because of the resolution he made and passed in 1882. He turned into action the intention of Lord Mayo. He gave importance to both administrative efficiency as well as political education at the ground level of locals. The Ripon Resolutionfocused on towns that provided for a majority of elected non-official members and a non-official chair- person for the local board. It was resisted by the colonial administrators.

The contribution of Lord Ripon in the development of local Government is great. The local boards were split into smaller units under his local self-government plan so as to ensure higher levels of

efficiency. He launched a system of election aimed at ensuring popular participation, that was applicable to the local boards as well. The government resolution of May 18, 1882 is of great significance in the structural evolution of local governments. It contained provisions for the local boards comprising a large majority of elected non-official members presided over by a non-official chairperson. Lord Ripon's Resolution was said to be **The Magna Carta** of local democracy in the country. This resolution proposed to establis rural local boards with two third members being elected representatives. He introduced the concept of self- government in urban municipalities as well. Hence, he is also regarded as the founding father of urban local government.

After Ripon's resolution, there was a series of Committees, Commissions and Acts. The Royal Commission on Decentralization was set up in the year 1909 and elaborated some more principles of Ripon resolution but this was not implemented. Ripon's scheme could not be of great help in the development of local self-government institutions.

Montague-Chelmsford Reforms of 1919

The Montague-Chelmsford Reforms were passed in the year 1919. This reform transferred the subject of local government to the domain of provinces. The reform also recommended that as far as possible there should be a complete control in local bodies. By 1925, there were eight provinces which had panchayats but they only had a few villages which were functioning well. It led to a lot of organizational and fiscal constraints and because of this, the reform was unable to give great results as far as democratization of panchayats was concerned.

The Royal Commission on decentralization, which was chaired by C.E.H. Hobhouse tried to bring back the old culture of panchayats by starting local-self-government at the rural village level instead of the district level. The Commission recommended granting some powers to the Panchayats to help them perform their duties without depending on others. They were given some roles, such as the control over the village ponds, sanitation in villages and management of schools. It also provided for some finance for this. The village panchayats were introduced in many provinces after the Montague-Chelmsford reforms. By 1925, about eight provinces had already passed Panchayat Acts. By 1926, there were six native states that also passed panchayat laws.

With the introduction of diarchy, ministers contributed a little to the development of local government. In 1927, the Simon Commission was given the work of looking into the working of local-self-government. It also suggested some improvement in the system. Many drawbacks, such as the huge size of an average district, lack of good spirit among voters, lack of funds and absence of control by the provincial government were pointed out.

Government of India Act (1935)

The Government of India Act is said to have played a significant role in the evolution of panchayats in British India. All the provinces had elected governments. Therefore, it was natural for them to feel bound to enforce legislations promoting democratization of local self-government institutions, including village panchayats. Although the popular government in the provinces governed by the Congress let go their office following the declaration of the World War II, 1939, the local government institutions continued to remain powerful until August 1947, when India finally became independent.

The British government was not at all interested in the village autonomy. Yet, they were forced to bring it about because they wished to continue ruling the country. In addition, it had to fulfil its financial necessities. The rural republic of India thrived till the British arrived, but lost popularity during the British reign. The panchayats of the 'self-contained' villages came to a stop, and soon

gavae way to formally constituted institutions of village administration. In the highly centralized system of British rule, village autonomy took a back seat.

In1937 some popular ministries were formed that undertook legislation to make the local bodies which were truly the representatives of the people. Unfortunately, they decided to resign with the outbreak of the World War II, in the year 1939. From 1939 to 1946, the provinces were ruled by one man — the Governor. India finally got independence in 1947.

Panchayati Raj after Independence

The aim of the British rulers was not to decentralize democracy, but to facilitate colonial administration. The Freedom Movement was concerned more with swaraj for the country than with *Gram Swaraj*. Mahatma Gandhi, greatly advocated *Gram Swaraj*, but not all the leaders had the same view point. For instance, Dr. Ambedkar, who made a significant contribution in drafting the Indian constitution observed that *'the village (was) a sink of localism, a den of ignorance, narrow-mindedness and communalism."* He also saidthat: *"I am glad the Draft Constitution has discarded the village and adopted the individual as its unit.'*

Therefore, when the Constitution was adopted on January 26, 1950, the Panchayati Raj institutions were placed under the Directive Principles of State Policy under **Article 40**. The Article says: 'The state

shall take steps to organize village Panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of local self-government.'

As is well-known, the Directive Principles cannot be enforced in a court of law. Thus, it was only expected of the state that it would foster the development of Panchayati Raj. This constitutional weakness of the Panchayati Raj institutions subsisted there for over four decades. The 73rd Amendment to the Constitution had to be removed because of this. During these four decades many committees were set up at different times for making recommendations for strengthening Panchayats. Some of these committeesare briefly discussed below.

The Balwant Rai Mehta Committee (1957)

The Balwant Rai Mehta Committee was set up to study the Community Development projects and the National Extension Service and make recommendations. The Committee strongly recommended the involvement of the community in the decision-making, planning and implementation processes for the success of the community development project. Some important recommendations of the Committee were that there should be an early establishment of elected local bodies and devolution to them of necessary resources, power and authority; the basic unit of decentralization was the block/samiti; the body was to be constituted for five years by indirect elections from the village Panchayats; the higher-level body, zilla parishad was to be an advisory body only.

The Panchayati Raj system in India could not achieve the expected results because there was resistance from politicians and administrators to share power and resource with local-level bodies and domination of local politics by the local strong people.

The Santhanam Committee (1963)

The Santhanam Committee was set up to see the financing of the Panchayati Raj institutions. Some of the recommendations of the Committee were that the panchayats should have powers to levy taxes like landrevenue and home taxes; all grants at the state level should be mobilized and sent in a consolidated form to the Panchayati Raj institutions; a Panchayati Raj Finance Corporation should be set up to take

care of the financial needs of Panchayati Raj institutions. Some of the recommendations of the Committee are being taken up by the State Finance Commissions now.

The Ashok Mehta Committee (1978)

The Ashok Mehta Committee was set up when the Janata Party government came to power in1977. It was set up to suggest measures that will help strengthen the Panchayati Raj institutions. The committee made some of the important recommendations. The district is a viable administrative unit for planning, coordination, resource allocation with the available technical expertise. Therefore, a two-tier system is desirable with Mandal Panchayat at the bottom and Zilla Parishad at the top. There should be a four-year term for the PRIs- political parties should participate in elections. There should also be both functional and financial devolution. The committee recommended to the Panchayati Raj constitutional protection and further decentralization of power at all levels.

The G.V.K. Rao Committee (1985)

The G.V.K. Rao Committee was set up to look into the various aspects of panchayats. Its recommendations were that the Panchayati Raj Institutions were to be activated and provided with all necessary support; Panchayati Raj Institutions at the district level and below should be given the task of planning, implementation and monitoring of rural development programmes; the block should be the key level in the rural development process.

The L.M. Singhvi Committee (1986)

The two most important recommendations of the L.M. Singhvi Committee were that the local-self-government should be constitutionally recognized, protected and preserved by the inclusion of a new chapter in the Constitution; political parties should not be involved in panchayat elections. Although there was a huge resistance against these recommendations from various directions but finally the Constitution was amended to make Panchayati Raj Institutions constitutional institutions.

It fell upon the post-Independence Indian governemnt to strengthen the Panchayati Raj System. It was important for the government to ensure that the village panchayats were empowered so that the democracy could be strong. Mahatma Gandhi who supported G*rama Swaraj* was all in favour of putting power in the hands of the rural folk. He felt that the villages need to be self- sufficient so that they can govern themselves via elected panchayats. However, surprisingly, the draft Constitution created in 1948 had no provision for Panchayati Raj Institutions, which drew a lot of criticism from Gandhiji. He demanded prompt rectification and soon, panchayat was also added in the Directive Principles of the State Policy.

According to Article 40 of the Directive Principles of State Policy the states shall take steps to organize village panchayats and provide them such powers and authority as may be necessary to make them function as units of self-government'. The most important aspect was the empowerment of democracy at the the grass-root level. However, this aspect did not receive as much attention as it should have from the members of the drafting committee of the Constitution of India. They did not make Directive Principle of State Policy legally binding on the governments. In 1952, effort were made to tackle the problems, in the rural areas of India, by the Community Development Programme. Similar efforts were made in 1953, by the National Extension Service. The programme was founded on an integrated approach to the various faces of rural development. The objectives the promotion of self-help and self-reliance among rural folk, to be able to generate a process of integrated social, economic and cultural change with the aim of transforming the social and political life of the villagers. The

Community Development Programme was launched in 55 selected blocks. The basis of the programme was an integrated approach to the various aspects of rural development. This programme, aimed at bringing about socio-economic development of the rural masses in a democratic way, introduced provisions to appoint Block Development Officers [BDO] and Village Level Workers [VLW]. However, the programme was not successful and did not shape up the way it was expected to because of the absence of an effective instrument for people's participation.

A new chapter should be inserted in the Constitution defining their powers and functions, and there should be free and fair election to be conducted via the election commission. The Committee suggested appointing finance commission and entrusting all the rural development programmes to the Panchayati Raj Institutions through the amendment of Schedule VII of the Constitution.

73rd Amendment Act, 1992

Rajiv Gandhi, the then Prime Minister of India was responsible for introducing the 64th Amendment bill on local government on May 15, 1989. However, it did not receive the expected support. He attempted again, in September, 1990 to have the bill passed. However, in this second try, the bill was not even considered. In September 1991, once again a bill on Panchayati Raj was introduced by the Congress government under the Prime Minister P.V. Narasimha Rao. It was passed in 1992 as the 73rd Amendment Act with slight modifications and enforced on April 24, 1993.

The Salient Features of the Act

The 73rd Amendment Act had provisions for establishing Gram Sabha in every village. It will be a body consisting of all the members registered as voters in the panchayat area. It gave a three-tier shape to the Panchayati Raj system at the village, intermediate and district levels. Smaller states with population less than 20 lakhs will have no option but to have intermediate level panchayat.

Seats in the panchayats, at all three level, shall be filled via direct election. In addition, the chairperson of the village panchayat can be made member of the panchayat at the intermediate level. People like MPs, MLAs and MLCs, could also be member of panchayat at the intermediate and the district level.

The 73rd Amendment towards decentralization

The 73rd Amendment created positive conditions for decentralization in India. Although there is some disagreement about whether and to what extent the reforms have been implemented, the general consensus within this school is that the 73rd Amendment was a positive step for Indian decentralization and that the only factor preventing successful devolution is the failure to implement fully the terms and conditions of the 73rd Amendment. A second school is even more critical of decentralization in general and the 73rd Amendment in particular. A central assertion that underlies this second school is that the reforms put in place in 1993 are largely cosmetic, and that the ultimate distribution of power and resources in rural areas is dependent on the pre-existing pattern of social inequalities created by caste, religion, class, gender and other forms of rural domination.

Structure and Major Functions of Panchayati Raj Institutions in India

Though the basic structure of the Panchayati Raj Institutions is identical in the states of India, it is has different nomenclatures in various states. Panchayats in every state have their own characteristics which are different and even election procedures to these institutions vary. Each district has one Zilla Parishad or district Panchayat.

In the same way, Block Panchayats or *Panchayat Samitis* are related with blocks of the said district.

- *Zilla Panchayat:* The Panchayati Raj system at the district level is called Zila Parishad. As far as the designation of the officers is concerned, it varies from state to state. He is called by different names—the Chairman or Chairperson;President or Zila Pradhan; Pramukh or Sabhadhipati. Each block Panchayat under a Zila Parishad elects one to three members directly depending on the number of voters within it. Presidents of the Block Panchayats are ex-officio members of the Zila Parishad. In some states, the Member of Legislative Assembly, Member of Parliament of the district/ constituency are also the ex-officio members of that constituency. There is also a provision for reservation of seats for women, SCs/STs, Backward classes and women belonging to these classes, not only for the members of the District Panchayat, but also for the post of chairpersons. These elected members summon the meetings of their respective Panchayats once in two three months and also preside over them. Their function is to see whether the resolutions passed by the Panchayats are properly implemented or not. The term of these panchayats is for five years unless it is dissolved earlier. Their functions include supervision, guidance, coordination, planning and welfare activities

- *Block Panchayat or Panchayat Samiti:* Each Gram Panchayat under a Block Panchayat elects one to three members directly to the Block Panchayat. The Pradhans are ex-officio members of the Block Panchayats. The development block is named differently in different states. Sarpanches or Pradhans can be made ex-officio members of the Panchayat Samiti. The number of members is prescribed by the state government. Their meetings are held once in two-three months. The term is of five years but it can be dissolved before in cases of negligence. Provision for reservation for women, SCs, STs, backward classes and women belonging to these classes is made. Their function is to supervise the working of village panchayats.

- *Gram Panchayat*: A Gram as defined under the Act (meaning a village or a cluster of villages) is divided into a minimum of five constituencies (again depending on the number of voters the Gram is having). It basically means that at the village level, the executive committee of the Gram Sabha is the managing body of the village, which is elected by the voters directly for a period of five years. From each of these constituencies one member is elected. The body of these elected members is called the Gram Panchayat and the sizes of these vary. In a few circumstances, the state government has the power to suspend and dissolve this gram panchayat before the expiry of five years. But in such a case, a newly constituted panchayat must be made before a period of six months. The Legislation regarding village panchayat, makes it compulsory for the panchayat to appoint its committees. The number of members in these committees ranges from three to five to carry out its own functions respectively. The characteristics of such committees are different from state to state. The following functions are assigned to such committees:
  - Social Justice Committee
  - Amenities Committee
  - Social welfare Committee
  - Water Supply Committee and many more.
  - Production Committee
  - Beneficiary committee
  - Public Health Committee

The panchayat is considered to have two kinds of functions: Mandatory and Discretionary. According to the laws, there are some functions which have to be compulsorily performed by the panchayats but the numbers of these functions varies in different states.

Mandatory functions: Sanitary, drainage, drinking water, construction and maintenance of roads, rural electrification and preparation of annual budget are only some of the mandatory functions.

Discretionary functions - Dairy development, minor irrigation, social forestry, housing and poverty alleviation are some of the discretionary functions.

What might be mandatory in one state may be discretionary in the other.

- *Gram Sabha***:** It exists in all the states except Jammu and Kashmir; and Arunachal Pradesh. Its executive committee is actually Gram Panchayat. All the voters of the same constituency are members of the Gram Sabha. In some states it is called Ward Sabha and in some, Palli Sabha. The meeting of this sabha is convened by the Executive Officer or the Sarpanch or the Mukhia or the Pradhan or also Gram Panchayat. It can also be convened by a member of the village panchayat who represents the constituency comprising an area of the village. The meeting is to be presided over by the head or Chairperson of the Gram Panchayat. In his absence, his deputy can preside over the meeting. The quorum of members in the Gram Sabha meetings differs from state to state.In many states it is one-tenth of the members present.

Under the Constitution, there are three tiers of the Panchayat. The Gram Sabha is not a tier of this system. It does not have any function which is executive in nature and operates as a recommending body only. Gram Sabhas hold meetings two or four times a year. If there is any urgent issue to be discussed, meetings can be called any time. In few states, like Gujarat and Madhya Pradesh, the dates of these meetings are fixed. In other states dates are fixed by the Gram Panchayats. Issues to be discussed include:

- Annual Action Plan and Budget
- Annual Accounts and Annual report of the GP
- Selection of beneficiaries for different social service programmes (Indira Awas Yojana (IAY), Pension Schemes etc.)
- Identification of schemes for preparation of Annual Plan for development programmes (e.g. MGNREGS) of GP
- Consideration of the Audit reports, analyses of GP's performance

Nyaya panchayats

Some states like Bihar, Maharashtra, J&K, West Bengal and Uttar Pradesh have set up their respective panchayats to deal with civil disputes and petty offences at the village level. These panchayats are calledNyaya panchayats. In different states, they have different names. In some states, the panchayat itself performs the judicial functions although there is no uniformity between states as far as the constitution ofthese Nyaya Panchayats are concerned.

In all the cases, the Nyaya Panchayats are constituted for a period of five years. The civil and criminal jurisdictions of some of the states are as follows:

- *Jammu and Kashmir:* Five members of the *adalat* referred to as the panchayati adalat constitutesa bench. Suits are not admissible after one year which is the expiry period. There is no limit as such prescribed for the civil cases and there are no offences specifically mentioned in the criminal jurisdiction.
- *Maharashtra:* There is one Nyaya panchayat for a collection of five villages. It has civil as well as criminal jurisdiction and can also investigate a case as well as call for witnesses and documents.

Nagar Panchayats

A town panchayat is a panchayat established for a transitional area, i.e. from rural to urban. Although it

is difficult to determine what is transition, some factors which help in determining this are density of population in that area, its economic importance and revenue generated. There is a little variation from state to state in this respect. The number of members varies from nine to twenty, depending on the population of that area. This is prescribed by the government. It consists of elected members, nominated members and ex-officio members. The term of Nagar panchayat is for five years. If it is incompetent to perform, it can be dissolved.

However, the new elections should be held within six months. The functions of these panchayats are different in various states. The functions of Nagar Panchayats are:

- *Obligatory:* Water supply, street lighting, sanitation, health, scavenging of streets etc.

- Discretionary: Management of ghats, slum improvement and up gradation, urban poverty alleviation, etc. Main Aims of Panchayati Raj The main aim of the Panchayati Raj system is

- Democratic decentralization, rural development and rural self-government. Socio-economic development of rural India has been a major goal of this system. Panchayati Raj has been designed and drafted to encourage and educate the people of rural areas in meeting their needs. It inculcates the habit of democratic living and strengthens the foundations of Indian Democracy making villages self-governing and self-reliant units. The Panchayati Raj system secures a sense of self-confidence among the rural people. It acts as a system of democratic education and training and creates rural development by involving the rural community. Through local efforts, it satisfies local needs, promotes rural development, democratic living; provides political education and training.

According to the Indian Constitution, panchayats in their respective areas should prepare various plans for social justice and economic development and also execute them. For this, states devolve functions to panchayats in which 29 subjects are mandated and also make funds available for performing these (as per State Finance Commission's recommendations). The functions of panchayats are divided among different committees called Standing Committees, Sthayee Samitis or Upa Samitis. One of the members is in charge of each such committee whereas the over-all charge rests with the chairperson of the panchayat. Panchayats are supported by a host of other officials; the number varies from state to state.

Panchayats receive schematic funds for implementation of schemes like the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Generation Scheme(MGNREGS), Backward Regions Grant Fund (BRGF), Indira Awas Yojana (IAY), etc. Apart from grants received from the government under the recommendation of the Finance Commission, they can also increase their revenue by imposing fees, taxes, penalties etc. as perthe rule of the state.

Working of Panchayati Raj (1959–1992)

By 1959, most of the States had introduced Panchyati Raj System in their rural areas and adopted the recommendations of the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee and almost all the states adopted the three-tier system. Some states like Maharashtra decided to assign the development functions to the Zilla Parishads and not to the Panchayat Samitis whereas other states decided to assign these functions to Panchayat Samities. During 1959-92, the Panchayati Raj System worked hard to achieve its objectives but somehow, failed. There were several shortcomings in its functioning which prevented it from becoming a successful body. It failed to produce a qualitative change in the rural life of India. The reasons cited were, illiteracy, lack of funds, poverty, inexperienced representatives, groupism, corruption, government interferences, lack of continuity in the working of the Panchyati Raj institutions and lack of interest taken on the part of the rural people, which became responsible for the failure of Panchayati Raj.

SUMMARY

- Panchayati Raj Institutions are the units of local self-government that exist at the grass-root level. They have been accepted as tools of socio-economic transformation in rural India.
- The system of democratic decentralization is popularly known as Panchayati Raj. It is considered as an instrument which helps in ensuring democracy. It also helps transform socio-economic condition of a village/region.
- In 1993, the Government of India took a revolutionary step by making Panchayati Raj Institutions apart of the Constitution.
- The institution of Panchayati Raj is as old as Indian civilization itself. It has been controlling civil aswell as judicial matters of several Indian villages since ancient times.
- Self-governing village communities which are characterized by agrarian economies existed in Indiasince the earliest times.
- The political units — the Samiti and Sabha had the right to debate. It is a privilege that was unknown to the popular assemblies of other people of that era.
- Under the British rule, the Panchayats started slowly losing their self-governing character and the authority of the state had direct control over the British rulers.
- Lord Mayo, the Viceroy of India from 1869 to 1872, felt the need to decentralize powers to bring efficiency in administration. In the year 1870, he launched the system of elected representatives inurban municipalities.
- Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870 under the British Rule, is considered as a huge step in the history of evolution of local self-government.
- The Bengal Chowkidar Act of 1870 was an initiative to re-introduce the age-old tradition of village panchayati system in Bengal.

KEY TERMS

- **Gadgil Formula:** It refers to the block allocation given by the Centre to the States. The grant was30% and 70% was loan irrespective of schemes and priorities adopted by the States.
- **Procurement:** It refers to the act of obtaining something from someone. For e.g.: supplies for an army.
- **Panchayat:** A village council in India which consists of five members.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. In which year, were the Panchayati Raj Institutions made a part of the Constitution?
2. From which word is 'panchayat' derived?
3. The most important feature of the early Vedic polity was the institution of two popular assemblies. Name them.
4. What is the main aim of the Panchayati Raj System?

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Structure:

- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Reform of Panchayati Raj (73rd Amendment Act 1992)
- Voluntary Organizations
- Gandhian Era: Constructive Work
- Criteria for Identification of Voluntary Organizations
- Characteristics of Voluntary Organizations
- Role of Voluntary Organizations
- Role of the Government in Voluntary Efforts
- Summary
- Key Terms
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INTRODUCTION

India made a landmark change by introducing constitutional reform. Not only this, it introduced a major programme related to economic reform before the 1990s which was the first of its type. Some other countries that indulged in similar activity are Bolivia (1995) and Suharto (1998). But the condition in China is a little different as the local governments were given more say in economic matters than politics. South Africa was following undemocratic apartheid but slowly made the transition to democratic decentralization under a democratic constitution.

In some other countries (such as Pakistan), devolution represented an instrument for consolidation of power of a nondemocratic national government.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Understanding the Reform of Panchayati Raj (73rd Amendment Act 1992)
- Examine the Voluntary Organizations
- Examine the Gandhian Era: Constructive Work
- Criteria for Identification of Voluntary Organizations

REFORM OF PANCHAYATI RAJ (73RD AMENDMENT ACT 1992)

The Parliament passed the 73rd Amendment Act in 1992 in order to get rid of the defects of the Panchayati Raj. Its purpose was to strengthen and improve the Panchayati Raj. It made a good attempt to secure a more active, regular and efficient working of Panchayati Raj. On April 23, 1994 all the States of India completed enacting new laws for strengthening the Panchayati Raj System according to the rules laid down by the 73rd Amendment. Thereafter, an amended and reformed Panchayati Raj System came into existence and after the passing of the 73rd Amendment Act-1992, a reformed Panchayati Raj has come into force in all parts of India. The enforcement of the 73rd Act marked the beginning of an era. It granted a bigger power to the panchayats and other rural institutions. Thus, an important and strong drive towards the strengthening of its democratic development process in the rural areas of India got initiated. The 73rd Amendment Act made provisions for reservation to SC/STs in proportion to their populations; reservation of the posts of chairpersons for the SCs and STs is in state: Reservation of not less than one third of the elected seats in each panchayat for women and reservation of one third of the posts of chairpersons for rural women. It also directs elections of panchayats and chairpersons of panchayats. This act provides for the representation of MPs and MLAs in the Panchayati Raj institution.

Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 (or PESA Act, 1996)

The PESA Act, 1996 is regarded as a corrective legal measure to the 73rd Amendment (Panchayati Raj Act) in order to extend the provisions of the Panchayati Raj to the Scheduled and Tribal areas that fall under the Schedule Five areas of the nine States, viz., Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan. The PESA Act, 1996 came into force on December 24, 1996. It gave many radical governance powers to the tribal community and recognized its traditional community rights over local natural resources.

This Act not only accepts the validity of "customary law, religious and social practices, and traditional management practices of community resources", but also directs the state governments not to make any law which is inconsistent with these. The PESA Act accepts a clear cut role of the community as it gives wide ranging powers to *Gram Sabhas*, which had otherwise been denied by the lawmakers of the country. The State Governments were told to enact their legislation in accordance with the Provisions of the Act before the expiry of one year i.e. December 23, 1997.

Poor Implementation of the PESA Act, 1996

PESA was implemented to empower tribal people which will further help deepen grass-root democracy. The Act provided the tribal people with certain powers that will make it possible to govern themselves. But it still has some problems and the following solutions are needed:

- There is little awareness about the Gram Sabha being designated as a self-governing body or having legal jurisdiction over the natural resources and forests. There is no support mechanism for the Gram Sabhas to play any significant role.
- There is a clear indication that sincere implementation of PESA has not been seriously attempted by the state governments.
- There is an urgent need to amend the Indian Forest Act, Land Acquisition Act, and other related Acts so that the ownership on minor forest produce, water bodies and land resources are explicitly handed over to the Gram Sabhas of PESA areas.
- No State Government officer should have the power to over-rule any recommendation of a

Gram Sabha, because this legacy of British Raj is anti-democratic and must be abolished immediately.

- In order to sensitize the officers, an immediate extensive training-cum-awareness campaign for all relevant officials of various ministries should be initiated.
- The administrative structure and machinery should be provided for making the Gram Sabha an effective body of district administration.
- Special attention should be paid to the construction of culverts, bridges, check dams and compound walls for schools.
- All community resource-based schemes should involve Gram Sabhas in planning and implementation.

Achievements of Panchayati Raj Institutions

After the implementation of the 73rd Amendment Act, the following numbers of panchayats were constituted:

- Village level (2,32,378 panchayats)
- Intermediate level (6,022 panchayat)s
- District level (535 panchayats)

These Panchayats have 2.92 lakh representatives at all levels. This is the broadest representative base decentralization example that exists in any country of the world – developed or underdeveloped.

Issues in Implementation of the Panchayati Raj Act

Some problems like setting up of State Election Commission and State Finance Commissions holding regular Panchayat elections and providing reservation for SCs/STs/Women in Panchayats are being faced under the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992.

- Although the political decentralization is clearly seen in the regular panchayat elections with a fairly good number of participation of people, the fiscal and administrative decentralization have remained somewhat limited. The State Governments still have failed their control on matters of local administration and finance.
- Panchayats only have limited functional autonomy because they have not been granted enough powers for revenue generation.
- Recommendations of State Finance Commissions (SFCs) are not taken seriously by panchayats.
- Powers dealing with all the matters relating to panchayat elections for example, delimitation of constituencies, finalization of electoral rolls, rotation of reserved seats in panchayats, etc. should be given to the panchayats.
- Gram Sabhas have not been empowered and strengthened to ensure greater people's participation and transparency in functioning of panchayats as mentioned in the Panchayat Act.

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS

In India, voluntary action, providing services to the sick, needy and destitute has a long historical record as old as the emergence of organized society. It is also a part of our cultural heritage and way of living. It started as pure philanthropy of charity and this motivation sustained the voluntary efforts all through history in the ancient and medieval period. These voluntary efforts have undergone evolutionary changes in the process of welfare and development.

Gandhian Era: Constructive Work

Mahatma Gandhi gave a new boost to voluntarism. He propagated national reconstruction on the basis of self-sufficient village. His model of society was based on values of non-violence, justice and freedom. Hestressed on decentralization of political authority to the Gram Panchayats (Village Councils) and reinforced the strength of voluntarism in the economic aspect of national life because he believed that India lives in villages. This guided him to concentrate his efforts on villages. His strong adherence to high social idealswith a practical approach inspired sincere and conscientious workers to follow him with a genuine sense of dedication towards voluntarism. Thus, Gandhiji, played a vital role in the process of networking of organizations and set forth the voluntary efforts and ushered in rural development in the country.

Gandhiji started his 'Voluntary Work' from 1922 to 1928 which entailed among others basic education, Charkha (spinning wheel), Khadi (hand woven cloth), Gramodyog (village industries) and removal of untouchability. Development of village crafts and village industries were his main thrusts. Gandhiji's 'Voluntary Work' became part of the mass national movement for political freedom and he insisted that political freedom must go hand in hand with a sense of social responsibility.

The fundamental principles of Gandhiji's Constructive Programme were: nonviolence, voluntariness and sharing, self-help and moral action, mutual aid, cooperation, decentralization and self-reliance. Inspired by Gandhiji's outstanding ideology, voluntary movement in India gained further momentum and a large number of organizations based on Gandhian Constructive Programmes bloomed in the Indian voluntary sector. Gandhiji founded a number of organizations, such as the Harijan Sevak Sangh, Hindustan Talim Sangh, Gramodyog Sangh and Adivasi Seva Mandals, to name a few. Many other specialized organizations like the All India Spinner's Association (1925) and All India Village Industries Association(1934) were active during this period. Gandhiji's call for people's participation at the grassroots level enabled voluntarism to penetrate into villages.

Criteria for Identification of Voluntary Organizations

The Seventh Plan Document (1985-90) of Planning Commission of India, while recognizing the role of voluntary organizations (VOs) in rural development programmes listed out eight criteria for identification ofVOs. It stated that the organizations should have a legal status and objectives serving the social and economic needs of the weaker sections of the society. The organization must not work for profits but on a 'no profit, no loss' basis. The activities of the organization should be open to all the citizens of India irrespective of caste, creed, sex, religion or race. It should have skills like organizing, professional competence and necessary flexibility to implement programmes. The office bearers of the organization should not be elected members of any political party and should follow secular and democratic concepts and methods of functioning. It should adopt constitutional and non-violent means for development of rural people.

Characteristics of Voluntary Organizations

The distinct characteristics of VOs which make them different from other organizations are: VOs are introduced by individuals or group of individuals for the welfare and developmental activities for the downtrodden sections of the society. They do not have any external control and are self-governing organizations and decide their own constitution and the system of governance. The members work on voluntary basis and they are non-statutory self-governing organizations. The work of VOs and their activities are focused on issues and people beyond their own staff and membership. They implement their own policies and programmes with their own voluntary or paid workers. They are autonomous

and flexible in the planning and management of their programmes. They are neither formed nor run for profit making and have a non-formal style of functioning. They have a managing committee that is elected or nominated by the members. They have motivated leadership and a sense of commitment and dedication. They mobilize some of their financial and other resources from the society and other voluntary sources. They get themselves registered legally under an appropriate Act.

Role of Voluntary Organizations

Voluntary organizations perform the key role of delivery of services to the deprived and under-privileged people of the society. Another important role of VOs is like that of a 'watchdog' which is more fundamental. They need to keep eye on issues, such as misuse of governmental authority, social injustices and inefficiency of public administration. The third major role of VOs is helping the government agencies for implementation of their programmes.

The Seventh Five Year Plan Document had identified the role of voluntary agencies in the implementation of developmental programmes like supplementing the government's efforts in offering the rural poor choices and alternatives; to be the eyes and ears of the people at the village level and reach a larger population group with greater community participation by adopting simple, innovative, flexible and inexpensive means with its limited resources and less overheads. To activate the delivery system and to make it effective at the village level and respond to the needs of the poorest of the poor; to gather and spread information, to make society as self-reliant as possible, to show how village and indigenous resources, skills and local knowledge can be used for the development of society; to train a cadre of grass-root workers who believe in professionalizing volunteerism and to help communities stand on their own feet.

Role of the Government in Voluntary Efforts

State as a Regulator

The government enacts a variety of regulatory mechanisms through its organizations and agencies as well as through laws and legislations.

Three types of legislations directly affect VOs in India

  (a) Laws of Registration or Incorporation
  (b) Legislation Relating to Finance: Income Tax Act (1961)
  (c) Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Act, 1976

State as Funder (Government Funding)

The state has played the role of funder to VOs. Since 1953, grants-in-aid provide government funds to VOs. The idea was to create a favourable environment to promote voluntarism. This happened because of appropriate legislations and simplification of official produces for the registration and public accountability of VOs. The government provided information provision and consultation on all matters affecting the work of VOs.

Some voluntary organizations in India

Many voluntary organisations are working in for socio-economic development of rural people and for promotion and dissemination of art, culture and sports. Some of the cultural organizations like Kalakar, Angul Sahitya Sansad, Natyam, Baishnabi Kalaniketan, Sangeet Sangeet, Sanskruti strive to promote performing arts, foster and coordinate literary activities .The Rotary International and the Lions have their branches in many districts.

SUMMARY

- The Government of India Act (1935) is considered as an important stage in the evolution of panchayats in British India.
- The aim of the British rulers was not to decentralize democracy, but to facilitate colonial administration. The Freedom Movement was concerned more with swaraj for the country than with *Gram Swaraj.*
- The burden of strengthening the Panchayati Raj system was on the Indian government formed after Independence. India, which is a country of villages, had to strengthen village panchayats to strengthen democracy.
- Rajiv Gandhi, the then Prime Minister of India introduced the 64th Amendment bill on local government on May 15, 1989, but it failed to get the required support.
- In September 1991, a bill on Panchayati Raj was again introduced by the Congress government under the Prime Minister, P.V. Narasimha Rao. It was passed in1992 as the 73rd Amendment Act with minor modifications and came into force on April 24, 1993.
- The 73rd Amendment Act provided for the establishment of Gram Sabha in each village.
- Though the basic structure of the Panchayati Raj Institutions is identical in the states of India, it is having different nomenclatures in various states.
- The Panchayat is considered to have two kinds of functions: Mandatory and Discretionary.
- The main aim of the Panchayati Raj system is democratic decentralization, rural development and rural self-government.
- According to the Indian Constitution, panchayats in their respective areas should prepare various plans for social justice and economic development and also execute them.
- By 1959, most of the States had introduced Panchyati Raj System in their rural areas and adoptedthe recommendations of Balwant Rai Mehta Committeeand almost all the states adopted the three- tier system.
- The Parliament passed the 73rd Amendment Act in 1992 to get rid of the defects of the PanchayatiRaj. It made a good attempt to secure a more active, regular and efficient working of the PanchayatiRaj.

KEY TERMS

- **Procurement:** It refers to the act of obtaining something from someone. For e.g.: supplies for an army.
- **Panchayat:** A village council in India which consists of five members.
- **Five Year Plans:** It is a policy adopted by some countries for the development of the country economically and industrially, which specifies the goals to be reached in five years.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Give a detailed account of the problems faced by the Panchayati Raj institutions.

2. Discuss the evolution of decentralized planning.

3. Give a history of the Panchayati Raj System in the pre British rule

4. Explain the major functions of Panchayati Raj institutions in india.

5. How do the cooperative and specialized agencies help in the decentralized process in rural areas?

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Block-3

CITIZEN'S PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT

Unit-9: Cooperative and Specialized Agencies

Unit-10: Citizen's Participation and People's Empowerment

Unit-11: Women Empowerment

Unit-12: Welfare Administration of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

UNIT-9: Cooperative and Specialized Agencies

Structure:

- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Cooperative and Specialized Agencies
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

Decentralization affects governance, particularly political competition. It improves public accountability, and reduces political instability. It imposes incentive-compatible limits on government power but also threatens fiscal sustainability. It has also become easier than before because of technological changes and provides public services relatively more efficiently. Also, the lower levels of government have a much better ability to handle certain risks. Decentralization or devolution is also regarded as a way of diffusing political and social tensions and ensuring political and local cultural autonomy in a world of rampant separatists' movement and ethnic conflicts.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Assess the importance of cooperative and specialized agencies in India.
- Discuss the role of voluntary organizations in decentralized planning

COOPERATIVE AND SPECIALIZED AGENCIES

As the meaning of cooperation says 'each for all and all for each', a cooperative society is based on the principle that small savings from people is collected, through a society to raise funds and help the needy by giving them loans. A cooperative is quite different from a business organization because of one fundamental respect, i.e. even though they work on the principles of business; their motive is service to the people. Hence a cooperative is a socio-economic organization. The cooperative movement has bought great benefits to the people.

A cooperative organization is a voluntary organization which is established by some people on the basis of cooperation and equality to safeguard their common interests. Some of the definitions by experts and scholars are as follows:

According to Prof. P.H. Calvert, '*Cooperation is a form of organization, wherein persons voluntarily associate together as human beings on the basis of equality for the promotion of economic interests of themselves.*'

According to International Labour Organization, *'A cooperative society is an association of persons usually of limited means who have voluntarily joined together to achieve a common economic end through the formation of democratically controlled business organization, making equitable contributions to the capital required and accepting a fair share of risks and benefits of the undertaking.'*

Hence, from the above definitions we can make out that cooperative organization is a kind of business organization which is formed voluntarily by the people in the same level, for the purpose of promoting their common interests.

Kinds of cooperative organizations

- Consumer cooperatives
- Credit cooperatives
- Producers' cooperatives
- ☐ Marketing cooperatives
- ☐ Housing cooperatives

Characteristics of cooperative organizations

- **Voluntary association:** It is a voluntary association of persons and no individual can be compelledto be a member of a cooperative organization.
- **Equality in voting rights:** The principle of "one person one vote" applies here as well and every member of the society has the right to cast his vote.
- **Service Motive:** The main intention is to give maximum help to the members.

- **Management is democratic:** The job of a manager is performed by the members in a democraticmanner.
- **Cash trading:** Cooperative organizations prefer trading in cash because of lack of financial resources but there is no legal restriction as such.
- **Registration is compulsory:** No association can be called as "cooperative" if it is not registered under The Cooperative Societies Act, 1912 or under the State Cooperative Societies Act.
- **Separate legal Entity:** After registration the society legally becomes a cooperative society withreference to its members. It can:
  - o Hold assets
  - o Can sue other party
  - o Enter into a contract
  - o Can be sued by the other party

Benefits of cooperative organizations

As cooperative organizations have a social motive, they have helped in various economic and social benefits of the country like equitable distribution of wealth and income, service to relatively the weaker sections of the society like farmers, etc. It provides protection to the consumers against monopolies and other forms of centralized combinations; it helps in increasing the purchasing power and wages of its members by providing good quality and cheap goods.

Co-operative Societies

These are some co-operatives which can be bifurcated into centre and state level cooperatives.

National level

Indian Farmers Fertilizer Co-operative Limited (IFFCO)

During mid-sixties, the Co-operative sector in India was responsible for distribution of 70 per cent of fertilizers consumed in the country. This Sector had adequate infrastructure but was without production facilities of its own. So it depended on public/private sectors for supplies. To overcome this problem, a new cooperative society was introduced to cater to only the requirements of farmers. This was a unique venture as farmers created their own cooperative societies with a motive to safeguard their interests. This was called IFFCO and the cooperative societies registered with IFFCO from 1567 till date has gone from 57 to 39,874. Activities of promotion, distribution and sales are done by Marketing Control Office at New Delhi. Has also promoted institutions like:

- Indian Farm Forestry Development Cooperative Limited (IFFDC)
- Kisan Seva Trust
- Cooperative Rural Development Trust (CORDET)

National Cooperative Development Corporation-NCDC

It helps in planning, promoting and financing programmes for production, processing, marketing, storage, supply of consumer goods and collection, processing, marketing, storage and export of minor forest produce through cooperatives, export and import of agricultural produce, food stuffs, certain other notified commodities
e.g. fertilizers, agricultural machinery, insecticides, lac, soap, textile, rubber, kerosene oil and many other things. It also engages itself into income generating stream of activities like poultry, sericulture, handloom, dairy, fishery, etc.

NCDC Act has been further amended which covers the area of operation of the Corporation to assist different types of cooperatives with a motive to expand its financial base as well. NCDC also finances projects in the rural industrial cooperative societies and for certain beneficial services in rural areas for example, irrigation, agro-insurance, agro-credit, rural sanitation, animal health, water conservation, microirrigation, etc.

NCDC has in-house technical and managerial capabilities in the areas of:

- Cooperation
- Financial Management
- Costing
- Organization & Methods
- Economic Analysis
- Management Information Systems/Feasibility Studies
- Civil Engineering
- Refrigeration and preservation
- Sugar, oilseeds, textiles, fruits, vegetables, food
- Dairy, poultry, livestock, fishery
- Handlooms technologies to help cooperatives to create projects and successfully implement them.

NCDC assistance is meant actually for institutional development of cooperatives and is not at all for only individual's benefit. NCDC helps and adds to the efforts of State Government. The State Governments recommend the project proposal of individual society to NCDC in the prescribed schematic format, which the society may also avail direct funding of projects under various schemes of assistance on fulfillment of the conditions which are stipulated. The proposal is examined in the concerned functional division of the institution and if needed it is sent for on the spot field appraisal.

Thereafter, formal sanction of funds is informed to the Society or the concerned State Government. The release of funds directly depends on the progress of its implementation. The project is on reimbursement basis. The period of repayment of loan ranges from 3 to 8 years. The rate of interest also varies from time to time.

Activities Funded by NCDC

Marketing, processing, cooperative storage, distribution of essential articles through cooperatives, industrial cooperatives, service cooperatives, agricultural services, district plan schemes, cooperatives for weaker sections, assistance for computerization, promotional and developmental programmes and consultancy services.

Few assisted Successful Cooperatives
Agricultural Inputs
- The Regional Agro-Industrial Development Cooperative Ltd., Kannur, Kerala.

Computerization
- JawaharShetkariSahakariSakharKarkhana Ltd., Shri Kallappana Awaede Naga Kolhapur, Maharashtra.
- ShetkariSahakariSangh Ltd., Old Palace, Kolhapur, Maharashtra.

Fisheries
- Kerala State Coop. Federation for Fisheries Development Ltd., Karuvankonam, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala.
- Karanja Machhimar Vividh Karyakari Sahakari Sanstha Ltd., Karanja, Maharashtra
- Arnala Machhimar Vividh Karyakari Sahakari Sanstha Ltd., Arnala, Thane District, Maharashtra

Handlooms
- Tamil Nadu Handloom Weavers' Coop. Society Ltd., Egmore, Chennai.

Spinning Mills
- Shetkari Sahakari Soot Girni Ltd., Distt. Sholapur, Maharashtra.
- Gujarat State Coop. Cotton Fedn. Ltd. Ahmedabad.

Sugar Mills
- The Shahabad Cooperative Sugar Mills Ltd., Kurukshetra, Haryana.

Cold Storage, Fruits & Vegetable
- HOPCOMS, Lalbagh, Bangalore
- MAHAGRAPES, Pune, Maharashtra
- Lahoul Potato Growers Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Manali (LPS), Himachal Pradesh
- The Himachal Pradesh Cooperative Marketing and Consumers' Federation Ltd., (HIMFED), Shimla
- Regional Fruits and Vegetables Producers Coop. Society Ltd., (VEGCO), Thaliparamba, KeralaNAFED, New Delhi
- Rau Cooperative Cold Storage, Distt. Indore, Madhya Pradesh.
- Uttar 24 Parganas Krishi Samabya Himghar Samity Ltd., Distt. 24 Parganas, West Bengal.
- Mahua Cooperative Cold Storage Ltd. Distt-Vaishali, Bihar

The National Cooperative Housing Federation of India (NCHF)

It is the nationwide organization of the Indian Cooperative Housing Movement. It was founded by the apex cooperative housing federations in the month of September, 1969. This was established so as to have an organization at the national level to assume the responsibility of developing, promoting and coordinating the activities of housing cooperatives in the country. Since then, NCHF has taken a number of measures for the organization and development of housing cooperatives throughout the country and has been able to promote 20 Apex Cooperative Housing Federations, raising their number from earlier 6 to 26. All these 20 federations are members of NCHF. There are about 30,000 cooperatives which are members of Apex Cooperative Housing Federations and are primary housing cooperatives. It helps the housing cooperatives on legal, management, financial and other professional matters apart from extending the academic support and other necessary help to its member federations for improving their financial, organizational and technical base. Also, it is undertaking research studies, organizing conferences, seminars, workshops, training programmes, etc. and bringing out various publications and providing guidance on various aspects of cooperative housing. It also provide guidance to housing cooperatives on general insurance for the covering their properties against various disasters at reasonable premium.

National Cooperative Dairy Federation of India Limited (NCDFI)

It is centered at Anand (Gujarat), is the apex organization for the cooperative dairy sector. Its members encompasses of dairy cooperatives of States and the Union Territories. The main aim of NCDFI is to enhance the working of dairy cooperatives by coordination, networking and advocacy.

The main work of NCDFI includes:

- Coordinating sale of milk and milk products to its members, to the Ministry of Defence and also other para military organizations.
- Marketing of frozen semen doses produced by Animal Breeding Centre and Sabarmati Ashram Gaushala.

This cooperative federal society was established in the year 1970 as a national level apex organization. Now it has been reconstructed with its member apex co-operatives at the state levels through affiliation. The NCDFI as an organization thus, provides the basic institutional framework for better co-ordination, monitors and guides and also gives adequate direction to the state federations to ensure a stronger co- operative system of milk marketing in the country. The NCDFI is at the apex of all the state dairy federations throughout the country. It has been entrusted with the management of the NMG activities as well. For the facilitation of the operations of the NMG, there are four regional programming committees which have been established by the NCDFI, and have the rule of meeting periodically in their respective regions. These committees provide a platform for the participating federations to transact business and share each other's experiences in the management of milk procurement, handling and marketing. The activities of the four programming committees are coordinated by a central programming committee.

Even at the profit-sharing level, the distribution is made in proportion to the volume of business contributed by each member; therefore, bonuses etc. are determined from the value of the commodity supplied by the members. This in turn ensures that while the co-operative does business, it also makes its members quality conscious.

State level Cooperatives

COIRFED

The Kerala State Co-operative Coir Marketing Federation (Coirfed) is engaged in the manufacture of coir and coir products. It offers sustenance to workers who are mostly women to sustain a living. Its member societies provide employment at a higher rate, better wages and better living conditions to the coir workers by eliminating middlemen. Presently there are 628 coir primaries which are affiliated to Coirfed.

Coirfed has a wide range of 47 showrooms with more than 100 retail outlets to sell the materials produced by the member societies of this organization. The job of taking the produce of the member societies is done by four regional offices and one central store. Coirfed has set up a number for factories with best possible infrastructure for the manufacturing of Coir fiber, rubberized coir products, rubber backed coir products, and PVC tufted mats and Pith briquette.

This organization has made great efforts to sell the materials to with the motive of serving a noble cause of providing sustenance to around 4 lakh coir workers. Most of the workers are women. Approximately, around 20 Lakh people are supported by this industry.

Its range includes somewhere 80 odd varieties of coir like coir pith fungus, coir pith soil conditioner etc. The products of Coirfed are marketed under the following brands:

- Cocofert
- Cocogeofabric
- Deepsleep
- Cocoplus
- Dustout

It faces neck to neck competition with other natural fibers as well as synthetic materials. Presently, Coirfed is making efforts to expand and reach the goal of ecofriendly and bio-degradable Coir products through the help and assistance by all good citizens who have care for nature and of course mankind.

Coirfed is helping in implementing many of the schemes of the Government of Kerala like

- Distress purchase scheme
- Price fluctuation fund,
- Fiber subsidy scheme,
- Purchase price stabilization scheme etc.

Gujarat State Federation of Co-operative Sugar Factories Limited

It was registered in 1960, at Ahmedabad, as facilitator of Sugar Co-operatives with the objective of coordinating the undertakings of diverse Co-operative Sugar factories and to provide technical support and guidance for the expansion, renovation and modernization of the existing units and to assist the units in programming funds from the financial institutions and government bodies. The federation encourages the research work for better quality of Sugarcane crop and helps in its good production. It also provides technical and professional training to the farmers to improve their field and acts as an important interface between Co-operative Sugar factories and the government bodies.

Kerala State Cooperative Bank

During 1914, the Maharaja of Travancore, Moolam Thirunal Ramavarma, by his decree introduced the Travancore Cooperative Societies Regulation Act. According to this Act, it was regarded as the first cooperative society i.e. The Trivandrum Central Cooperative Bank which was listed in the year 1915. It was operative on 18th January 1916. It was converted into *'Travancore Central Cooperative Bank'* in 1943. In 1956 it became The Kerala State Cooperative Bank Ltd. It was brought under the control of the apex bank of the country i.e. Reserve Bank of India (RBI) on 1st March 1966. Presently, 14 District Cooperative Banks in the State and the *Government of Kerala* are its members. Under RBI, it is recognized as Scheduled State Cooperative Bank. At present it has also set an example for cooperative

banking structure in the country.

SUMMARY

- The PESA Act, 1996 is regarded as a corrective legal measure to the 73rd Amendment (Panchayati Raj Act) in order to extend the provisions of the Panchayati Raj to the Scheduled and Tribal areas that fall under the Schedule Five areas of the nine States.
- After the implementation of the 73rd Amendment Act, the following numbers of Panchayats were constituted:
  - Village level- 2,32,378 panchayats
  - Intermediate level- 6,022 panchayats
  - District level- 535 panchayats.
- Mahatma Gandhi gave a new boost to voluntarism. He propagated national reconstruction on the basis of self-sufficient village.
- Gandhiji started his 'Voluntary Work' from 1922 to 1928 which entailed among others basic education, Charkha (spinning wheel), Khadi (hand woven cloth), Gramodyog (village industries), removal of untouchability etc.
- The Seventh Plan Document (1985-90) of the Planning Commission of India, while recognizing the role of VOs in rural development programmes, listed out eight criteria for identification of the voluntary organizations.
- The distinct characteristics of voluntary organizations which make them different from other organizations are: VOs are introduced by individuals or groups of individuals for the welfare and developmental activities for the downtrodden sections of the society.
- A cooperative organization is a voluntary organization, which is established by some people on the basis of cooperation and equality, to safeguard their common interests.
- The National Cooperative Housing Federation of India is the nationwide organization of the Indian Cooperative Housing Movement. It was founded by the apex cooperative housing federations in the month of September, 1969.

KEY TERMS

- **Constituent Assembly:** A body responsible for making the Constitution of a country. It is a set or an assembly of people that may even be in the form of a convention for the purpose of making the constitution of a country.
- **Voluntarism:** The principle of relying on action which is voluntary or without force. It is usually to refer the involvement of voluntary organizations with a motive of social welfare social welfare.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Write a brief note on the Community Development Planning phase.
2. What do you know about the Mayo Resolution of 1870?
3. Why is Lord Ripon regarded as the father of local self-government in india?
4. What are the criteria for identification of Voluntary Organizations?

5. What is the key role of Voluntary Organizations?

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UNIT-10: Citizen's Participation and People's Empowerment

Structure:

- Introduction

- Unit Objectives

- Citizen's Participation and People's Empowerment

- Citizen and Administration

- Citizen and Administration in India

- Citizens' Grievances in the Various Spheres of Administration

- Right to Information

- Summary

- Key Terms

- Questions and Exercises

- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we will discuss the concept of citizen participation in administration and development of the nation. Over the years, democracy has become delegative. People have left it for the elected representatives and officials to govern. Citizens are missing from governance and administration. Democracy has become more representative than participatory. Citizen participation in governance becomes most apparent during elections. Between elections, there are a few institutional channels of citizen participation in issues of governance.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the various aspects of citizen's participation in the administration and developmentof India.
- Analysis the Citizen and Administration in India

- Examine the Citizens' Grievances in the Various Spheres of Administration

- Analysis the Right to Information

CITIZEN'S PARTICIPATION AND PEOPLE'S EMPOWERMENT

The concept of citizen participation in administration along with the need and desirability of

participation of the masses in the political process of society has been widely proclaimed by many writers. Most of them proclaimed that citizen's involvement may be used both for support by an agency and as a control device by the lawmaker. Participation has both a broad as well as a narrow connotation. In a broad sense, it implies giving every citizen an opportunity to actively participate in constructive public work, besides the franchise, in a democracy. In a narrow sense, participation would refer to a specific action by which the citizen registers his involvement in public affairs to achieve a particular objective.

The process of participation may be direct or indirect and formal or informal in nature. It may also be political, social or administrative in nature. The effectiveness of mobilized or institutionalized citizen participation in public administration mainly depends on the following three factors:

- The degree of seriousness the participant body asserts itself
- Whether public administration delegates certain functions to that body
- Whether public administration consults the body

Citizen's participation in administration may take many forms. It refers to all those activities which show the citizen's involvement in the process of administration, that is, participation in public formulation and programme planning as well as implementation and evaluation of policies and programmes meant for development of particular target groups. In developing societies, the traditional definition of citizen's participation often becomes irrelevant due to the lack of time, initiatives and resources of the citizen who fails to show the necessary enthusiasm or cooperation towards governmental programme meant for his benefit. Therefore, in these countries, participatory activities by the citizens have to be solicited by the government. The state not only plays the key role in its attempts at socio-economic transformation and modernization, but also in promoting what is called institutional participation.

Citizen participation demands certain preconditions. Of these, perhaps, the most important are enlightened political leaders, conscientious civil servants and an informed and cooperative general public. Knowledge of mutual problems and difficulties on the part of both officials and citizens is a vital input for successful participation.

Citizen and Administration

The main aim of government in a civilized, and more specifically, in a democratic setup has been the happiness, contentment and general welfare of the people who are governed by it. In fact, the strength and tenure of a government depends upon the prosperity of the people, and the security and stability of democracy are determined by their satisfaction. In almost all political systems, there has always been the crucial problem of the average citizen at the cutting edge of administration, being absolutely deprived of the services and treatment to which he is entitled. It is more or less known to all that one of the gravest problems in public administration is how to make the official at the bottom-most level of administrative hierarchy responsive, honest, sympathetic and courteous in his dealings with citizens and how to enforce such a responsible attitude on his part.

Mismanagement and corruption seem to have their roots in the colonial system of state and bureaucracy rather than their natural evolution through a process of the citizens' demands for 'accountability'. Efficient governance ensures that corruption is minimized, the views of

minorities are taken into account and voices of the most vulnerable in the society are heard during decision- making. It is also responsive to the present and future needs of the society. Such governance is articulated by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in term of the following eight fundamental characteristics:

- Participatory
- Accountable
- Responsive
- Equitable and inclusive
- Consensus-oriented
- Transparent
- Effective and efficient
- Follows the rule of law

Citizen and administration are so closely related to each other that the existence of one without the other is almost inconceivable in a civilized society. This harmonious relationship depends upon the sincerity, earnestness and cooperation between the two. To quote Professor W.A. Robson—

'The achievement of good relations between the government and the public is a matter which does not by any means depend solely on the conduct of civil servants and politicians. It depends equally on the attitude of citizens, groups, corporations, associations of all kinds and, indeed of all unofficial bodies to public authorities. If we want public servants to behave well towards us, we must behave well towards them.'

Thus, with this definition, Robson tries to make clear that every citizen of the nation tends normally to assume that public administrators for their part will always behave in a better manner. However, whenever the civil servants and politicians are constantly held in low esteem, if criticism and abuse is poured continuously on them and loose and unconstructive allegations are made about their incompetence, laziness, dishonesty and indifference to the public interests, officials will fail to develop or display qualities of industry, integrity and public spirit.

On the contrary, if the relation between the citizens and administration is healthy, it may bring about the following changes:

- Encouragement
- Supplement
- Respect
- Less chance of social unrest
- Accelerated development
- Strength
- Goodwill

Encouragement

A good relationship between the citizens and administration encourage people's participationin the administrative process—*a sine qua non* for modernization and development.

Accelerated development

Citizens and administration, with their healthy relationship, kindle the potential energy of citizens into kinetic energy to accelerate development.

Supplement

A good understanding between an administration and citizens supplement the efforts of the government in conducting its affairs.

Strength

A healthy link between administration and citizens strengthen the values of democracy in the minds and spirit of people.

Respect

Citizens and administration, with their healthy relationship, enlist respect in the Constitution that is rooted in popular sovereignty.

Goodwill

A good understanding between an administration and the citizens enhances the feeling of friendship and goodwill.

Less chance of social unrest

With a healthy relationship between the citizens and administration, one can easily avoid social unrests such as violence, tension and other social upheavals, which have become the order of the day.

Thus, administration should never be viewed as something alienated from people and their needs. It should rather be regarded to be the means by which these needs are met. The administrator, who thinks of his organization as something apart from the society, is not likely to recognize significant problems of the citizens of that society.

The Administrative Reform Commission (ARC) has also observed in this context:

'If, in the prosperity of the people, lies the strength of a government, it is in their contentment that lies the security and stability of democracy'.

Citizen and Administration in India

The degree and extent of citizen's participation in the administration of developing countries like India is greatly conditioned by the basic nature and operational peculiarities of administration during the colonial period, when maintenance of law and order as well as revenue raising were the prime considerations of administration. The administrative functions were then, to a great extent, autonomous and unaccountable to the public. Citizen participation neither existed nor was solicited by the government. In the authoritarian and egalitarian political and administrative culture in which the colonial administration functioned, the benefits of administration accrued mostly to the upper and the privileged classes of society. In terms of the method of operation, administration was essentially coercive, procedural and formal.

After independence, with the adoption of the goals of a social welfare state, the key responsibility for rapid socio-economic progress and modernization was undertaken by the state which sought to implement them with the help of public bureaucracy. With the beginning of the process of planned development in India, the administrators and planners have repeatedly stressed the need to involve the masses and solicit their cooperation in the tremendous challenge of development administration. To shake free the energy of the masses that had hitherto been only passive recipients, the government sought to create an institutional infrastructure to promote popular participation. Panchayati Raj and Community Development Programmes were introduced mainly to solicit popular participation in the development administration of the government. The community development programme was a method of soliciting community participation to assist the government authorities in improving the social, economic and cultural life of people in the rural areas. Panchayati Raj was introduced to

bring the concept of democratic decentralization and devolution of real power and responsibility to the local masses for development of rural areas. The needs for citizen participation in the plan formulation and implementation process have also been repeatedly stated in the objectives of India's Five Year Plans, the recurring theme of which is to bring about social, economic and political development of Indian masses with active participation and involvement of the masses themselves in the development programmes. However, with time, the entire scenario started degrading. A retired IAS officer of India, Mr. P.S. Appu, perceives that the All India Services in India functioned very well for two and a half decades after India's independence. The debasement and decline of civil services in India started around 1973–1974 at the centre. With the extra parliamentary mass movement in the politics of independent India along with the rising temperature of the increasing intensity of inter-party competition, simultaneously the bureaucratic degeneration in India began. It is pointed out that perhaps the most serious decline in administrative morale occurred during the National Emergency imposed by the then Prime Minister, Indira Gandhi, in 1975–1977, when she made a call for 'committed bureaucracy' to the ideology of the party in power, which, under the circumstances, seemed to undermine bureaucratic neutrality and commitment to constitutional values. Later, in the 1990s, politico-bureaucratic corruption and criminalization of the political process reached an alarming height. P.S. Appu described the entire situation in the following words:

'All over the country, chief ministers became prisoners in the hands of conflicting political parties and groups. To survive in office, they were obliged to placate numerous petty politicians. The new breed of ministers with tenuous tenures was ever on the lookout for pliable bureaucrats. There was no shortage of unprincipled opportunists in the bureaucracy. Before long a large number of civil servants aligned themselves with particular ministers and became active collaborators leading to disastrous consequence.'

He, however, establishes his faith in the rejuvenation and retention of All India Services for three important reasons. First, even in their weakened state, the All India Services have offered some resistance to the arbitrary actions of cynical politicians. Second, the experience of the Gujarat Riots of 2002 reminds us the neutrality of the police force where the superintendents of police in Kutch, Bhavnagar, Banaskantha and Bharuch took firm action against the Hindu fanatics. Third, the president and the Supreme Court being distant authorities tend to allow millions of citizen to have the privileges defined under the constitution.

The problem of bureaucratic corruption today has become so pervasive and the failure of administrative vigilance so markedly prominent that only judicial activism on this front appears to solve the problems to some extent. The Government of India, in the year 1993, established a committee at the administrative level headed by the then Home Secretary, N.N. Vohra, to pick all information that was available regarding the actions and activities of crime syndicate organizations, which had developed links with and were being protected by government functionaries and political personalities. The report submitted in October 1993 stated the following:

'CBI has reported that all over India crime syndicates have become a law unto themselves. Even in rural areas and smaller towns of India, highly strongest men have become the power of the day. Hired assassins have become a part of these organizations. The nexus between the criminal gangs, police, bureaucracy and politicians have emerged clearly in various parts of the country. The existing criminal justice system, which was essentially designed to deal with the individual offences/crimes, is unable to deal with the

activities of the mafia: the provision of law in regard to economic offences is weak; there are insurmountable legal difficulties in attaching the property acquired through illegal activities.'

On the level of corruption, India was ranked 73rd by the Corruption Perception Index 2002 of Transparency International, Berlin. To quote N. Vittal, a former Central Vigilance Commissioner: 'There is a close relationship between the bureaucracies, the political leadership, the citizens, the business communities and perhaps even the criminals ...Trying to eliminate corruption in one sector of bureaucracy alone is not going to be effective. After all, tackling corruption is likean epidemic. It is not possible to quarantine one section alone.'

Jayprakash Narayan, who led a massive anti-corruption and anti-authoritarian extra-parliamentary mass movement in the first half of the 1970s, describes politics as the river of corruption in India. He stated that—

'The Herculean cleansing of the Augean stables of politics must take place at the source. A neo- feudal rent-seeking political and administrative class in India for transfers and postings still survives the dismantling of the Permit-License Quota Raj even in the new millennium. It is an anachronism that must go.'

The naked publicization of bureaucratic corruption has resulted in a distressing decline of the public image of bureaucracy. The National Election Study (NES), 1996, conducted by the Centre for the Study of Developing Societies, has shown that the police and civil bureaucracy ranked at the lowest two positions in an index of popular trust in institutions. Out of a maximum score of 100, bureaucracy secured 27 and the police 28, trailing far behind the Election Commission of India and the judiciary.

Based on an extensive field survey, well-known authors Eldersveld, Jagannadham and Barnabas came out with the following research findings on citizen and administration relation:

'The attitude of Indian citizens towards their government and its administrative officials particularly, is a complex and paradoxical mosaic of support and hostility, of consensus and critique. From 75 per cent to 90 per cent view governmental job as prestigious, 90 per cent feel that health and community development programmes are worthwhile, and less than 50 per cent (20 per cent rural) are critical of the job performance of Central Government officials. On the other hand, the majority feel that 50 per cent or more of the officials are corrupt, large proportions (60 per cent urban and 32 per cent rural) say their dealings with officials are unsatisfactory, and the majority sense that their probabilities of gaining access to officials and being successful in processing their complaints with them are low. Over 50 per cent feel officials in certain agencies are not fair, that the citizen can do little by himself, and from 60 per cent to 75 per cent feel that political pull is important in getting administration action.'

Other studies reveal various reasons for general mistrust and lack of faith of citizens in administration. The reasons for this are:

- corruption and unhelpful attitude of the bureaucrats
- inordinate delay in getting the wheels of the administrative machinery in motion
- citizen's ignorance about procedure and formal rule
- discrimination between th e r ic h and th e p oo r , th e r ich h aving easy access to administration, and the general tendency of officials to underplay the needs and interestsof the poor

The National Commission to Review the Working of the Constitution (NCRWC) 2002 made a number of recommendations for administrative changes with a view to minimize corruption in its report. It recommends legally instituted accountability of public servants for their mala fide acts of omissions and commissions as well as their liability to pay damages. Again, it also suggests plugging the loopholes in anti-corruption laws like Benami Transactions (Prohibition) Act 1988, and the Prevention of Corruption Act 1988. Further, it proposes the establishment of Lokpals and Lokayuktas under the Constitution and State Legislation respectively. Besides, to ensure transparency in administration, the NCRWC report recommends the passing of a Right to Information Act. Under this Act, the government must assume a major responsibility and mobilize skills to ensure flow of information to citizens.

Citizens' Grievances in the Various Spheres of Administration

The scope of citizens' grievances has considerably been large. It is true that bureaucratic corruption is principally visible within the ambit of citizens' grievance against the executive organs of government. However, it does not mean that this is the only element constituting corruption. In widest connotation, corruption includes improper or selfish exercises of influence and power attached to a public office or the special position one holds in public life. But apart from corruption, there is incompetence, indifference and insensitiveness on the part of public servants that can also become grossly harmful to the citizens.

Grievances of citizens can be of two types:
- General grievances
- Individual grievances

1. General grievances

General grievances are normally against the governmental acts and policies and may be common to any or all sections of the community. Shortage of baby food, rise in prices, overcrowding in transport services and late running of trains are some examples of general public grievances, which may find expression in widespread disturbances occurring from time to time.

2. Individual grievances

Individual grievances are those which the citizen, as individuals, may have against the executive organs of government. It includes both power wielding political leadership and the permanent services on account of any act or omission on their part which affects the citizens individually.

Due to development of the rule of law and the evolution of large career service, a basic change has been brought about in the public view of integrity of public servants. Citizens now tend to believe that public officials should, by no means, use their official position to avail any kind of financial or other advantages for themselves, their friends and families. Citizens today expect public servants to be honest, diligent, responsive, fair and competent in the discharge of their duties. These are some of the qualities which the Madhya Pradesh Administrative Reforms Commission, in its report, has described as 'integrity and capacity in administration'.

Therefore, citizens' grievances and their root lies in the gap between peoples' expectation regarding public official's attitude on one hand, and public official's actual attitude and behaviour on the other. Today, one finds a great deal of alienation between citizens and administration. The dissatisfaction of citizens with the administrative machinery has largely

grown in recent years. It is generally viewed that the administration has gradually failed to provide efficient and timely services.

Professor S.L. Goel, an expert in the subject of public administration, has discussed the nature of citizens' dissatisfaction in different sectors. In the initial phase of his study, he has taken up the administration of electricity. Ex-Chief Engineer of Haryana, M.M. Goel, has pointed out the main grievances of citizens regarding electricity administration in his doctoral thesis. These are as follows:

- Corruption amongst all officials
- Inordinate delay in transacting government business
- Unhelpful attitude on the part of officials
- Favouritism and nepotism in dealing with the public
- Delays caused by faulty procedures
- Lack of machinery for redressal of public grievances at the district level

- Delays caused by the lack of inter-departmental and intra-departmental coordination
- International delays
- Delays caused by excessive workload on government officials

Again, S.L. Goel has explained the nature of public grievances in hospital administration. He has observed that the faith of people in the efficiency of the hospital system is decreasing because of the utter negligence and indifference on the part of hospital authorities against citizens. The patients also complain of the preferential treatment being given to VIPs and influential people. Some of the patients were of the view that big hospitals are meant only to serve the VIPs. Some patients have complained that preferential treatment is given to friends and relatives of the hospital staff. Patients have also complained against the lack of coordination between supportive services and medical services. Most of the patients have complained that either their X-ray reports or the laboratory reports were totally non-available. Some have complained against the non-availability of medicines as well. In addition, in tracing patient's report and also in referring them to other departments, an unnecessary delay is created.

Moreover, there are numerous grievances of citizens in the sphere of police administration. In this context, it would perhaps not be irrelevant if we quote the observation of the National Police Commission Report 1979, which states that 'in public estimate, the police appear as an agency more to implement and enforce the objectives of the government in power as distinct from enforcing law as such as an independent and impartial agency.' The NPC categorically states—'the police sub-culture should take into account the fundamental rights of the people, the supremacy of laws and not of executive fiat, and our constitutional goal towards a developed and egalitarian society.' The NCP was aware of the public brutality and its cancerous corruption.

After having a look at citizen grievances in all the fields, one can easily decipher the principal problems faced by citizens, best illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Fig. 4.1 Problems Faced by Citizens

Now, let us make an attempt to find out the basic problems faced by the personnel in administration. These are as follows:

- Promises by political elites to provide services without matching resources, resultingin the dilution of the standard of services.
- Political interference, resulting in low morale and motivation among employees.
- Crisis in leadership, leading to organizational anarchy.
- Posting, promotion and transfer based on influence and not on merit, leading to gross inefficiency and mediocrity.

Thus, from this discussion, you find that the design of an administrative system is a basic aid to the achievement of its primary goals. Administration can provide the means, whereby the

most effective use can be made of the knowledge and skills of the personnel engaged in different activities. The benefits of modern science and technology can reach citizens only if such services are properly planned and effectively implemented. An approach based on modern science and technology is an important factor in bringing about administrative efficiency.

Besides, adequate resources should also be there to significantly expand governmental activities to maintain proper coordination between citizens and administration. In hospital administration, for instance, problems emanate from a number of constraints on hospital authorities, for example, shortage of staff at all levels, lack of space for accommodating an increasing number of patients, shortage of funds, shortage of equipments and medicines as well as continuous political and administrative interference. In order to provide satisfactory hospitals services, the government must attend to the above mentioned constraints. However, citizens also cannot run away from the responsibilities that lie on their part. This means that the patients and their relatives must cooperate with the hospital authorities to make the best use of available resources. In this way, not only will the citizen have a healthy relationship with the administration, the administration will run smoothly keeping in mind the citizens' welfare as well.

Right to Information

Information is the fundamental democratic right of any human being. Empowering the

public with full information is the fundamental duty of the government. The people then become the nation's greatest asset in implementing policies and programmes of our democratic developing polity. The Right to Information is mainly made up of different rights and responsibilities, namely:

- Every person's RIGHT to request information from the government and even private bodies in some cases
- The DUTY of the government to make available the information that is demanded, exceptdefined exceptions
- The DUTY of the government to disclose proactively the information that is of generalpublic interest without the need for requests from citizens

Status of Right to Information Act

The Right to Information has not been mentioned specially anywhere in the Constitution of India, but it has been recognized by the Supreme Court long back and has been considered as a fundamental right for the proper functioning of democracy in the country. In India, the Supreme Court has acknowledged the right to information as a vital part of the right to freedom of expression and speech guaranteed by the Constitution of India under Article 19 as well as an essential part of life under Article 21.

The right to information shows the reality that all the information possessed by the government belongs to the general masses. In other words, all governmental information is not supposed to be hidden or withheld by the government. Rather, it should be held by the peopleas most of the information is generated by public money and by public servants. One can have access to avail information regarding government decision-making process, policies, decisions and actions.

The right to information is not always absolute. There is certain information that may be withheld for security purposes. Leaking of such information may harm the interests of the public, for instance, information about army forces at the time of war or information about national economic policies prior to their publication. In all these cases, it is valid for government officials to keep such information concealed.

Utility of Right to Information

Right to information can be used by the people to take initiatives in making sure that the government provides them with services they are entitled to and the rights and benefits that are their due as the citizens of India.

The right to information applies to the whole country, across all states and Union territories (except Jammu & Kashmir). One can easily avail information of any state on any topic from the government of that particular state. For instance:

- Parents can ask for details of grants made to government-aided schools to ensure that funds are being spent properly. They can check that admissions are not being secured through bribes or that funds meant for education are not being diverted for other purposes.
- People holding ration cards can check the stocks and sales registers held by ration card dealers and the food department to make sure that they are getting proper amounts of rations and that rations are not being siphoned-off in their name.

- Unemployed people can inquire about the criteria for procuring government jobs or the status of their applications and position in the wait list.
- Owners of small businesses can find out the basis on which licences, tax concessions or subsides are grant ed by the government. They can also check whet her the government is granting licences/concessions/subsidies on the basis of properly applied criteria.
- People can check the progress of their applications for government services.
- People can also get information on the number of deaths in government hospitals and question the shortfall of doctors and nurses, if any.
- People can obtain the daily attendance records of teachers in government schools.
- People can get information on the number of people being housed in local jails.
- People can find out the number of inspector visits in factories and other manufacturing un i ts to ch eck th at they are not i l leg ally releasing hazard ous materials in the environment.

SUMMARY

- Empowering the public with complete information is the fundamental duty of the government.
- The right to information is not always absolute. There is certain information that may be withheld.
- The Right to Information Act came into force with effect from 12 October 2005.
- Public Information Officers have been appointed in both the Central and the State governments to provide information to those who require such information under the Act.
- Citizen and administration are so closely related to each other that the existence of one without the other is almost inconceivable in a civilized society.
- Jayprakash Narayan led a massive anti-corruption and anti-authoritarian extra-parliamentary mass movement in the first half of the 1970s.
- Adequate resources are needed to significantly expand governmental activities to maintain proper coordination between citizens and administration.

KEY TERMS

- **Corruption:** Dishonest or illegal behaviour, especially of people in authority
- **Transparency International:** The global civil society organization leading the fight against corruption
- **RTI:** Right to Information Act, a law enacted by the Parliament of India giving access to government records

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Enumerate the factors on which the effectiveness of the institutionalized citizen participation in public administration depends.
2. What are the general grievances of citizens against the government?
3. List the primary rights and responsibilities under the Right to Information (RTI).

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UNIT-11: Women Empowerment

Structure:

INTRODUCTION

The roles of both citizen and governance are undergoing an important revolution. Government is seen more as one of the stakeholders than a regulator, funder and service provider. Citizen governance is to be seen beyond new public management. It brings a fundamental change in the reform process for the development and sustainability of the nation. The new vision is to evolve public policy through joint efforts of public authorities and citizens working in harmony. Today, the reinvention of citizens is of crucial importance for public administrative practice.

When India achieved independence from foreign rule, people became the sovereign leadersof the country. It was 'we, the people of India' who gave unto themselves a constitution and provided space for the legislative, executive and judicial systems to function. As much as the Constitution is the creation of people, the basic constitutional values embodied in the Preamble, the fundamental rights and The Directive Principles of State Policy represent citizenship values.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- Identify the legislative and executive measures for empowerment of women
- Analyse the constitutional and legislative provisions related to the empowerment

ofScheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs)

WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment as a concept was first accepted at the International Women's Conference in 1985 at Nairobi. The conference concluded that empowerment is a redistribution of power and control of resources in favour of women through positive intervention. The Programme of Action 1992 has accepted the following parameters for empowerment of women:

- Enhance self-esteem and self-confidence in women.
- Build a positive image of women by recognizing their contribution to the society, polityand economy.
- Develop in them an ability to think critically.
- Faster decision-making and action through collective process.
- Enable women to make informed choices in areas like education, employment and health especially reproductive health.
- Ensure equal participation in the development process.
- Provide information, knowledge and skills for economic independence.
- ☐ Enhance access to legal literacy and information related to their rights and entitlements inthe society with a view to enhance their participation on an equal footing in all areas.

Equality of women is necessary not merely on the grounds of social justice, but as a basic condition for social, economic and political development of a nation. Empowerment is necessary to release women from their dependent and unequal status. An improvement of their employment opportunities and earning power has to be given the highest priority. In India, it is the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980–85) which can be taken as a landmark for the cause of women. It is here that the concept of women and development was introduced for the first time. Women, due to their pre- occupation with home-related activities, do not find time to devote fully for their skill development and employment. Indian women are busier in their household work than men. The Eleventh Five Year Plan has stated that entrenched patriarchal norms and customs mean that women's work goes unnoticed and is unpaid for. The double burden of work placed on women (unrecognized household work and low pay in recognized work) coupled with social norms that prevent her from getting the requisite educational and technical skills result in low female work participation rate, either real or statistical. In 2004, female workforce participation was 28 per cent as comparedto other developing countries like Sri Lanka, 30 per cent, Bangladesh, 37 per cent, and South Africa 38, per cent. Women's representation in the government sector has improved from 11 per cent in 1981 to 18.5 per cent in 2004. At the grassroot level, women are playing a more active role in Panchayati Raj bodies and their representation in the Panchayat has gone up from 33.5 per cent in 1995 to 37.8 per cent in 2005. Women's presence in Parliament has however increased only slightly from 6.1 per cent (1989) to 9.1 per cent (2004). The representation of women in decision-making levels through premier services, namely, IAS and IPS, stood at only 5.4 per cent in 2000.

The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments in 1993 have brought forth a definite impact on the participation of women in terms of absolute numbers in grassroots democratic

institutions, namely, Panchayati Raj and local bodies. In fact, these amendments proved to be a milestone in the history of political participation of women. It gave them the power of decision making in a democracy at the grassroots level. At the block level, out of 51,000 members of Block Samitis, 17,000 are women. In addition, nearly one-third of the mayors of the municipalities are women.

The status of women is directly connected with their economic position, which, in turn, depends on opportunities for participation in economic activities. The economic status of women is now accepted as an indicator of a society's stage of development. The long-term objective of the developmental programmes for women would be to raise their economic and social status in order to bring them into the mainstream of national development.

Definition of empowerment

In the context of the increasing awareness amongst people about their rights and freedoms, the term empowerment implies power. Empowering people also means creating awareness among various sections of society. When people know about their position, are conscious of what is good for their well-being and possess a sense of empowerment, then they are able to control their lives. In present times, when a woman is in a position to take her own decisions in life, she feels 'empowered'. Any marginalized section of society, be it elder citizens or the economically impoverished, feels empowered on attaining independence and freedom. Empowerment also means that people are not suppressed because of their lack of knowledge. Therefore, it extensively calls for some changes in the society to make it a better place for the individuals to reside,

irrespective of gender, caste, class or colour. Therefore, the government and NGOs need to spread the word in different towns and cities, and most importantly villages, where empowerment of women is overlooked and never acknowledged. It is also important to bring about a change in the mentality of people through proper education, avoiding differentiation and bringing into notice the laws, rules and code of conduct they never had any knowledge about. Lastly, and most importantly, there is a need to change the mindset and mentality of male members who suppress the empowerment of women to a great extent.

Socio-cultural aspects of empowerment

This entails giving women the right and freedom to choose their way of life, providing them the right to education and the right to choose their profession and life partner. With more women being educated, empowerment would augment work power, thereby proving economically beneficial for the country, directly or indirectly. However, gender discrimination and a patriarchal society have always made the upliftment of women difficult in our country. Our male-dominated society has always laid down the norms for women and has determined their rights to talk, walk, wear or even work. While economic empowerment provides the power to learn, earn and spend, in most cases, women cannot exercise this right, or they may have nominal control over it. A girl is often not allowed to select her own stream of study or her occupation; even a working woman is not permitted to spend a penny on herself, and her accounts are operated by her husband. If the case of a working woman is so pathetic, one can imagine the plight of a woman who spends her whole day within the four walls of the house.

To instill a sense of equality between men and women, people must be stopped from seeing females as a burden. Women should be allowed to participate in decision-making sessions at

various levels within the family or outside. Women must be allowed to earn and spend on their own will. In case they cannot earn, a fixed amount of money should be given to them by the family/go vernment. The go vernment s hould ensure equ al wag es fo r equ al work. So cio empowerment thus implies a woman's acquisition of the same powers, rights and freedom at home and in her country as exercised by her husband. Cultural empowerment means women are not biased in the name of culture, home or country and are allowed to get education and jobs. Women should not be coerced to remain in 'purdah' and allowed to wear any type of decent outfit.

In socio-cultural terms, her legal status should also be at par with her men. In a male-dominated society like ours, women should share equal importance in the household as enjoyed by her husband and should not be discriminated. As a homemaker, she should be allowed to have her independence in financial issues as well. The success of socio-cultural empowerment of women actually rests on others' response to her newly acquired independence as well as the perspectives of her family, spouse, neighbours and superiors towards her rights.

Women's empowerment through reservation

Women's reservation in Panchayat elections could have changed the concept of power as it symbolizes a paradigm shift from empowerment of men towards that of women. However, at the grassroots level in India, the picture we are familiar with is something different. Women in power are accompanied by her husband or other family members. In a male-dominated rural structure, women empowerment does not get due recognition. Women are often shoved away and thought to possess no knowledge of her work, or what needs to be done. Village administration and decision- making have always remained a male priority. Thus, women's reservation in the Panchayat has sadly failed to empower women. Most female members of rural governing bodies follow the orders of males in their family. In some cases, the women in power do not even attend meetings and merely act as rubber stamps. In order to change this, it is important to liberate females from their submissive mentality. They should be made aware of their equality in terms of intellect.

With reservation, women have attained power and dignity. Through such initiatives, gender discriminations can gradually be removed. Women like Ambika Soni, Sonia Gandhi, Sheila Dixit and Pratibha Patil, who have held and are still holding important positions in power politics,
have contributed in a larger way towards women empowerment as they have inspired woman to obtain education and strive for a dignified and equal stance in society.

Economic Issues and Challenges Confronting Women

Women's contribution in economy cannot be overlooked, especially in the Third World, where agriculture remains one of the primary economic resources. In such countries, women make up a greater portion of the agricultural labour force. Strategies undertaken for agricultural development aim to increase production through mechanization but neglects sex ratio that constitutes agricultural labour. With the passage of time men gained benefits from technical development while women remained marginalized. Many studies suggest women are six to seven times more unemployed than men. Hence, they work mostly as low paid casual labourers.

Women constitute 48.26 per cent of India's total population. In rural India, the livelihood of

almost 30 lakh women depends on agriculture and livestock. During 1995–2001 women have 1,47,000 jobs in the textile sector. India has 397 million workers out of which 123.9 million are women—106 million are in rural areas and the remaining 18 million in urban areas. Female work participation has increased from 19.7 per cent to 25.7 per cent in 2001. There has been a significant increase in work participation, but most low paying jobs where women work for long hours without any special coverage confront harassments, both economic and physical.

Another disadvantage of female agricultural workers is the huge differential they experience with regard to wages. Despite several legislations regarding payments and legal specifications to provide Equal Pay for Equal Work, wage discrimination against women is omnipresent in India, particularly in unorganized sectors like agriculture and construction sites. Agricultural work is seasonal in nature. Therefore, during their off time and in drought-like situations, women have to search for alternate sources of income. In such circumstances, many women migrate to urban areas. Sometimes, only male members migrate, leaving behind their spouse and children to fight with adverse situations of poverty and hunger. Other times, many agricultural workers mortgage their property and to recover them, they migrate to earn more money. This striking fact came into light in a group discussion of many North-East female domestic workers in Delhi. One of them, Beli, had left her native place at an early age when she was barely 12-13 years old to earn money to pay her father's debt. She stayed near Jamia Nagar, Okhla. Her initial intention was to earn money for her mortgage property, but with time, she got tangled into other issues. As she was a divorcee at the age of 12, she had to confront several new challenges in the cosmopolitan city. She was lured to settle as a married woman but she soon realized that she was being used merely as a surrogate mother for an issueless happily married couple. The latter had earlier taken her on as an easy target, got her pregnant, and after that, intended to take away her child. But she was bold enough to counter all these circumstances by protesting against her exploitation as a child producer. She asserted her rights to get accepted as the second wife of her husband and get recognized as the mother of her two sons. In many interviews, it was found that women from the North-East become soft targets of women trafficking as well as similar kinds of exploitation since they are often poor and want to earn money, or have language and cultural problems that prevent them from intermingling with the locals or get misguided.

Most of the problems of rural women emanate from poverty, compelling them to live a life of hardship and drudgery. The Government of India has made various efforts to bring them in the mainstream of development programmes through various schemes. However, the status of rural women is not satisfactory. The First Five Year Plan emphasized on the welfare of women. The International Women's decade 1975–85 had its impact on the planning process related to women. The Ninth Plan took women empowerment as a measuring tool for the development of the cause of women. The year 2001 is declared as the Women Empowerment Year in India, and India has adopted a national policy for the empowerment of women.

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Case Studies

Rukhsana Sheikh, Okhla Village, New Delhi

Rukhsana Sheikh, a young girl wishes to call herself an empowered woman, financially independent and capable to stand on her own feet. However, she had to struggle much in the past. Her family belonged to Muzzafarpur, Bihar, where her father, who was not very well qualified, worked. There was not much scope for him to seek a promotion, and thereby, he sought a higher pay to feed his growing family. Rukhsana had two brothers and sisters, and she was the eldest amongst them. She was only five years old when her parents decided to migrate to Delhi as her father wanted to search for a new job to increase his earnings. Though he came to Delhi to provide *roti*, *kapda* and *makaan*, he had to face a new challenge. Besides providing the basic amenities, he had to adapt to Delhi's style of living, language patterns, dressing sense and food habits. Rukhsana and her family were ready to accept this challenge. Her father got a good job near Hauz Khas. He became a senior manager in a textile company and his salary was much better than his earlier job. Now, he was easily fulfilling the basic needs of the family, but was faced with a new problem—a class struggle, where it was necessary to maintain the same level as other members of the same class in the city. In a competitive market with rising prices, class needs like good education of children, own house and smart dressing patterns were difficult to meet singlehandedly. Rukhsana was mature enough to understand her father's problems. After completing her matriculation, she decided to discontinue her education. Earlier, she wanted to become a good teacher, but finally, she decided to enroll herself into a beautician course from Meera Bai Polytechnic. It was a one-year diploma course. After completing her course, she started practicing in a beauty parlour. She worked without any

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pay or stipend. After six months, she opened her own beauty parlour near Shahab Masjid (Muradi Road) at Batla House. Luckily, her parlour is running very well. Her income has also increased. She has acquired many customers who come for treatment. She feels proud for being able to support her family as an earning member, provide education to her siblings and pamper them by meeting their every small wish. She wishes to purchase her own flat and a shop in the locality and get married five years later. She is 25 years old at present. Her prime motive is purchasing a flat and a shop. There are three more supporting members in the family. Her younger brother has completed his education andis working in an MNC.

National Policy for the Empowerment of Women 2001

The principle of gender equality is enshrined in the Indian Constitution in its Preamble, Fundamental Rights, Fundamental Duties and Directive Principles. The Constitution not only gran ts equality to women, b ut also empowers the state to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women.

India has also ratified various international conventions and human rights instruments committed to secure equal rights to women. Key among them is the ratification of the Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1993. The Mexico Plan of Action (1975), the Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies (1985), the Beijing

Declaration, Platform for Action (1995) as well as the outcome document adopted by the UNGA Session on Gender Equality and Development and Peace for the 21st century titled 'Further action and initiative to implement the Beijing Declaration and the platform for action' have been unreservedly endorsed by India for appropriate follow-up. The policy also takes note of the commitment of the Ninth Five Year Plan and other policies related to empowerment of women. Gender disparities manifest itself in various forms, the most obvious being the trend of continuously declining female ratio in the population in the last few decades. Social stereotyping and violence at the domestic and societal levels are some of the other manifestations. Discrimination against girl children,

adolescent girl children, adolescent girls and women still persists in some parts of the country. The underlying causes of gender inequality are related to social and economic structure, which is based on informal and formal norms and practices. Consequently, the access of women, particularly those belonging to weaker sections including Scheduled Caste/Scheduled Tribes/ Other Backward Classes and minorities, majority of whom are in the rural areas and in the informal, unorganized sectors, to education, health and productive resources, among others, is inadequate. Therefore, they remain largely marginalized, poor and socially unaccepted.

Objectives of the policy

The goal of this Policy is to bring about the advancement, development and empowerment of women. The Policy will be widely disseminated so as to encourage active participation of all stakeholders for achieving its goals. Its objectives include:

- Creating an environment through positive economic and social policies for full development and empowerment of women.
- De jure and de facto enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedom by women on equal basis with men in all spheres—-political, economic, social, cultural and civil.
- Equal access of women to health care, quality education at all levels, career and vocational guidance, employment, equal remuneration, occupational health and safety, social security, public office, etc.
- Strengthening the legal system aimed at elimination of all forms of discrimination against women
- Changing social attitude and community practices by active participation and involvement of both men and women
- Mainstreaming a gender perspective in the development process
- Building and strengthening partnership with civil society, particularly women organizations A few of these objectives are explained below in detail
  - **Reformation of the judicial-legal systems:** Among other concerns that the policy
    addresses, it strives to make the legal-judicial system more responsive and gender sensitive to women's issue and needs, especially in case of domestic violence and personal assault. New laws will be enacted and existing ones reviewed to ensure that justice is quick and punishment meted out to the culprits is commensurate with the severity of the offence. The evolution of property rights in a patriarchal system has contributed to the subordinate status of women. The Policy would aim to encourage changes in laws relating to ownership of property and inheritance by making them

unbiased in terms of gender.

- **Ensuring decision-making powers:** Women's equality in power sharing and active participation in decision making, including decision making in political process at all levels will be ensured for the achievement of the goals of empowerment. All measures will be taken to guarantee women equal access to and full participation in decision- making bodies at every level, including the legislative, executive, judicial, corporate, statutory bodies, as also the advisory committees, boards and trust. Affirmative action such as reservation/quotas, including higher legislative bodies, will be considered whenever necessary on a time-bound basis.
- **Mainstreaming a gender perspective in the development process:** Policies, programmes and systems will be established to ensure mainstreaming of women's perspective in all development processes with women acting as catalysts, participants and recipients. Women-specific interventions would be undertaken to bridge gaps in policies and programmes.

Economic Empowerment of Women

The following aspects need to be looked into for the empowerment of women:

1. **Poverty eradication:** Since women constitute the majority of population below poverty line, they are often confronted with situations of extreme poverty. Given the harsh realities of intra household and social discrimination, macro-economic policies and poverty eradication programmes will specifically address the needs and problems of such women.

2. **Macro credit:** To enhance women's access to credit for consumption and production, new micro-credit mechanisms and micro-finance institutions may be established and the existing ones strengthened.

3. **Women and economy:** Women's perspective will be included in designing and implementing macro-economic and social policies by institutionalizing their participation in such processes. Their contribution to socio-economic development as producers and workers will be recognized in the formal and informal sectors (including home-based work) and appropriate policies related to employment and her working conditions will be drawn up. Such measures could include:

- reinterpretation and redefinition of conventional concepts of work wherever necessary,for example, census records, to reflect women's contribution as producer and workers
- system of interaction among the countries of the world in order to develop the global economy preparation of satellite and national accounts
- development of appropriate methodologies for undertakings in the above two measures

4. **Globalization:** Benefits of the growing global economy have been unevenly distributed leading to wider economic disparities, feminization of poverty, increased gender inequalities through often deteriorating working conditions and unsafe working environment, especially in the informal sector and rural areas. Strategies will be designed to enhance the capacity of women and empower them to meet the negative social and economic impacts, which may flow from the globalization process.

5. **Women and agriculture:** In view of the critical role of women in agriculture and allied sectors as producers, concentrated efforts will be made to ensure that benefits of training, extension and various programmes will reach them in proportion to their numbers. The programmes for training women in soil conservation, social forestry, dairy development and other occupations allied to agriculture, livestock including small animal husbandry, poultry and fisheries will be expanded to benefit women in the agriculture sector.

6. **Action plans**: All Central and State ministries will draw up time-bound Action Plans for translating the policy into a set of concrete actions through a participatory process of consultation with Centre/State department of women and child development as well as National/State commissions for women. The plan will specifically include the following:

- Measurable goals to be achieved by 2010
- Identification and commitment of resources
- Responsibilities for implementation of Action Plans
- Structures and mechanism to ensure efficient monitoring, review and gender impact assessment of action points and policies
- Introduction of a gender perspective in the budgeting process
- Collection of gender disaggregated data by all primary data collecting agencies of the Central and State government as well as research and academic institutions in the public and private sectors.

Feminization of Labour Force

Critiques of new economic policies (NEPs) see it as a surrender of our sovereignty to foreign institutions and countries to the 'we have no choice' pragmatics. (Menon, 2006: 146) Left parties raised the issue of peoples' interest from different classes as working class, petty traders, and

entrepreneurs. They mobilized rallies against anti-price rise. Women's organization raised the issue of working women.

Indeed, NEP started entering quietly since the beginning of the 1980s and the women empowerment policy had been adopted by all ruling parties, be it Congress, Janata Party or others. It was in the Rao Government that this policy became evident. At the initial stage of policy making, it was hoped that the exports will increase and therefore the expenditure can be lowered by reducing the demand of imports. Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) is meant to deal with the supply side by increasing production incentives for the private sector, privatization of government owned units, de-licensing deregulation and disciplining labour. It is feared that the real cost of adjustment, borne primarily by the benefits, would be limited to a small section. Many studies indicate that where SAP seems to lead towards growth, it does not necessarily imply development.

We have data that suggest gender discrimination at all levels for women workers. Though labour participation rate is comparatively low for women, the disparity is higher in urban areas. In Mumbai, Neelima Yadav's data shows labour force participation rate for women was 10.7 per cent as against 53.7 per cent for men in 1991. Arguments are that the labour participation of women is one of the most vital indicators of women's empowerment, access to

resources, and decision-making ability and thus must be made a central focus of policy. Women from low social order are more likely to be found in either casual labour or unorganized sector. They are less likely than other women to confine to domestic duties solely; instead they have higher rate of participation in the labour force. The gap between men and women in labour force participation for Muslims is more as they have several cultural barriers which restrict their movement. However, labour force participation rate for Muslim women from the lower social order is also very high as they are the sole breadwinners for their families in many marginalized caste as a survey of Phulpur, Allahabad shows. A survey on almost 14 backward castes of Muslim women was conducted. It was found that major portion of women who belong to the labour force are from ten most marginalized castes, and are completely illiterate and primarily employed in either domestic work or *bidi* rolling. They live in very unhygienic conditions and are more likely to be affected with asthma, TB and other respiratory diseases since their work profile forces them to spend most of their time with tobacco. Their men sit home idly and are completely dependent on their female counterparts. Ironically, these women who spend most of their time in *bidi* rolling get only Rs 30– 40 per 1000 *bidi* though the government approved rate is Rs 60 per 1000. This is because the agent who provides them with employment exploits them economically by taking advantage of their ignorance.

In the unorganized sector where mostly women work, there is wage discrimination between male and female workers, especially in the agricultural labour sector or urban construction sites, where rules and laws are not practised. There are many women who do not know their rights or the rules and regulations that the International Labour Organization (ILO) follows to calculate their wages.

It is very interesting to see increasing women participation at the workplace in recent years. For example, in the United States, the labour force participation rate for women increased from 43 per cent in 1970 to 60 per cent in 1998. However, labour force participation rate for men has decreased from 80 per cent to 74 per cent. In addition, the population of women executive, administrators and managers in non-farming occupations has almost tripled from 1970 to 1998. Women's participation in labour force in Australia, Botswana, Brazil, Egypt, France, India, Ireland, Israel and Singapore has increased by 2 per cent to 9 per cent from 1985 to 1995.

Gender is also associated with the occupation in which individuals work. Sex segregation of occupations or unequal distribution of women and men in different types of jobs and occupations is common at the workplace. In the United States, sex segregation is almost stable during the 1990s and is at a much higher level than popularly believed. Since time immemorial, the accepted notion of gender roles is based on the doctrine of separate spheres. According to this ideology, since men and women have different natures, the roles they play are thought should be radically different. Thus, it is perceived that naturally men should plunge themselves in business and commerce whereas women should concern themselves with domestic duties. The belief that men and women should occupy different social roles was grounded in the fact that the lives of most women were dominated by their capacity to bear children.

Chimayee Samla, a social activist, brought forward in a national seminar the fact that there are 80,000 domestic workers in Delhi. There are thousands of placement agencies who employ them in the city. Many of these women face a lot of violence and are raped by the people who get them to the city before they are sent off to work. Though there is a ban on child labour, this has not been applicable or implemented in the case of domestic workers.

Development of Self-Help Groups in India

The concept of Self Help Groups (SHG) is new quite new in India. In many places, it is known as Besi, Committee, etc. In the early stages, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) played a pivotal role in the development of the SHG Model and they worked hard for its implementation. In the 1980s, policy makers took their initiative into account by involving them in progammes related to saving and credit groups. Their efforts and the simplicity of SHGs helped to spread the movement across the country. This movement led to the formation of Self Help Group Federation as a formal institution, keeping the SHG informal. Many of these Self Help Group Federations are registered as societies, mutual benefits trusts and mutually aided cooperative societies. SHGs yielded many benefits, such as:

- Stronger political and advocacy capabilities
- Sharing of knowledge and experience
- Economies of scales
- Access to greater capital

Structure of SHGs

A SHG is made of about 10–20 people, usually women, belonging to a similar class and region, and come together to form a saving and credit organization. They arrange to make small interest bearing loans to their members. This process focusses first on savings. The setting of terms and conditions as well as accounting of the loans are done in the group by designated members.

SHG Federations

SHGs have federated into larger organizations. Usually, 15 to 50 SHGs make a cluster/village organization with one or two representatives from each SHG. Depending on the geographical distribution, several clusters or village organizations may consolidate into an apex body or a Self Help Group Federation. In Andhra Pradesh, these clusters and SHG Federations are being registered under the Mutually Aided Co-operative Society Act 1995. At the cluster and Federation level, there are many inter groups that exchange ideas, share costs and discuss issues of common interest. There are various sub-committees that deal with many issues including loan collection, accounting and social issues. These federations have been seen as the key interface with the SHG movement because of their formal registration and recognition from bankers. As with many benefits, there are some drawbacks that should be taken into consideration. SHG Federation is a formal group of informal common interest groups. It has poor capacity of self-governance and low quality management system. Moreover, the processes are not explicitly defined.

SHG linkage with bank

The most significant milestone in the Self Help Group Movement was that NABARD initiated a pilot phase of SHG Bank Linkage programme in February 1992. It was the first instance of recognizing a SHG for direct financing by a commercial bank. Soon after, the Reserve Bank of India advised commercial banks to take SHGs into consideration, providing loans as part of rural credit operations that created the Self Help Group Bank Linkage. This linkage was good for both parties. The banks were able to tap into a large market and for low income households, transaction costs were low and repayments rates were high. A regional study of Andhra Pradesh about the function of SHGs shows that:

- Average saving per SHG was Rs. 23,000 and the average loan size Rs 31,000
- 50 per cent SHGs practised equal distribution of bank loan
- Only 50 per cent SHG felt that the loan size was adequate
- More than four months were required for an SHG to take the bank loan
- No post linkage follow-up was made by the banker and others
- 12 per cent SHGs defaulted bank-repayment
- High percentage of SHGs participate in government programmes
- Attitude of bankers is still an issue

Impact of SHGs

A study by NABARD reveals that 1.6 million SHGs have benefitted from approximately Rs. 69 billion in financing. There is no doubt that there has been greater outreach of financial services to the poor through SHGs. This outreach has been good in South India, but is very limited to the rest of the country. In addition to the financial analysis of SHGs, the non-financial areas such as social security and gender dynamics are also affected by the SHG Movement.

Political Impact: One of the key benefits of the SHG is women's empowerment and this can be viewed in a number of women involved in public affairs. While the number of women actually involved in politics is still very low, research has indicated that over 70 per cent of those women who contested for election had won their seats. Interestingly, women issues cover a range of basic requirements as ration cards, laying of pucca roads, building of schools, ensuring appointments in vacant positions in schools and health centres, recovery of river bank lands from encroachers as well as laying of drinking water pipes. Though the number of women who are active in politics is nominal, the trend is definitely changing. A few years ago, there was a very bleak chance of women contesting Panchayat elections. It is noteworthy that women's presence in politics is making a milestone impact not only for themselves but also for others by becoming their role models. They have changed the traditional perception of Indian women as a mere homemaker to a policy maker. They are being identified as a significant group with serious concern. SHGs play an inspirational role and acts as the financer. Poor women develop greater language and financial skills through SHGs which provide them with building blocks for acquiring higher levels of confidence.

SUMMARY

- Empowerment as a concept was first accepted at the International Women's Conference in 1985 at Nairobi.
- The double burden of work placed on women (unrecognized household work and low pay in recognized work) coupled with social norms that prevent her from getting the requisite educational and technical skills result in low female work participation rate, either real or statistical.
- The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments in 1993 have brought forth a definite impact on the participation of women in terms of absolute numbers in grassroots democratic institutions, namely Panchayati Raj and local bodies.
- Socio-cultural aspects of empowerment entails giving women the right and freedom to

choose their ways of life, i.e., providing them the right to education and the right to choose their profession and life partner.

- With reservation, women have attained power and dignity. Through such initiatives, gender discriminations can gradually be removed.

- The principle of gender equality is enshrined in the Indian Constitution in its Preamble, Fundamental Rights, Fundamental Duties and Directive Principles. The Constitution not only grants equality to women but also empowers the state to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women.

- The goal of the National Policy for the Empowerment of Women is to bring about the advancement, development and empowerment of women.

KEY TERMS

- **Empowerment:** Increasing the spiritual, political, social, educational, gender, or economic strength of individuals and communities
- **Gender equality:** The concept that men and women should receive equal treatment unless there is a sound biological reason for different treatment

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. State the two parameters mentioned by the Programme of Action 1992 with regard to women empowerment.
2. In which government document was the concept of women and development introduced for the first time?
3. State the main factor on which empowerment of women depends.
4. State any one important objective laid down by the National Policy for the Empowerment of Women.
5. How does the National Policy for the Empowerment of Women ensure reformation in the legal-judicial system for the benefit of women?
6. State the aspects that should be covered by economic empowerment measures for women.

FURTHER READING

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UNIT-12: Welfare Administration of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

Structure:

- Introduction

- Unit Objectives

- Welfare Administration of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

- Rights of SCs/STs and OBCs:

- Constitutional and Legislative Measures

- Exclusive Constitutional Provisions for the Empowerment of Scheduled Castes

- Fifth Schedule of the Constitution

- Protection of Civil Rights Act

- National Commission for Scheduled Tribes

- Government Schemes for the Empowerment of SCs and STs

- Summary

- Key Terms

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- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

The role of citizens is not to be seen as mere tax payers but as active participants evolving policies and plans as well as monitoring the government's performance. Citizen governance is meant to translate the concept of sovereignty of the people into a reality. The government is seen as an equal partner with the citizens. The vision is to evolve public policy through the joint effort of public authorities and citizens working in harmony. Today, the reinvention of citizens isof crucial importance to public administrative practice.

UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Analyse the constitutional and legislative provisions related to the empowerment ofScheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs)

- Examine the government's role in carrying out administrative activities for the welfare of SCs and STs.

WELFARE ADMINISTRATION OF SCHEDULED CASTESAND SCHEDULED TRIBES

India is a welfare State, committed to the welfare and development of its people and of vulnerable sections in particular. The Preamble, Directive Principles of State Policy, Fundamental Rights and specific sections, viz., Articles 38, 39 and 46 in the Constitution of India, stand testimony to the commitment of the State to its people.

Socially disadvantaged groups like the Scheduled Castes/ Scheduled Tribes have received special focus over the years for their social and economic advancement. The government has taken several steps for framing appropriate policies needed to design and implement various welfare programmes for achieving the objective of creating favourable environment to ensure speedy socio economic development of SCs/ STs. For the well being of these communities, special target-oriented programmes are being implemented by earmarking funds, providing subsidies as well as offering reservations in employment and educational institutions.

Rights of SCs/STs and OBCs: Constitutional and Legislative Measures

The Indian Constitution contains several provisions that aim at equality and affirmative action for Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Backward Classes. They are as follows:

- Equality before law – Article 14 of the Constitution of India
- Prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth –Article 15 of the Constitution of India
- Equality of opportunity in matters of public employment – Article 16 of the Constitution ofIndia
- Abolition of untouchability – Article 17 of the Constitution of India
- Right against exploitation: Prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour – Article 23 of the Constitution of India
- Right against exploitation: Prohibition of employment of children in factories etc. – Article24 of the Constitution of India
- Right to freedom of religion: Freedom of conscience and freedom of profession, practiceand propagation of religion – Article 25 of the Constitution of India
- Safeguarding and promotion of cultural and education rights
    i. Protection of interests of minorities – Article 29 of the Constitution of India
    ii. Facilities for instruction in mother-tongue at primary stage – Article 350 (A) of theConstitution of India
    iii. Special officer for linguistic minorities – Article 35 (B) of the Constitution of India
    iv. Promotion of educational and economic interests of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other weaker sections – Article 46 of the Constitution of India
- Political Safeguards
    i. Minister in Charge of Tribal Welfare and Welfare of Scheduled Caste and Backward Classes in Selected States – Article 164(1) of the Constitution of India
    ii. Reservation of seats in the Lok Sabha
    iii. Reservation of seats in the Vidhan Sabha
    iv. Time limits on reservation of seats
    v. The Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act, 1976

vi. The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986

vii. The Protection of Civil Rights Act, and Rules, 1955 and Rules 1977

viii. The Protection of Civil Rights Act 1955

ix. The Protection of Civil Rights Act 1977

x. Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989, and Rules, 1995

- o Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities)Act, 1989
- o Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Rules, 1995
- o Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Rules, 1995 – Annexure I, Norms for Relief Amount Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Rules, 1995.

Exclusive Constitutional Provisions for the Empowerment of Scheduled Castes

Article 341: Specification of the castes, races or tribes or parts of or groups within castes, races or tribes as Scheduled Castes

Article 366 : Definition of Scheduled Castes

Social Safeguards

Article 17 : Abolition of Untouchability

Article 25 : Freedom of conscience and free profession, practice and propagation of religion

Educational, Economic and Public Employment-related Safeguards

Article 15 : Prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth

Article 16 : Equality of opportunity in matters of public employment

Article 46 : Promotion of Educational and Economic interests of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other weaker sections

Article 320 : Functions of Public Service Commissions

Article 335 : Claims of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to services and posts

Political Safeguards

Article 330 : Reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the House of the People

Article 332 : Reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the Legislative Assemblies of the States

Article 334 : Reservation of seats and special representation to cease after sixty years

Article 243D : Reservation of seats (in Panchayats)

Article 243T : Reservation of seats

Agency for monitoring safeguards

Article 338 : National Commission for Scheduled Castes

Fifth Schedule of the Constitution

The Fifth Schedule [Article 244 (1)] of the Indian Constitution contains provisions relating to the administration and control of Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes of India. In this Schedule, unless the context otherwise requires, the expression State does not include the States of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram. The Governor of each State having Scheduled Areas therein shall annually, or whenever so required by the President, make a report to the President regarding the administration of the Scheduled Areas in that State and the executive power of the Union shall extend to the giving of directions to the State as to the administration of the said areas.

Tribes Advisory Council

1. There shall be established in each State having Scheduled Areas therein and, if the President so directs, also in any State having Scheduled Tribes but not Scheduled Areas therein, a Tribes Advisory Council consisting of not more than twenty members of whom, as nearly as may be, three-fourths shall be the representatives of the Scheduled Tribes in the Legislative Assembly of the State:

   Provided that if the number of representatives of the Scheduled Tribes in the Legislative Assembly of the State is less than the number of seats in the Tribes Advisory Council to be filled by such representatives, the remaining seats shall be filled by other members of those tribes.

2. It shall be the duty of the Tribes Advisory Council to advise on such matters pertaining to the welfare and advancement of the Scheduled Tribes in the State as may be referred to them by the Governor.

3. The Governor may make rules prescribing or regulating, as the case may be:

   (a) the number of members of the Council, the mode of their appointment and the appointment of the Chairman of the Council and of the officers and servants thereof;

   (b) the conduct of its meetings and its procedure in general; and

   (c) all other incidental matters.

Laws applicable to Scheduled Areas

1. Notwithstanding anything in this Constitution, the Governor may by public notification direct that any particular Act of Parliament or of the Legislature of the State shall not apply to a Scheduled Area or any part thereof in the State or shall apply to a Scheduled Area or any part thereof in the State subject to such exceptions and modifications as he may specify in the notification and any direction given under this sub-paragraph may be given so as to have retrospective effect.

2. The Governor may make regulations for the peace and good government of any area in a State which is for the time being a Scheduled Area.

   In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power, such regulations may:

   (a) prohibit or restrict the transfer of land by or among members of the Scheduled Tribes in such area;

   (b) regulate the allotment of land to members of the Scheduled Tribes in such area;

   (c) regulate the carrying on of business as money-lender by persons who lend money to

members of the Scheduled Tribes in such area.

3. In making any such regulation as is referred to in sub-paragraph (2) of this paragraph, the Governor may repeal or amend any Act of Parliament or of the Legislature of the State or any existing law which is for the time being applicable to the area in question.

4. All regulations made under this paragraph shall be submitted forthwith to the President and, until assented to by him, shall have no effect.

5. No regulation shall be made under this paragraph unless the Governor making the regulation has, in the case where there is a Tribes Advisory Council for the State, consulted such Council.

Scheduled Areas

1. In this Constitution, the expression Scheduled Areas means such areas as the President may by order declare to be Scheduled Areas.

2. The President may at any time by order:

   (a) direct that the whole or any specified part of a Scheduled Area shall cease to be a Scheduled Area or a part of such an area;

   (aa) increase the area of any Scheduled Area in a State after consultation with the Governor of that State;

   (b) alter, but only by way of rectification of boundaries, any Scheduled Area;

   (c) on any alteration of the boundaries of a State or on the admission into the Union or the establishment of a new State, declare any territory not previously included in any State to be, or to form part of, a Scheduled Area;

   (d) rescind, in relation to any State or States, any order or orders made under this paragraph, and in consultation with the Governor of the State concerned, make fresh orders redefining the areas which are to be Scheduled Areas; and any such order may contain such incidental and consequential provisions as appear to the President to be necessary and proper, but save as aforesaid, the order made under sub-paragraph (1) of this paragraph shall not be varied by any subsequent order.

Protection of Civil Rights Act

India is a welfare state committed to the welfare of its people in general and the welfare of vulnerable sections in particular. The Central government has been responsible for implementing various plans and policies for the upliftment of weaker and marginalized sections of the population. The practice of untouchability was so rampant in Indian society that it became a matter of social responsibility for the government to formulate and implement appropriate policies to remove this social malady. So, the formulation of the Protection of Civil Rights Act (PCR Act) is a significant endeavour in this direction.

With regard to protective arrangements, to begin with, the Constitution itself has provided an elaborate framework for eliminating those customs, practices, or institutional arrangements, including provisions in law, if any, which tend to sanctify and reinforce untouchabilty practices and other discriminatory and degrading conditions imposed on particular communities.

Within five years of adoption of the Constitution of India, the Untouchability Offences Act, 1955 was enacted by the Parliament. The Act stated that where any of the forbidden practices is

committed in relation to a member of SC, the court shall presume, unless the contrary is proved, that such Act was committed on the ground of untouchability. Soon after, the Act came into force there was a general feeling of dissatisfaction with its impact as the legislation failed to serve the purpose for which it was enacted. Therefore, the government of India appointed a Committee in April 1965, under the chairmanship of Illaya Perumal, to study the problems of untouchability. Based on the recommendations of the Committee, this Act was comprehensively amended in 1976 and its name changed to Protection of Civil Rights Act 1955.

It came into force on 19 November 1976. This was an important step for enlarging the scope and making penal provisions more stringent. The Act provides for punishment for untouchability and extends to all over the country including the state of Jammu and Kashmir. The Act is implemented by state governments and union territory administrations.

The objective of PCR Act is to prescribe punishment for the preaching and practice of untouchability and for the enforcement of any disability on the ground of untouchabilty. Civil rights are rights that accrue to a person by reason of the abolition of untouchability by Article 17 of the Constitution. Caste feelings and prejudices associated with certain occupations like manual scavenging, flaying and tanning put the concerned persons in a disadvantaged situation. Lack of assets, low literacy as well as other social and economic backwardness aggravate the position. Several schemes and programmes are being implemented for socio-economic and educational development for the SC population. These measures, along with the implementation of PCR Act, are gradually helping in reduction of offences of untouchability. The State governments have been empowered to impose collective fines on the inhabitants of any area found committing and abetting the commission of untouchability offences. This Act, along with the Rules framed thereunder, lays down elaborate procedure for ensuring protection of the victims of such practices by providing for special courts, special prosecution and fixing period for investigation.

Section 3-7A defines and punishes offences arising out of untouchability. Section 7 punishes prevention of exercise of civil rights, injury for having exercised civil rights, inciting/encouraging the practice of untouchability, insulting a SC on the ground of untouchability, reprisal for exercising civil rights and excommunicating another for not practicing untouchability. A public servant neglecting investigation is considered as abetting offences under the PCR Act. Abetment of offence under this Act is treated a commission of the offence and punished accordingly. The PCR Act requires courts to presume that the offences are done on the ground of untouchability if the victim is a SC.

The PCR Act prescribes minimum sentence and imprisonment and also enhanced penalty on subsequent conviction. While convicting for refusing to sell or render services, the court may, without prejudice to other penalty, cancel or suspend licence. The government may suspend or resume the grants to institutions punished for refusing to admit members of a SC if they receive government grants. Moreover, the state government under the co-ordination of the Central government shall ensure that civil rights are available to the concerned and there are sufficient facilities of legal aid to victims. The government shall appoint officers for prosecution, establish special courts, set up committees for formulating and implementing measures, provide a periodic survey of the working of PCR Act and identify notorious areas in order to remove disabilities.

From the above discussions, it becomes apparent that untouchability had been a serious problem engulfing the Indian society and creating social injustice. Although a lot of efforts are

made to eradicate this problem, it still exists in some corners of Indian society and remains unnoticed. The legal dimension of this problem and the implementation of PCR Act have been instrumental in ensuring social justice, yet there are some cultural barriers due to which the Act is not fully successful. It gives some comfort to think that although the practice of untouchability made India quite unique among social systems, the attempt to eradicate it has also made the country unique.

National Commission for Scheduled Tribes

With the 89th Amendment of the Constitution coming into force on 19 February 2004, the National Commission for Scheduled Tribes has been set up under Article 338A on the bifurcation of the erstwhile National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to oversee the implementation of various safeguards provided to Scheduled Tribes under the Constitution. The Commission comprises a Chairperson, a Vice-Chairperson and three full time Members (including one lady Member).

Duties and functions

Constitution of India under Article 338A has assigned the following duties and functions to the Commission:

(a) To investigate and monitor all matters relating to the safeguards provided for the Scheduled Tribes under the Constitution or under any other law for the time being in force or under any order of the Government and to evaluate the working of such safeguards;

(b) To inquire into specific complaints with respect to the deprivation of rights and safeguards of the Scheduled Tribes;

(c) To participate and advise in the planning process of socio-economic development of the Scheduled Tribes and to evaluate the progress of their development under the Union and any State;

(d) To present to the President, annually and at such other times as the Commission may

(e) deem fit, reports upon the working of those safeguards;

(f) To make in such reports, recommendations as to the measures that should be taken by the Union or any State for effective implementation of those safeguards and other measures for the protection, welfare and socio-economic development of the Scheduled Tribes, and

(g) To discharge such other functions in relation to the protection, welfare and development and advancement of the Scheduled Tribes as the President may, subject to the provisions of any law made by Parliament, by rule specify.

The Commission shall discharge the following other functions in relation to the protection, welfare and development and advancement of the Scheduled Tribes, namely:

(i) Measures that need to be taken over conferring ownership rights in respect of minor forest produce;

(ii) Measures to be taken to safeguard rights of the tribal communities over mineral resources, water resources, etc. as per law;

(iii) Measures to be taken for the development of tribals and to work for more viable livelihood strategies;

(iv) Measures to be taken to improve the efficacy of relief and rehabilitation measures for tribal groups displaced by development projects;

(v) Measures to be taken to prevent alienation of tribal people from land and to effectively rehabilitate such people in whose case alienation has already taken place;

(vi) Measures to be taken to elicit maximum cooperation and involvement of t ribalcommunities for protecting forests and undertaking social afforestation;

(vii) Measures to be taken to ensure full implementation of the Provisions of Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 (40 of 1996);

(viii) Measures to be taken to reduce and ultimately eliminate the practice of shifting cultivation by tribals that lead to their continuous disempowerment and degradation of land and the environment.

Powers of the Commission

While investigating the matters referred to in sub-clause (a) to inquire into any complaint referred to in sub-clause (b) of clause 5, the Commission have all the powers of a Civil Court trying a suit and in particular in respect of the following matters:

(a) summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person from any part of India and examining him on oath;

(b) requiring the discovery and production of any documents;(c) receiving evidence on affidavits;

(d) requisitioning any public record or copy thereof from any court or office;

(e) issuing summons/communications for the examination of witnesses and documents; (f) any other matter which the President may by rule determine.

Consultation by the Union and State Governments with the Commission

In accordance with clause 9 of Article 338A of the Constitution, Union and every State Government shall consult the Commission on all major policy matters affecting Scheduled Tribes.

Monitoring

The Commission, while investigating matters relating to the safeguards provided under theConstitution, monitors the implementation and working of safeguards which include:

(a) Acting upon Article 23 of the Constitution which prohibits traffic in human beings and forced labour, etc.; in respect of STs

(b) Prohibition of child labour under Article 24; in respect of STs

(c) Educational safeguards under Article 15(4) for reservation of seats in educationalinstitutions

(d) Economic safeguards under Article 244 and working of Fifth and Sixth Schedules and release of grants for raising the level of administration in tribal areas

(e) To safeguard the distinct language, script or culture under Article 29(i)

(f) Working of service safeguards provided under Articles 16(4), 16(4A), 16(4B) and 335providing for adequate representation of Scheduled Tribes in appointments or posts

(g) Enforcement of various laws such as:

(i) The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989 (ii) Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act, 1976 (in respect of Scheduled Tribes)

(iii) The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 (in respect of Scheduled Tribes)

(iv) State Acts and Regulations concerning alienation and restoration of land belonging to Scheduled Tribes

(v) Forest Conservation Act, 1980 (in respect of Scheduled Tribes)

(vi) The Panchayat (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996

(vii) Minimum Wages Act, 1948 (in respect of Scheduled Tribes)

The working of the Commission

The National Commission for Scheduled Tribes functions from its Headquarters at New Delhiand from the State Offices of the Commission located in six States.

There are four Wings at the Headquarter:

1. Administration and Coordination Wing
2. Service Safeguards Wing
3. Atrocities Wing
4. Economic and Social Development Wing

There are six State Offices of the National Commission for Scheduled Tribes. They keep a watch on the formulation of policy and issue of guidelines relating to the welfare of Scheduled Tribes in the States/UTs and keep the Commission' s Headqu arters informed about the development periodically. Policy decisions taken by any State Government/UT Administration affecting the interests of the Scheduled Tribes are brought to the notice of the concerned authorities for necessary action.

Source: http://tribal.nic.in

Government Schemes for the Empowerment of SCs and STs

The Union Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment has launched the following programmes and schemes for the empowerment of SCs and STs:

- Centrally sponsored Scheme of Pre-Matric Scholarship for Scheduled Castes Students
- Central Sector Scheme of 'Rajiv Gandhi National Fellowship' for Providing Scholarships to Scheduled Caste Students to persue Programmes in Higher Education such as M.Phil and Ph.D (Effective from 01-04-2010)
- Centrally-sponsored Pilot Scheme of Pradhan Mantri Adarsh Gram Yojana (PMAGY)
- State, District and Block wise abstract of villages selected under PMAGY
- Babu Jagjivan Ram Chhatrawas Yojana
- Post-Matric Scholarship for SC Students
- Pre-Matric Scholarships for the Children of those Engaged in Unclean Occupations
- Central Sector Scholarship Scheme of Top Class Education for SC Students (Effective from June 2007)
- Self Employment Scheme for Rehabilitation of Manual Scavengers(New) (Hindi Version for Rehabilitation of Manual Scavengers

- Special Central Assistance to Scheduled Caste sub Plan
- National Overseas Scholarships for Scheduled Castes (SC), etc.
- Special Educational Development Programme for Scheduled Castes Girls belonging to low Literacy Levels

- Upgradation of Merit of SC Students
- Scheme of free Coaching for SC and OBC Students
- National Scheduled Castes Finance & Development Corporation (NSFDC)
- National Safaikaramcharis Finance & Development Corporation (NSKFDC)
- Assistance to Scheduled Castes Development Corporations (SCDCs)
- Supporting Project of All India Nature of SCs
- National Comission for Safai Karamcharis

SUMMARY

- The concept of Self Help Group (SHG) is new in India.
- A study by NABARD reveals that 1.6 million SHGs have benefitted from approximately Rs. 69 billion in financing.
- The Preamble, Directive Principles of State Policy, Fundamental Rights and specific sections, viz., Articles 38, 39 and 46 in the Constitution of India, stand testimony to the commitment of the State to its people.
- The Indian Constitution contains several provisions that aim at equality and affirmative action for Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Backward Classes.
- According to the Fifth Schedule [Article 244 (1)] of the Indian Constitution, there shall be established in each State having Scheduled Areas therein and, if the President so directs, also in any State having Scheduled Tribes but not Scheduled Areas therein, a Tribes Advisory Council consisting of not more than twenty members of whom, as nearly as may be, three-fourths shall be the representatives of the Scheduled Tribes in the Legislative Assembly of the State.
- There are six state offices of the National Commission for Scheduled Tribes. They keep a watch on the formulation of policy and issue of guidelines relating to the welfare of Scheduled Tribes in the States/UTs and keep the Commission's headquarters informed about the development periodically.

KEY TERMS

- **Globalization:** Globalization is the process of international integration arising from the interchange of world views, products, ideas, and other aspects of culture.
- **Civil and political rights:** A class of rights that protect individuals from unwarranted infringement by governments and private organizations, and ensure one's ability to participate in the civil and political life of the state without discrimination or repression

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. State two problems that are faced by women labourers employed in agricultural farms.
2. What is an SHG?
3. Which Article of the Indian Constitution defines Scheduled Castes?
4. What does the Fifth Schedule of the Indian Constitution deal with?
5. Mention any two functions of the National Commission for Scheduled Tribes.

FURTHER READING

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Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 (Act No. 25)

An Act to provide for the payment of equal remuneration to men and women workers and for the prevention of discrimination, on the ground of sex, against women in the matter of employment and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto.

CHAPTER I

PRELIMINARY

1. **Short title, extent and commencement:** this act may be called the Equal Remineration Act, 1976. it extends to the whole of India.

2. **Definition:**
    (a) Appropriate government means: 1. In relation to any employment carried on by or under the authority of central Government or a railway administration, or in relation to a banking company, a mine oil field or majour port or any corporation established by or under a Central Act, the Central Government, and. 2. In relation to any other employm,ent, the State Government
    (b) Commencement of this Act means inrelation to establishment, the date on which this Act comes into force in respect of that establishement or employment
    (c) Man and woman means male and female human being respectively of any age

CHAPTER II

Payment of Remuneration of Equal Rates to Men and Women Workers and other Matters

3. Duty of Employer to Pay Equal Remuneration to men and women workers for same work or work of similar nature:
    1. no employer shall pay to any worker, employed by him in an establishment or employment, remuneration, whether payable in cash or in kind, at rates less favourable than those at which remuneration is paid by him to the workers of the opposite sex in such establishment or employment for performing the same work or work of a similar nature.
    2. no employer shall, for the purpose of complying with the provisions of sub-section 1 reduce the rate of remuneration of any worker.
    3. where in any establishment on employment, the rates of remuneration payable before the commencement of this Act for men and women workers for the same work or work of a similar nature are different only on the ground of sex, then the higher (in cases where there are more than two rates) of such rates shall be the rate at which remuneration shall be payable, on and from such commencement, to such men and women workers. Provided that nothing in this sub-section shall be deemed payable to him or her with reference to the service rendered by him or her before the commencement of this Act.

4. **No discrimination to be made while recurring men and women workers:** on and from the commencement of this Act, no employer shall, while making recruitment for the same work or work of a similar nature make any discrimination against women except where the employment of women in such work is prohibited or restricted by or under any law for the time being in force.

5. **Advisory Committee:** 1. for the purpose of providing increasing employment opportunities for women, the appropriate government shall constitute one or more advisory committees to advise i t with regard to the extent to which wo men may be employed in such establishment or employment as the central Government may, by notification, specify in this behalf. 2. Every advisory committee shall consist of not less than ten persons to be nominated by the appropriate government, of which one-half shall be women.

The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961 (Act No. 28 of 1961)

An Act to prohibit the giving and taking of dowry.

Be it enacted by Parliament in the twelfth year of the Republic of India as follows:

1. **Short title, extent and commencement.** This Act may be called the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961. It extends to the whole of India except the state of Jammu & Kashmir. It shall come into force on such date as the central Government may, by notification in the official Gazette, appoint.

2. **Definition of Dowry:** in this Act, 'dowry' means any property or valuable security given or agreed to be given either directly or indirectly-

   (a) by one party to a marriage to the other party to the marriage; or

   (b) by the parents of either party to a marriage or by any other person, to either party to the marriage or to any other person; at or before any time after the marriage in connection with the marriage of said parties but does not include dower or mahr in the case of persons to whom the Muslim Personal Law (Shariat) applies.

   Explanation II- The expression valuable security has the same meaning as in Sec. 30 of the Indian Penal Code 45 of 1860).

3. **Penalty for giving and taking Dowry:**

   1. if any person, after the commencement of this Act, gives or takes or abets the giving or taking of Dowry, he shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which shall not be less than five years, and with the fine which shall not be less than fifteen rupees or the amount of the value of such dowry, whichever is more:

      Provided that the court may, for adequate and speciall reasons to be recorded in the judgment, impose a sentence of imprisonment for a term of less than five years.

      Explanation I omitted by Sec. 2 w.e.f. 2nd October, 1985

   2. Nothing in sub-section (1) shall apply to or, in relation to, persons which are given at the time of a marriage to the bride (without any demand having been made in that behalf): provided that such presents are entered inlist maintained in accordance with rule made under this Act;

      Presents which are given at the time of marriage to the bridegroom (without any demand having been made in that behalf):

      Provided that such presents are made by or on behalf of the bride or any person related to the bride such presents are of a customary nature and the value thereof is not excessive having regard to the financial status of the persons by whom, or on whose behalf, such presents are given.

4. **Penalty for demanding Dowry:**

   If any persons demands directly or indirectly, from the parents or other relatives or guardian of a bride or bridegroom as the case may be, any dowry, he shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which shall not be less than six months but which may extend to two years and with fine which may extend to ten thousand rupees:

   Provided that th Court may, for adequate and speciall reasons to be mentioned in the judgment, impose a sentence of imprisonment for a term of less than six months.

4-A. **Ban on advertisement- if any person:**

   (a) offers through any advertisement in any newspaper, periodicals, journal or through any other media any share in any his property or of any money or both as a share in any business or other interest as consideration for the marriage of his son or daughter or any other relative,

(b) prints or publishes or circulates any advertisement referred to Cl. (a), he shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which shall not be less than six months, but which may extend to five years, or with fine which may extend to fifteen thousand rupees: provided that the Court may, for adequate and special reasons to be recorded in the judgment, impose a sentence of imprisonment for a term of less than six months.

5. **Agreement for giving and taking dowry to be avoided**

Any agreement for the giving and taking dowry shall be void.

6. **Dowry to be for the benefit of the wife or heir**

1. where any dowry is received by any person other than the woman in connection with whose marriage it is given, that person shall transfer it to the woman:

    (a) if the dowry was revieved bfore marriage, within three months after the date of marriage; or

    (b) if the dowry was received at the time of or after the marriage within three months after the date of its receipt; or

    (c) if the dowry was received when the women was a minor, within three months after she has attained the age of eighteen years, and pending such transfer, shall hold itin trust for the benefit of the woman.

2. If any person fails to transfer any property as required by sub-section (1) within the time limit specified therefore or as required by sub-section (3) he shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which shall not be less than six months, but which may extent two years or with fine which shall not be less than five thousand rupees, but which may extend to ten thousand rupees or with both.

3. where the women entitled to any property under sub-section (1) dies before receiving it, the heirs of woman shall be entitled to claim it from the person belonging it for the time being:

    Provided that where such woman dies within seven years of her marriage, otherwise than due to natural cause, such property shall- if she has no children, be transferred to her parents, or if she has children, be transferred to such children and pending such transfer, be held in trust for such children.

7. **Cognisance of offences.** (1) Notwithstanding anything contained in the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 (2of 1974),-no Court inferior to that of a Metropolitan magistrate or a Judicial Magistrate of the first class shall try any offence under this Act; no Court shall take cognizance of an offence under this Act except upon–(i) its own knowledge or a police report of the facts which constitute such offence, or(ii) a complaint by the person aggrieved by offence or a parent or other relative of such person, or by any recognized welfare institution or organization: it shall be lawful for a Metropolitan Magistrate or a Judicial Magistrate of the first class to pass any sentence authorized by this Act on any person convicted of any offence under this Act.

Explanation. For the purposes of this sub-section, " recognised welfare institution or organization" means a social welfare institution or organization recognized in this behalf by the Central or State Government.(2) Nothing in Chapter XXXVI of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 (2of 1974), shall apply to any offence punishable under this Act.)Notwithstanding anything contained in any law for the time being in force, a statement made by the person aggrieved by the offence shall not subject such person to a prosecution under this Act.

8. **Offences to be congnizable for certain purposes and to be bailable and non-compoundable.** (1) The Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 (2 of 1974) shall apply to offences under this Act as of they were cognizable offences-(a) for the purpose of investigation of such offences; and(b) for the purpose of matters other than-(i) matters referred to in Sec. 42 of that Code, and(ii) the arrest of person without a warrant or without an order of a Magistrate.(2) Every offence under this Act shall be non-bailable and non-compoundable.

8-A. Burden of proof in certain cases. Where any person is prosecuted for taking or abetting the taking of any dowry under Sec. 3, or the demanding of dowry under Sec.4, the burden of proving that he had not committed an offence under those sections shall be on him.

8-B. Dowry Prohibition Officers. (1) The State Government may appoint as many Dowry Prohibition Officers as it thinks fit and specify the areas in respect of which they shall exercise their jurisdiction and powers under this Act.(2) Every Dowry Prohibition Officer shall exercise and perform the following powers and functions, namely, -(a) to see that the provisions of this Act are complied with;(b) to prevent, as far as possible, the taking or abetting the taking of, of the demanding of, dowry;(c) to collect such evidence as may be necessary for the prosecution of persons committing offences under the Act; and(d) to perform such additional functions as may be assigned to him by the State Government, or as may be specified in the rules made under this Act.(3) The State Government may, by notification in the official Gazette, confer such powers of a police officer as may be specified in the notification, the Dowry Prohibition Officer who shall exercise such powers subject to such limitations and conditions as may be specified by rules made under this Act.(4) The State Government may, for the purpose of advising and assisting the Dowry Prohibition Officers in the efficient performance of their functions under this Act, appoint an advisory board consisting of not more than five social welfare workers (out of whom at least two shall be women) from the area in respect of which such Dowry Prohibition Officer exercises jurisdiction under sub-section (1).

9. Power to make rules. (1) The Central Government may, by notification in the official Gazettee, make rules for carrying out the purposes of this Act.(2) In particular, and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power, such rules may provide for-(a) the form and manner in which, and the persons by whom, any list of presents referred to in sub-section (2) of Sec. 3 shall be maintained and all other matters connected therewith; and(b) the better co-ordination of policy and action with respect to the administration of this Act.(3)Every rules made under this section shall be laid as soon as may be after it is made before each House of Parliament while it is in session for a total period of thirty days which may be comprised in one session or in two or more successive sessions, and if, before the expiry of the session immediately following the session or the successive sessions aforesaid both Houses agree in making any modification in the rule or both Houses agree that the rule should not be made, the rule shall thereafter have effect only in such modified form or be; of no effect, as the case may be, so, however, that any such modification or annulment shall be without prejudice to the validity of anything previously done under that rule.

10. Power of the State Government to make rules. The State Government may, by notification in the official Gazette, make rules for carrying out the purposes of this Act.(2) In particular, and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing power, such rules may provide for all or any of the following matters, namely:(a) the additional functions to be performed by the Dowry Prohibition Officers under sub-section(2) of Sec. 8-B;(b) l imitations and conditions subject to which a Dowry Prohibition Officer may exercise his functions under sub-section (3) of Sec. 8-B.(3) Every rule made by the State Government under this section shall be laid as soon as may be after it is made before the State Legislature.

The Dowry Prohibition (Maintenance of LIsts of Presents to the Bride and Bridegroom) Rules, 1985 G.S.R. 664 (E), dated 19th August, 1985. In exercise of the powers conferred by Sec.9 of the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961 (28 of 1961), the Central Government hereby makes the following rules, namely:

1. **Short title and commencement:** (1) These rules may be called the Dowry Prohibition (Maintenance of Lists of Presents to the Bride and Bridegroom) Rules, 1985.(2) They shall come into force on the 2nd day of October, 1985, being the date appointed for the coming into force of the Dowry Prohibition (Amendment) Act, 1984 (63 of 1984).

2. **Rules in accordance with which lists of presents are to be maintained:** (1) The list of presents which are given at the time of the marriage to the bride shall be maintained by the bride. (2) The list of present which are given at the time of the marriage to the bridegroom

shall be maintained by the bridegroom.Every list of presents referred to in sub-rule (1) or sub-rule (2),-(a) shall be prepared at the time of the marriage or as soon as possible after the marriage:(b) shall be in writing;(c) shall contain,- (i) a brief description of each present; (ii) the approximate value of the present; (iii)the name of the person who has given the present; and (iv)where the person giving the present is related to the bride or bridegroom, a description of such relationship;(d) shall be signed by both the bride and the bridegroom.

Explanation. 1. Where the bride is unable to sign, she may affix her thumb impression in lieu of her signature after having the list read out to her and obtaining the signature on the list, of the person who has so read out the particulars contained in the list.

Explanation 2. Where the bridegroom is unable to sign he may affix his thumb-impression in lieu of his signature after having the list read out to him and obtaining the signature on the list of the person who has so read out the particulars contained in the list. (4) The bride or the bridegroom may, if she or he so desires, obtain on either or both of the lists referred to in sub-rule (1) or sub-rule (2) the signature or signatures of any relations of the bride or the bridegroom or of any other person or persons present at the time of the marriage.

HINDU SUCCESSION ACT, 1956 [Act No. 30 of Year 1956, dated 17th. June, 1956]

CHAPTER I

PRELIMINARY

1. Short title and extent

(1) This Act may be called the Hindu Succession Act, 1956

(2) It extends to the whole of India except the State of Jammu and Kashmir.

2. Application of Act

(1) This Act applies-

  (a) to any person, who is a Hindu by religion in any of its forms or developments including a Virashaiva, a Lingayat or a follower of the Brahmo, Prarthana or Arya Samaj;

  (b) to any person who is Buddhist, Jaina or Sikh by religion; and

  (c) to any other person who is not a Muslim, Christian, Parsi or Jew by religion unless it is proved that any such person would not have been governed by the Hindu law or by any custom or usage as part of that law in respect of any of the matters dealt with herein if this Act had not been passed.

Explanation : The following persons are Hindus, Buddhists, Jainas or Sikhs by religion, as the case may be:-

  (a) any child, legitimate or illegitimate, both of whose parents are Hindus, Buddhists, Jainas or Sikhs by religion;

  (b) any child, legitimate or illegitimate, one of whose parents is a Hindu, Buddhist, Jaina or Sikh by religion and who is brought up as a member of the tribe, community, group or family to which such parent belongs or belonged;

  (c) any person who is a convert or re-convert to the Hindu, Buddhist, Jaina or Sikh religion.

(2) Notwithstanding anything contained in sub-section (1), nothing contained in this Act shall apply to the members of any Scheduled Tribe within the meaning of clause (25) of article 366 of the Constitution unless the Central Government, by notification in the Official Gazette, otherwise directs.

(3) The expression " Hindu" in any portion of this Act shall be construed as if it included a person who, though not a Hindu by religion, is, nevertheless, a person to whom this Act applies by virtue of the provisions contained in this section.

3. Definitions and interpretations

(1) In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires

  (a) " agnate" - one person is said to be an " agnate" of another if the two are related by blood or adoption wholly through males;

  (b) " Aliyasantana law" means the system of law applicable to persons who, if this Act had not been passed, would have been governed by the Madras Aliyasantana Act, 1949, or by the customary Aliyasantana law with respect to the matters for which provision is made in this Act;

  (c) " cognate" - one person is said to be a cognate of another if the two are related by blood or adoption but not wholly through males;

  (d) the expressions " custom" and " usage" signify any rule which having been continuously and uniformly observed for a long time, has obtained the force of law among Hindus in any local area, tribe, community, group or family:

Provided that the rule is certain and not unreasonable or opposed to public policy:

Provided further that in the case of a rule applicable only to a family it has not been discontinued by the family;

(e) "full blood", "half blood" and "uterine blood" -

 (i) two persons said to be related to each other by full blood when they are descended from a common ancestor by the same wife, and by half blood when they are descended from a common ancestor but by different wives;

 (ii) two persons are said to be related to each other by uterine blood when they are descended from a common ancestress but by different husbands;

Explanation : In this clause " ancestor" includes the father and " ancestress" the mother,

 (f) " heir" means any person, male or female, who is entitled to succeed to the property of an intestate under this Act;

(g) " intestate" - a person is deemed to die intestate in respect of property of which he or she has not made a testamentary disposition capable of taking effect;

(h) " marumakkattayam law" means the system of law applicable to persons-

 (a) who, if this Act had not been passed, would have been governed by the Madras

   Marumakkattayam Act, 1932; the Travancore Nayar Act; the Travancore Ezhava Act; the Travancore Nanjinad Vellala Act; the Travancore Kshatriya Act; the Travancore Krishnanvaka Marumakkathayyee Act; the Cochin Marumakkathayam Act; or the Cochin Nayar Act with respect to the matters for which provision is made in this Act; or

 (b) who belong to any community, the members of which are largely domiciled in the State of Travancore-Cochin or Madras 1[as it existed immediately before the lst November, 1956,] and who, if this Act had not been passed, would have been governed with respect to the matters for which provision is made in this Act by any system of inheritance in which descent is traced through the female line.

 But does not include the Aliyasantana law;

 (i) " Nambudri law " means the system of law applicable to persons who if this Act had not been passed, would have been governed by the Madras Nambudri Act, 1932; the Cochin Nambudri Act; or the Travancore Malayala Brahmin Act with respect to the matters for which provision is made in this Act;

(j) " related" means related by legitimate kinship:

 Provided that illegitimate children shall be deemed to be related to their mother and to one another, and their legitimate descendants shall be deemed to be related to them and to one another; and any word expressing relationship or denoting a relative shall be construed accordingly.

(2) In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires, words imparting the masculine gender shall not be taken to include females.

4. Overriding effect of Act

(1) Save as otherwise expressly provided in this Act,-

(a) any text, rule or interpretation of Hindu law or any custom or usage as part of that law in force immediately before the commencement of this Act shall cease to have effect with respect to any matter for which provision is made in this Act;

(b) any other law in force immediately before the commencement of this Act shall cease to apply to Hindus insofar as it is inconsistent with any of the provisions contained in this Act.

(2) For the removal of doubts it is hereby declared that nothing contained in this Act shall be deemed to affect the provisions of any law for the time being in force providing for the prevention of fragmentation of agricultural holdings or for the fixation of ceilings or for the devolution of tenancy rights in respect of such holdings.

CHAPTER II

INTESTATE SUCCESSION

5. Act not to apply to certain properties

This Act shall not apply to-

(i) any property succession to which is regulated by the Indian Succession Act, 1925, by reason of the provisions contained in section 21 of the Special Marriage Act, 1954;

(ii) any estate which descends to a single heir by the terms of any covenant or agreement entered into by the Ruler of any Indian State with the Government of India or by the terms of any enactment passed before the commencement of this Act;

(iii) the Valiamma Thampuran Kovilagam Estate and the Palace Fund administered by the Palace

Administration Board by reason of the powers conferred by Proclamation (IX of 1124) dated 29th June, 1949, promulgated by the Maharaja of Cochin.

6. Devolution of interest of coparcenary property

When a male Hindu dies after the commencement of this Act, having at the time of his death an interest in a Mitakshara coparcenary property, his interest in the property shall devolve by survivorship upon the surviving members of the coparcenary and not in accordance with this Act.

Provided that, if the deceased had left him surviving a female relative specified in class I of the Schedule or a male relative specified in that class who claims through such female relative, the interest of the deceased in the Mitakshara coparcenary property shall devolve by testamentary or intestate succession, as the case may be, under this Act and not by survivorship.

Explanation I: For the purposes of this section, the interest of a Hindu Mitakshara coparcener shall be deemed to be the share in the property that would have been allotted to him if a partition of the property had taken place immediately before his death, irrespective of whether he was entitled to claim partition or not.

Explanation 2: Nothing contained in the proviso to this section shall be construed as enabling a person who has separated himself from the coparcenary before the death of the deceased or any of his heirs to claim on intestacy a share in the interest referred to therein.

7. Devolution of interest in the property of a tarwad, tavazhi, kutumba, kavaru or illom

(1) When a Hindu to whom the marumakkattayam or nambudri law would have applied if this Act had not been passed dies after the commencement of this Act, having at the time of his or her death an interest in the property of a tarwad, tavazhi or illom, as the case may be, his or her interest in the property shall devolve by testamentary or intestate succession, as the case may be, under this Act and not according to the marumakkattayam or numbudri law.

Explanation : For the purposes of this sub-section, the interest of a Hindu in the property of a tarwad, tavazhi or illom shall be deemed to be the share in the property of the tarwad, tavazhi or illom, as the case may be, that would have fallen to him or her if a partition of that property per capita had been made immediately before his or her death among all the members of tarwad, tavazhi or illom, as the case may be, then living, whether he or she was entitled to claim such partition or not under the marumakkattayam or nambudri law applicable to him or her, and such share shall be deemed to have been allotted to him or her absolutely.

(2) When a Hindu to whom the aliyasantana law would have applied if this Act had not been passed, dies after the commencement of this Act, having at the time of his or her death an undivided interest in the property of a kutumba or kavaru, as the case may be his or her interest in the property shall devolve by testamentary or intestate succession, as the case may be, under this Act and not according to the aliyasantana law.

Explanation : For the purposes of this sub-section, the interest of a Hindu in the property of kutumba or kavaru shall be deemed to be the share in the property of the kutumba or kavaru as the case may be, that would have fallen to him or her if a partition of that property per capita had been made immediately before his or her death among all the members of the kutumba or kavaru, as the case may be, then living, whether he or she was entitled to claim such partition or not under the aliyasantana law, and such share shall be deemed to have been allotted to him or her absolutely.

(3) Notwithstanding anything contained in sub-section (1), when a sthanamdar dies after the commencement of this Act, sthanam property held by him shall devolve upon the members of the family to which the sthanamdar belonged and the heirs of the sthanamdar as if the sthanam property had been divided per capita immediately before the death of the sthanamdar among himself and all the members of his family then living, and the shares falling to the members of his family and the heirs of the sthanamdar shall be held by them as their separate property.

Explanation: For the purposes of this sub-section, the family of a sthanamdar shall include every branch of that family, whether divided or undivided, the male members of which would have been entitled by any custom or usage to succeed to the position of sthanamdar if this Act had not been passed.

8. General rules of succession in the case of males

The property of a male Hindu dying intestate shall devolve according to the provisions of this Chapter-

(a) firstly, upon the heirs, being the relatives specified in class I of the Schedule;

(b) secondly, if there is no heir of class I, then upon the heirs, being the relatives specified in class II of the Schedule;

(c) thirdly, if there is no heir of any of the two classes, then upon the agnates of the deceased; and

(d) lastly, if there is no agnate, then upon the cognates of the deceased.

9. Order of succession among heirs in the Schedule

Among the heirs specified in the Schedule, those in class I shall take simultaneously and to the exclusion of all other heirs; those in the first entry in class II shall be preferred to those in the second entry; those in the second entry shall be preferred to those in the third entry; and so on in succession.

10. Distribution of property among heirs in class I of the Schedule

The property of an intestate shall be divided among the heirs in class I of the Schedule in accordance with the following rules:

Rule 1-The intestate's widow, or if there are more widows than one, all the widows together, shall take one share.

Rule 2-The surviving sons and daughters and the mother of the intestate shall each take one share.

Rule 3-The heirs in the branch of each pre-deceased son or each pre-deceased daughter of the intestate shall take between them one share.

Rule 4-The distribution of the share referred to in Rule 3-

(i) among the heirs in the branch of the pre-deceased son shall be so made that his widow (or widows together) and the surviving sons and daughters get equal portions; and the branch of his predeceased sons gets the same portion;

(ii) among the heirs in the branch of the pre-deceased daughter shall be so made that the surviving sons and daughters get equal portions.

11. Distribution of property among heirs in class II of the Schedule

The property of an intestate shall be divided between the heirs specified in any one entry in class II of the Schedule so that they share equally.

12. Order of succession among agnates and cognates

The order of succession among agnates or cognates, as the case may be, shall be determined in accordance with the rules of preference laid down hereunder:

Rule 1- Of two heirs, the one who has fewer or no degrees of ascent is preferred.

Rule 2- Where the number of degrees of ascent is the same or none, that heir is preferred who has fewer or no degrees of descent.

Rule 3- Where neither heirs is entitled to be preferred to the other under Rule 1 or Rule 2 they take simultaneously.

13. Computation of degrees

(1) For the purposes of determining the order of succession among agnates or cognates, relationship shall be reckoned from the intestate to the heir in terms of degrees of ascent or degrees of descent or both, as the case may be.

(2) Degrees of ascent and degrees of descent shall be computed inclusive of the intestate.

(3) Every generation constitutes a degree either ascending or descending.

14. Property of a female Hindu to be her absolute property

(1) Any property possessed by a Female Hindu, whether acquired before or after the commencement of this Act, shall be held by her as full owner thereof and not as a limited owner.

Explanation: In this sub-section, " property" includes both movable and immovable property acquired by a female Hindu by inheritance or devise, or at a partition, or in lieu of maintenance or arrears of maintenance, or by gift from any person, whether a relative or not, before, at or after her marriage, or by her own skill or exertion, or by purchase or by prescription, or in any other manner whatsoever, and also any such property held by her as stridhana immediately before the commencement of this Act.

(2) Nothing contained in sub-section (1) shall apply to any property acquired by way of gift or under a will or any other instrument or under a decree or order of a civil court or under an award where the terms of the gift, will or other instrument or the decree, order or award prescribe a restricted estate in such property.

15. General rules of succession in the case of female Hindus

(1) The property of a female Hindu dying intestate shall devolve according to the rules set out in section 16 :

 (a) firstly, upon the sons and daughters (including the children of any pre-deceased son or daughter) and the husband;

 (b) secondly, upon the heirs of the husband;

 (c) thirdly, upon the mother and father;

 (d) fourthly, upon the heirs of the father; and

 (e) lastly, upon the heirs of the mother.

(2) Notwithstanding anything contained in sub-section (1)

 (a) any property inherited by a female Hindu from her father or mother shall devolve, in the absence of any son or daughter of the deceased (including the children of any pre-deceased son or daughter) not upon the other heirs referred to in sub-section (1) in the order specified therein, but upon the heirs of the father; and

 (b) any property inherited by a female Hindu from her husband or from her father-in-law shall devolve, in the absence of any son or daughter of the deceased (including

the children of any predeceased son or daughter) not upon the other heirs referred to in sub-section (1) in the order specified therein, but upon the heirs of the husband.

16. Order of succession and manner of distribution among heirs of a female Hindu

The order of succession among the heirs referred to in section 15 shall be, and the distribution of the intestate's property among those heirs shall take place, according to the following rules, namely:-

Rule 1- Among the heirs specified in sub-section (1) of section 15, those in one entry shall be preferred to those in any succeeding entry and those including in the same entry shall take simultaneously.

Rule 2- If any son or daughter of the intestate had pre-deceased the intestate leaving his or her own children alive at the time of the intestate's death, the children of such son or daughter shall take between them the share which such son or daughter would have taken if living at the intestate's death.

Rule 3-The devolution of the property of the intestate on the heirs referred to in clauses (b), (d) and (e) of sub-section (1) and in sub-section (2) of section 15 shall be in the same order and according to the same rules as would have applied if the property had been the father's or the mother's or the husband's as the case may be, and such person had died intestate in respect thereof immediately after the intestate's death.

17. Special provisions respecting persons governed by Marumakkattayam and Aliyasantana laws

The provisions of sections 8, 10, 15 and 23 shall have effect in relation to persons who would have been governed by the marumakkattayam law or aliyasantana law if this Act had not been passed as if-

(i) for sub-clauses (c) and (d) of section 8, the following had been substituted, namely:-
" (c) thirdly, if there is no heir of any of the two classes, then upon his relatives, whether agnates or cognates.";

(ii) for clauses (a) to (e) of sub-section (1) of section 15, the following had been substituted, namely:-
" (a) firstly, upon the sons and daughters (including the children of any pre-deceased son or daughter) and the mother;
(b) secondly, upon the father and the husband;
(c) thirdly, upon the heirs of the mother;
(d) fourthly, upon the heirs of the father; and
(e) lastly, upon the heirs of the husband.";

(iii) clause (a) of sub-section (2) of section 15 had been omitted;

(iv) section 23 had been omitted.

18. Full blood preferred to half blood

Heirs related to an intestate by full blood shall be preferred to heirs related by half blood, if the nature of the relationship is the same in every other respect.

19. Mode of succession of two or more heirs

If two or more heirs succeed together to the property of an intestate, they shall take the property-

(a) save as otherwise expressly provided in this Act, per capita and not per stripes; and

(b) as tenants-in-common and not as joint tenants.

20. Right of child in womb

A child who was in the womb at the time of death of an intestate and who is subsequently born alive has the same right to inherit to the intestate as if he or she had been born before the death of the intestate, and the inheritance shall be deemed to vest in such a case with effect from the date of the death of the intestate.

21. Presumption in cases of simultaneous deaths

Where two persons have died in circumstances rendering it uncertain whether either of them, and if so which, survived the other, then for all purposes affecting succession to property, it shall be presumed, until the contrary is proved, that the younger survived the elder.

22. Preferential right to acquire property in certain cases

(1) Where, after the commencement of this Act, interest in any immovable property of an intestate, or in any business carried on by him or her, whether solely or in conjunction with others, devolve upon to two or more heirs specified in class I of the Schedule, and any one of such heirs proposes to transfer his or her interest in the property or business, the other heirs shall have a preferential right to acquire the interest proposed to be transferred.

(2) The consideration for which any interest in the property of the deceased may be transferred under this section shall, in the absence of any agreement between the parties, be determined by the court on application being made to it in this behalf, and if any person proposing to acquire the interest is not willing to acquire it for the consideration so determined, such person shall be liable to pay all costs of or incident to the application.

(3) If there are two or more heirs specified in class I of the Schedule proposing to acquire any interest under this section, that heir who offers the highest consideration for the transfer shall be preferred.

Explanation : In this section, " court" means the court within the limits of whose jurisdiction the immovable property is situate or the business is carried on, and includes any other court which the State Government may, by notification in the Official Gazette, specify in this behalf.

23. Special provision respecting dwelling houses

Where a Hindu intestate has left surviving him or her both male and female heirs specified in class I of the Schedule and his or her property includes a dwelling-house wholly occupied by members of his or her family, then, notwithstanding anything contained in this Act, the right of any such female heir to claim partition of the dwelling-house shall not arise until the male heirs choose to divide their respective shares therein; but the female heir shall be entitled to a right of residence therein:

Provided that where such female heir is a daughter, she shall be entitled to a right of residence in the dwelling-house only if she is unmarried or has been deserted by or has separated from her husband or is a widow.

24. Certain widows remarrying may not inherit as widows

Any heir who is related to an intestate as the widow of a pre-deceased son, the widow of a predeceased son of a pre-deceased son or the widow of a brother shall not be entitled to succeed to the property of the intestate as such widow, if on the date the succession opens, she has re-married.

25. Murderer disqualified

A person who commits murder or abets the commission of murder shall be disqualified from inheriting the property of the person murdered, or any other property in furtherance of the succession to which he or she committed or abetted the commission of the murder.

26. Convert's descendants disqualified

Where, before or after the commencement of this Act, a Hindu has ceased or ceases to be a Hindu by conversion to another religion, children born to him or her after such conversion and their descendants shall be disqualified from inheriting the property of any of their Hindu relatives, unless such children or descendants are Hindus at the time when the succession opens.

27. Succession when heir disqualified

If any person is disqualified from inheriting any property under this Act, it shall devolve as if such person had died before the intestate.

28. Disease, defect, etc. not to disqualify

No person shall be disqualified from succeeding to any property on the ground of any disease, defect or deformity, or save as provided in this Act, on any other ground whatsoever.

29. Failure of heirs

If an intestate has left no heir qualified to succeed to his or her property in accordance with the provisions of this Act, such property shall devolve on the government; and the government shall take the property subject to all the obligations and liabilities to which an heir would have been subjected.

CHAPTER III

TESTAMENTARY SUCCESSION

30. Testamentary succession

Any Hindu may dispose of by will or other testamentary disposition any property, which is capable of being so disposed of by him, in accordance with the provisions of the Indian Succession Act, 1925, or any other law for the time being in force and applicable to Hindus.

Explanation: The interest of a male Hindu in a Mitakshara coparcenary property or the interest of a member of a tarwad, tavazhi, illom, kutumba or kavaru in the property of the tarwad, tavazhi, illom, kutumba or kavaru shall notwithstanding anything contained in this Act or in any other law for the time being in force, be deemed to be property capable of being disposed of by him or by her within the meaning of this section.

Block-4

BUREAUCRACY AND DEVELOPMENT

Unit-13: Concept of Bureaucracy

Unit-14: Historical Background of Indian Bureaucracy

Unit-15: Changing Role of the District Collector

Unit-16: Role of Block Development Officer

UNIT-13: Concept of Bureaucracy

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- An Overview of Bureaucracy and Development
- Concept of Bureaucracy
  - Origin of the Concept
  - Development of Bureaucracy
  - Max Weber on Bureaucracy
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn in detail about bureaucracy and development. You will learn how urgency of development has brought about a change in the role of the District Collector, Block Development Officers and other important officials.

Bureaucracy and development have been significantly discussed in the field of public administration. There has been a discussion on whether bureaucracy, characterized by economic values of the West, could be seen as suitable for the administration in developing nations or not. William Delany and Joseph La Palombura have categorically specified that the Weberian model of bureaucracy could not be useful for developing traditional societies.

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UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the term bureaucracy
- Analyze the meaning of bureaucracy as given by different authors
- Examine the Development of Bureaucracy
- Analyze the Max Weber on Bureaucracy

AN OVERVIEW OF BUREAUCRACY AND DEVELOPMENT

The term " bureaucracy" refers to a multifarious, specialized organization which consists of non-elected, highly-skilled professional administrators and clerks employed on a full-time basis to implement administrative services and tasks efficiently. Further, this is subdivided into specialized

departments or ministries in the bureaucratic organizations, each of which is assigned responsibilities for pursuing various official goals and policies established by the government – those falling within a single relatively narrow functional domain. The departments or ministries are broken up into divisions that are each designated more specialized work for accomplishing certain portions or aspects of the department's overall assignments, and these divisions are, in turn, composed of several agencies or bureaus with even more minutely specialized functions and many a times, their own subdivisions. Such is the hierarchical functionality of these organizations.

According to Prof. Merle Fainsod,

"Improvements in the effectiveness of development administration depends on the quality and training of public servants who man it and on a social and political environment which liberates their energies. Structural adjustments can work no developmental miracles where administrative manpower is inadequate or the ill to develop is lacking. The secret of development is not concealed in the interstices of governmental or administrative structures. Development takes place where skill is supported by commitment and the human material resources exist to translate dreams into actualities."

Bureaucracy refers to the rational-legal authority. It runs the governmental machinery with professional skills, discipline, precision and reliability. It is a mechanism for achieving the goal laid down by those who control it. Sociologist **Max Weber**, in his 1922 book **Economics and Society**, initiated the classic social scientific analysis of bureaucracy. Weber, like the good German he was, mentioned in his book the belief that 'a permanent, well-educated, conscientious, " non- partisan" , Prussian-style bureaucracy professionally committed to implementing whatever decisions the legitimate rulers of the state might arrive at was the best organizational form yet discovered for the rational and efficient pursuit of collective social goals in a modern society with a specialized and highly complex division of labour.' According to Weber, the organizations characterized by specialization of tasks, employment by merit, provision of career prospects for members and impersonal organizational climate is bureaucracy.

Bureaucratic methods also have their dark side, despite having a number of advantages for efficiently and effectively handling routine, recurring troubles in a fairly stable and foreseeable environment. Largely hired and promoted on the basis of educational qualifications and safeguarded by civil service personnel practices formed to provide a high degree of job security, bureaucratic officials often tend to be protected from accountability for the external consequences of their decisions as long as they are formally within the fixed rules or procedures of the organization. Sociologists such as Robert K. Merton and Michel Crozier have shown that there is pressure on officials for stringent conformation to stated rules and procedures. The personal gains such as salary and promotion prospects of the officials employed in large bureaucracies almost do not depend upon major success or efficiency by the organization in achieving higher goals. As any deviation from the established routine always asks for permission from remote higher authorities of the hierarchy, bureaucratic organizations tend to be unproductive and cumbersome in making important policy decisions. They are quite inefficient in designing a mechanism which recognizes and responds to the consequences of major changes in economic, social and technological policies and situations outside the organization. In other words, individual officials working under bureaucratic reinforcing systems always find it easy and convenient to adhere rigidly to and follow internal rules and procedures in a ceremonial fashion. They inherently behave as if

proper procedures are above the larger goals for satiating the needs of their clients or the general public they are supposedly designated to accomplish (The " Red Tape" phenomenon).

Therefore, in the modern world, bureaucracy is the dominant form of organization. It satisfies the needs of the society. Bureaucracy has become a part and parcel of the public life. It is an indispensable machinery for the implementation and execution of policies, programmes and governmental decisions.

CONCEPT OF BUREAUCRACY

Bureaucracy can be referred to as a group of officials within an institution or a government who draw up rules and regulations to control a number of activities. The group consists of non- elected officials and act as the backbone to the entire framework of the State. Planning is also done only through them. Some of the important definitions of bureaucracy are as follows:

- According to Pfiffner, " Bureaucracy is the systematic organization of tasks and individuals into a pattern which can most effectively achieve the ends of collective efforts".
- According to Herman Finer, " Bureaucracy is a professional body of officials, permanent, paid and skilled".
- According to Louis Coser and Rosenberg, *"Bureaucracy may be defined as that type of hierarchical organization which is designed rationally to coordinate the work of many individuals in the pursuit of large scale of administrative tasks".*
- Some of the most vital features of bureaucracy are standardized procedure (rule-following), chain of command, formal relationships and division of powers. There are four structural concepts which are central to any definition of bureaucracy:
  o A distinct division of administrative labour among people and offices;
  o A personnel system with constant patterns of recruitment and stable careers;
  o A strong hierarchical systems so that the authority and position are differentially dispersed among actors; and
  o Formal and informal linkages that unite organizational actors to one another through different tides of information and patterns of cooperation.

Examples of personnel administration include governments, corporations, hospitals, courts and schools. There are different types of bureaucracies that exist throughout the world, such as:

- *Merit Bureaucracy:* The recruitment is done purely on merit basis. It establishes the hierarchy of officers. Its main aim is " career open to talent".
- *Guardian Bureaucracy:* The conduct of officials is directed towards the welfare of its citizens.
- *Caste Bureaucracy:* The recruitment is on the basis of caste. It is prevalent in oligarchic political system.
- *Patronage Bureaucracy:* Recruitment is based purely on the principle of favouritism.

Origin of the Concept

The word " bureaucracy" is a derivative of the French word " bureau", meaning an office — a place where officials worked in the early 18th century. It came into usage shortly after the

French Revolution of 1789, and later, widely spread to other countries. This word was coined by Jean Claude Marie Vincent de Gournay. According to him, *"We have an illness in France which bids fair to play havoc with us; this illness is called bureaumania."* He characterized it as a fourth or fifth form of government. In the year 1798, the *Dictionary of French Academy* acknowledged the word in its dictionary and defined it as *"power, influence of the heads and staff of government bureaux".* The word became popular in Gaetano Mosca's writing in the *Ruling Class,* where he considered bureaucracy as being vital to the governing of great nations. He observed that the political system could be classified as either feudal or bureaucratic. It was, however, Max Weber, who established the modern sociological study of bureaucracy and stressed its indispensability for

rational attainment of the objectives of an organization. Thus, bureaucracy is an official organization manifest by a clear hierarchy of authority, the existence of written rules of procedure, having a full-time salaried staff and officials, and endeavouring for the efficient attainment of administrative goals.

Development of Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy is viewed as one of the ancient organizations of government and administration. It is very difficult to time down as to who the first bureaucrat was or where this institution of bureaucracy had emerged. However, looking into the history of Sumer (the first Mesopotamia civilization), we find that their scribes talk about bureaucrats who first arose as professionals in their cities. The Sumerian script was so difficult to decipher that they required the help of trained personnel who could read and write them. These scribes were in total monopoly of the bureaucrats. They were directly responsible to the King.

In the Persian empires, the government with strong bureaucracy had expanded its functions. The Persian Empire was further divided into administrative provinces led by satraps (the governor of an enormous territory with t remendous power in political, civil, judicial and military administration).They were appointed by the king and were given a broad range of authorities, functions and powers. The Persian bureaucracy was gigantic, centralized and professionalized.

The bureaucracy of China is the most contemporary of all the earliest bureaucracies. It was first executed during the Qin dynasty. Later it developed more on the lines of Confucianism under the Han dynasty. The bureaucracy was responsible for appointment of bureaucratic positions based on merit via a system of examinations. In England, such organized civil services are traced back to the 19th Century with the advent of the North Cote Travelyan Committee. During the modern period, the government of states grew larger, and as a result, modern bureaucracies became more prominent.

Max Weber on Bureaucracy

German sociologist, Max Weber, gave a renowned theory on bureaucracy. He described the ideal type of bureaucracy in a positive connotation. His analysis of bureaucracy is connected with the impact of rule of law upon the functioning of bureaucratic organizations. The following principles display the functioning of a bureaucratic organization:

- Official business is accomplished with strict accordance to work in terms of impersonal criteria.
- Necessary authority is given to the official to carry out his assigned functions.
- Conditions regarding the use of power are strictly defined and the means of coercion at the official's disposal are strictly limited.

- Official business is conducted on a continuous basis.
- With respective rights of supervision and appeal, every official's responsibilities and authority are part of a vertical hierarchy of authority.
- Private and official income as well as business are strictly separated.
- Officials are accountable for their use of these resources, but do not own the resources necessary for performance of their assigned functions.
- Offices cannot be appropriated by their incumbents (sold, inherited, etc.).
- Generally written documents are used to carry out official business.
- The work of bureaucratic officers is a full-time occupation and their appointment and job assignment are reliant upon their technical qualifications. Their work is rewarded by salaries and promotions. Officials will be responsible only for the assigned tasks and they should not let their personal judgment interfere with the official duties.

Criticism

- Vertical hierarchy of authority could be disturbed.
- Corruption, political infighting, nepotism and other degenerations can counter the rule of impersonality. Moreover, there is a possibility of creating a system of promotion and recruitment which is based on oligarchy, not meritocracy.
- Officials try to avoid accountability and seek anonymity by avoiding documentation of their procedures (or by creating extreme amounts of confusing and chaotic documents).
- There may be conflicts of competence. Authority could be unclear and used contrary to the spirit of the law.
- It could be insensitive to popular desires and demands.

American usage

Woodrow Wilson, in his writing as an academician, professed:

" Administration in the United States must be at all points sensitive to public opinion. A body of thoroughly trained officials serving during good behaviour we must have in any case: that is a plain business necessity. But the apprehension that such a body will be anything un-American clears away the moment it is asked. What is to constitute good behaviour? For that question obviously carries its own answer on its face. Steady, hearty allegiance to the policy of the government they serve will constitute good behaviour. That policy will have no taint of officialism about it. It will not be the creation of permanent officials, but of statesmen whose responsibility to public opinion will be direct and inevitable. Bureaucracy can exist only where the whole service of the state is removed from the common political life of the people, its chiefs as well as its rank and file. Its motives, its objects, its policy, its standards, must be bureaucratic."

According to *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*, ' bureaucracy is governmental officialism or inflexible routine'. *Roget's Thesaurus* gives equally demeaning synonyms for bureaucracy: 'officialism', 'officiousness', and 'red tape'.

SUMMARY

- The term 'Bureaucracy' refers to a multifarious, specialized organization which consists of non-elected, highly-skilled professional administrators and clerks employed on a full-

time basis to implement administrative services and tasks efficiently.

- Some of the most vital features of bureaucracy are standardized procedure (rule-following), chain of command, formal relationships and division of powers. There are four structural concepts which are central to any definition of bureaucracy:
  - o A distinct division of administrative labour among people and offices
  - o A personnel system with constant patterns of recruitment and stable careers
  - o A strong hierarchical systems so that the authority and position are differentially dispersed among actors
  - o Formal and informal linkages that bind organizational actors to one another through different tides of information and patterns of cooperation

- The word 'bureaucracy' is derived from the word 'bureau', meaning an office — a place where officials worked in the early 18th century. It came into usage shortly after the French Revolution of 1789, and later, widely spread to other countries.

- It is very difficult to establish the identity of the first bureaucrat or from where this institution of bureaucracy had emerged, but looking into the history of Sumer, we find that their scribes talk about bureaucrats who first arose as professionals in their cities.

- In the Persian empires, the government with strong bureaucracy had expanded its functions. The Persian Empire was further divided into administrative provinces led by satraps.

KEY TERMS

1. **Hierarchy:** Bureaucracies typically have a clear chain of command, with levels of authority arranged in a pyramid-like structure. Each level has its own set of responsibilities and decision-making powers.

2. **Division of Labor**: Tasks and responsibilities are divided among specialized roles within the organization. This division allows for greater efficiency and expertise in specific areas.

3. **Rules and Regulations**: Bureaucracies operate according to established rules, procedures, and regulations. These guidelines are designed to ensure consistency, fairness, and predictability in decision-making and operations.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Give Pfiffner's definition of bureaucracy.
2. What are the different types of bureaucracies that exist throughout the world?
3. From which word is " bureaucracy" derived?

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UNIT-14: Historical Background of Indian Bureaucracy

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Historical Background of Indian Bureaucracy
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

It has been observed that bureaucracy is the arrangement of the State through which the implementation of policies is carried out and whose functioning is based on the principle of standardization and codification. Development, on the other hand, is a concept based on the values of dynamism. Developing nations were encouraged to carry out more development-related programmes so that economic activities in the nation can be enhanced and people in the country can be blessed with improved per capita income and better standards of living. In order to pursue the objectives of development, it was necessary to have a well-organized machinery. Bureaucracy was seen as the only organized institution for a developing nation.

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UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Examine the Development of Bureaucracy
- Historical Background of Indian Bureaucracy

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF INDIAN BUREAUCRACY

Public Administration is as old as civilization itself. Since ancient times, monarchy is using the public administrative form of government. The history of Indian system of administration commenced from the Vedic times and accordingly continued up to AD 1000, till the establishment of the Mughal Empire. In the history of the development of Indian administration, numerous administrative organizations rose and fell, but its two specialists continue till the present time. From this, we can say that the present administrative system is developed from the old one. In other words, we can say that modern public administration is established on the fundamental pillars of the old public administrative system. We can catch glimpses of the old administrative system in the *Mahabharat, Ramayana* and *Manusmriti,* to name a few.

In ancient India, the power of controlling the State was in the hands of the King, but in Vedic times, the King was aided by numerous officers. As observed by the famous historian

Beni Prasad, the King was assisted by his friends and principal officers. The Empire was divided into provinces, and the provinces were further divided into districts. The districts were then divided

into departments of urban and rural development. In Vedic times, the number of such departments was limited, but later, the same department was extended and their jurisdiction was also evident in different departments. There was great emphasis on observation and inspection. Some of the principal departments during that time were the Place Department, Army Department, Department of External Affairs, Revenue Department as well as the Department of Treasury, Industry, Commerce and Justice. In Ancient India, there were different ranks and positions among government officers. In the Mauryan Dynasty, there were three classes of such officers, namely, City Officers, Military Officers and Village Officers. They were controlled by the Advisor or Minister. At that time, members of the exclusive groups were given special privileges. The King, the prime minister and the purohit formed a committee which is similar to the modern day public service commission. With reference to the olden times, the Indian administration may be studied under different heads, such as Ancient Indian Administration, Rajput Period Administration, Sultanate Period Administration, Mughal Period Administration, British Period Administration and Administration after Independence.

Ancient Indian Administration

During ancient times, there were various forms of government in different periods. In the Indus Valley Civilization, there were planned roads and drainage system in the cities. There was also a municipal government which looked after people's requirements and laid down a methodical procedure for the cities.

Rig Veda

The Indus Valley Civilization was succeeded by the Vedic period. The preliminary part of this period belongs to the Rig Vedic period which was followed by the post Vedic period. In the Rig Vedic period, administration units were referred to as 'Kul', 'Gram', 'Vish' and 'Nation'. 'Gram', or the village, consisted of the neighbouring households. In the administrative system of the Rig Vedic period, the smallest unit and the most basic entity was the family.

Post Vedic Period

This period witnessed the upsurge of influential and prevailing kingdom. There was an ordinary escalation in the number of officers aiding the King in his administration. The King took administrative advice from the council of ministers. The chief was known as the 'Mukhyamatya'. For administrative purposes, numerous departments, like the finance and defense departments, were created.

Period of the Epics

Ramayana and *Mahabharat* are very old epics of our country. In the *Ramayana* period, there was a system of monarchy. Administration was adequately advanced. As a consequence, the people were prosperous and happy. At the apex of the administration was the king. There used to be ministers and councillors to advise him regarding the management of the state and government. The foremost purpose of the state was to fulfill its duties, encourage morality as well

as increase opulence and contentment of the people.

Buddha Period

A reading of Buddhist literature depicts the advent of Gautam Buddha, and during his lifetime, shows the existence of 'Mahajanpadas'. During the period of Buddha, numerous republics were established. However, it is important to note that along with these republics, there were four big kingdoms, namely, 'Magadha', 'Avanti', 'Vats' and 'Kaushal'.

Saptanga Theory

Kautilya considered the state as crucial and in its absence, total anarchy would prevail. The only law known during that time was survival of the fittest or 'Matsya Nayaya', in which the smaller

fish was swallowed up by the bigger ones. He did not propound any logical theory of the state, its origin and end, but he appeared to believe in the social contract theory, according to which, the state came into existence after such a contract between the King and the people. Moreover, he considered the state a result of human nature and its necessity. Therefore, it was natural and advantageous. The offices of the prime minister or purohit did not come under the seven structures. They were distinct and independent. The seven structures gave stability to the state and were responsible for its survival and existence.

The Rajput Period Administration

The predominant form of the government during this period was monarchical, and to help the King, there used to be a council of ministers. The state was divided into smaller units, the biggest of which was 'Prant'. It should be noted that during this period, the popular control over the government had decreased and their importance was reduced as the system of government during this period was based on that of the Gupta period. However, the old institution has lost its importance.

Sultanate Period Administration

The Sultanate administration was basically military and its rulers were self-willed despots. However, as no one can administer the state alone, the Sultanate rulers also needed assistance and advice. Therefore, from the beginning, the Sultanate period established systematic administration. He was also accountable for judicial administration. The Sultan took recommendation from his advisors but was not bound to it.

In the beginning, the Turkish administration was completely military-based. The country was divided into regions, each of which was handed over to the principal general. The King, in addition, had to advise him, but there was no deftness in the ministers. The head of these ministers was known as the Wazir, who headed the entire administration. He had his own secretariat and there was a chain of officers to help him. Urban administration was under the guidance of a centralized bureaucracy, but the villagers had some sort of self-rule.

Mughal Period Administration

This period can be described best as the Muslim period. Even though the first Muslim invader, Mahummad Bin Kasim had conquered Sind in the 18th century, the end of the Hindu period is usually placed at AD 1000. The period can be subdivided into the Sultanate period, beginning with the defeat of the Chauhan King, Prithvi Raj, at the hand of the Mohammad Ghor in 1192. It was the Ghori provincial governor, Qutubuddin Aibak, who ascended the

throne in 1206.

We shall now attempt a brief description of the salient feature of the Mughals' rule, governance and administration. This can be done best under certain specific heads—the Mughal emperors as conquers and consolidators, the nature of Islamic rule, the king emperor, nobility, public services and bureaucracy. Thus, Ain-i-Kbari, Tujuk—i-jahangiri, Tarikh–i-Shahjhani and the written accounts of foreigners like Bernier, Thomas Roe and the Hawkins throw enough light on the administration during the Mughal period.

Nature of the Islamic Rule

It is very essential for an understanding of the Muslim rule to keep in mind the nature of Islam. Islam aimed at the realization in practice of a city where only the law of God prevailed. These laws were contained in the Quran, Hadith and Shariat. They recognized the possibility of any change in society. This explains fundamentalism in Islam which does not believe in compromises. As a consequence, Islam never envisaged a society which was dominated by non-Muslims.

The King Emperor

The King was the head of the Mughal Empire and its administration. As early as 1526, Babur had proclaimed himself as 'Badshah', and his successor followed suit. The term 'Pad' denotes stability

and over lordships and the term 'Shah' means ruler. Thus, the Mughal rulers prided themselves on owned allegiance to no one. Such a ruler was the head of both the political state and religion which pervaded almost every field. As such, the emperor was invested with all political and religious authority. He was also the supreme commander of the armed forces. He could amend any law and was vested with ultimate judicial authority. He was also the supreme commander of the armed forces. It is noteworthy that Islam did not recognize such divinity.

The Mughal ruler lived in luxury and his lifestyle was magnificent and prosperous. They enjoyed certain prerogatives which were special rights like sitting on the throne showing every morning to address the people, ordering death penalties, organizing elephant fights as well as lion and tiger hunts, conferment and distribution of titles regarding 'Kubota', issuance of coins in their names and putting the royal seal on government documents. However, the king led a well-regulated life and scheduled life. There were elaborate rules of etiquette to be observed by all who attended the durbars.

Nobility

Two characteristics of the baronial class deserve attention. The class of nobility was a heterogeneous body composed of diverse elements like Turks, Tartars, Persians and Indians. The second feature of nobility was that it was purely official in nature and was not hereditary. The 'Jigar' of the nobility was thus escheated to be crowned on his death and the titles and endowments could usually be transmitted on hereditary basis. This system had both positive and negative points and it prevented the rise of a class which could challenge the royalty and rise in rebellion against the King.

British Period Administration

The existing system of administration in India can be traced back to the East India Company rule in the country. The company entered the Indian subcontinent as a commercial corporation and it subsequently changed into a state of government with the motive to

establish British parliamentary control over the company government. The final liquidation of the company rule in 1858 and the taking over of the government directly by the Crown in Britain are the most interesting parts of constitutional, political and administrative history.

The new constitution, however, came into force on 26 January 1950, a day remembered for the famous resolution on independent for India, passed at the Historic session of the Indian National Congress at Lahore in 1929. The new constitution embodied in its preamble the solemn resolve of the people.

The evolution of civil services in India could be traced back to the times of the Company. The covenanted services under the company were the first organized civil services that worked in the country. The first organized covenanted service under the Company in 1675 had the following hierarchy:-

Senior Merchant

☐

Junior Merchant

☐

Factor

☐

Writer

☐

Apprentice

Apprentice was the entry point with first formal position of writer, whereas factor was the factory in-charge. The services under the Company before the Regulating Act of 1773 were

organized under the director of courts. This act was seen as a landmark event that guided the organization of services under the company. The Regulating Act of 1773 clearly provided for a distinction between the services of mercantile and non-mercantile nature. It also provided a distinction between revenue collection functions and adjudication functions. It prohibited the servants of the Company to receive any sort of gifts. It also barred the non-merchant servants of the company from carrying out trade. This Act also gave the Crown the right to recall any servant of the company posted in India back to England.

The Pitts India Act 1784 provided for filling up of seats in the Governor General's Council by covenanted civil servants. This Act provided an entry age to the covenanted services under the Company for the first time. The Act also provided the need for filling up the vacancies in the presidency from the company's servant working in that presidency only.

The Charter Act of 1833 provided a limited competition for the entry to services under the company. It specifically provided that nobody could be prevented from entering into the service on the basis of race, colour and place of origin if the person had proven his skills. It placed merit as the sole basis for recruitment.

The Macaulay Report of 1854 is seen as highly significant in the shaping of civil services in India. The report provided for the following:

- Recruitment to the services shall be based on merit through an open competitive

examination.

- The examination shall be conducted by a Public Service Commission.
- The candidate shall be tested for some real undertaking in the subjects and those withsuperficial knowledge shall be eliminated.
- There shall be an essential period of probation before the final placement of the person under the company.
- The College at Haileybury was to be abolished.

Administrative System 1858-1919

The first important result of the enactment of the Government of India Act 1858 was that the control of the Indian government was transferred from the company to the crown. The secretary of state as a new office was created and many powers were formally exercised by the court of directors and the boards of control. The Act gave power to the secretary of state to superintend, direct and control all acts, operations and concerns relating to the government or revenues of India. He was assisted by a council under the direction of the secretary of state who conducted the business transferred in the United Kingdom in relation to the government of India and its correspondence with India. The secretary of state was given an office called the India Office to enable him to discharge his function well. The expenses incurred due to the establishment of the secretary of state, including his own salary, were charged to the revenue of India.

Centralization

One of the important features of the pre-1858 secretarial system was federal concentration of all authority in the hands of the supervision of India. This feature remained unaffected throughout this period and was statutorily reaffirmed by the Consolidate Act 1915 which lay in section 45. In financial matters, all powers had been rigorous in the hands of the head general since 1833. The all-preserve authority of the central government was correctly described by the Montague Chelmsford Report of 1918. About a decade earlier, the transfer charge of 1909 had observed the necessary points to be borne in mind. At present, even in matters primarily assigned to the provisional government, these points act as agents of the Indian regime, who exercise a very thorough and constant check over their dealings. The Indian Council Act of 1909, popularly known as the Morley-Minto Reform, carried the above policy still further. The Act increased the size of the legislative and parliamentary council. It expanded the Governor General's Council and Legislative Assemblies. However, they still remained merely deliberative bodies.

Local self-government

The conglomerate of Madras came into being in 1688, and in 172,6 charters setting up similar metropolitan bodies for Calcutta and Bombay were issued. In 1840, the principal of election was introduced to a very limited intent. With regard to the rural character-governmental agency, the prehistoric village system was known to be very popular and efficient, at least in the presidencies of Bombay and Madras. However, during the nineteenth century, no twithstanding the constitutional provision of panchayat as petty courts in Bombay and Madras, they received lacking support from the district authorities. Yet, the government of India Resolution of 1864 admitted that the people of the country are capable of administering their own local affairs. A further step in the bearing of local self-government was taken in

1870 when Mayo government, in their resolution, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds. A New Municipal Act was passed in various provinces between 1871 and 1874. The Act extended the discretionary principle. It would, however, appear that the money motive in this fresh attempt to build up local institution was to relieve the burden on grand finances by leaving local rates.

The Indian Council Act 1861 provided reservation of the seats in the Governor General's Executive Council. It provided that certain seats in the Governor General's Council shall be filled by covenanted servants of the company in India. The Act provided that it shall be necessary for covenanted servants to learn the regional languages of that place where they were posted under the Company. In 1879, statutory civil services were established in order to ensure increased participation of Indians in the civil services. It provided for 1/5th to 1/6th positions to be filled by Indians in the statutory civil services.

The **Aitchison Commission** was appointed in 1886 to make recommendations for improving the setup of civil services. It was set up under the chairmanship of Sir Charles Umpherston Aitchison. The Commission made the following recommendations:

- The seats reserved in the Governor General Executive Council were to be reduced.
- The Statutory civil services created in 1879 should be abolished.
- The civil services exams were to be conducted only in London.
- The Commission was in favour of creating a local civil service, called the Provincial Civil Service.
- It set the minimum and maximum age limits for Indians as 19 and 23 years respectively in the open civil service examinations.

The Islington Commission (1912-1915) - A royal commission was appointed under Lord Islington, the then Governor General of New Zealand, for providing recommendations through which Indianization of services could be made possible. The Commission made the following recommendations:

For entry into civil services, the following two schemes shall be adopted:

- Recruitment for the superior posts should be made partly in England and partly in India.
- Examinations conducted in England shall be open to all Europeans and Indians.
- Higher positions in the services, at least to the proportion of 1/5th, shall be filled by Indians.
- Every year, the number of Indians recruited in the services shall be increased.

Administrative System 1919-1937

It has been stated in the previous section that the characteristic features of the organization of the Indian Government prior to 1919 was the centralization of all power and authority in the Governor General's Council. A major change in this feature took place with the passing of the Government of India Act 1919. The foreword to the Act states that it is a declared policy of the legislative body to provide for the increasing number of Indians in every branch of Indian administration and for the gradual development of character-governing institutions with a view to progressive realization of responsible supervision in British India as a basic part of the Empire.

There were three concepts on which the new design was based. Firstly, the Central and Provincial sphere be demarcated and distinguished from each other with greater clarity and

precision. Secondly, the provinces were measured to be the most suitable unit for opening the research of self-governance. Thirdly, an attempt was made to give a more valuable voice to the public in conduct of the central government, though no part of responsibility was introduced into this sphere. The Centre became responsible for both policy and advice, and the use of provincial government as an agent in this bubble showed a steady tendency in the direction of diminish. Thus, instead of policy hidden with the Centre and administration with the provinces, large steps were taken towards the situation where the Centre and the provinces were responsible for both policy and government, but in different parts of the field.

The provincial subjects were further divided into transferred and reserved. Some of the important transferred subjects were local self-administration, public health, medical relief, education, public work and excise. The main reserved subjects were administration of justice, police, prison, control of newspaper and finance.

Growth of local self-government

Under the reform of 1919, local self-rule became a provincial and transferred subjected under a responsible Indian minister. All the provincial management displayed great zeal for the growth of local institution and many Acts were passed towards that end. The all-purpose trends of these Acts were practically the same. They aimed at lowering the voting requirement and growing the strength of the designated member to the extent of making it the direct arbiter of policy in local affairs. Laws were passed in every province for growth of the village panchayat. On the whole, the endeavour was to reduce the official control in order to make the local bodies congress of the people and to endow them with adequate rights.

Charges at the centre

The Scheme of legal reforms was introduced in 1919 and did not extend to the sphere of Indian administration. However, a challenge was made to give a more effective voice to the public in demeanour of the central regime. Thus, the figure of Indians on the Governor General's Executive Council was increased to three. The total number of elements of the council was also increased from 5-6 before 1919 to 8-12 under a new Act. The central governing body was named as the legislative assembly and its political leanings were increased to 140, with as many as 100 elected members. The franchise was also widened in the process. The get together was given more power and part of the budget was made voteable.

Lee Commission of 1923—A royal Commission was appointed for superior civil services under Lord Lee of Fareham. The Commission made the following recommendations:

- A threefold classification of civil services shall be made, i.e., All India Services, Central Services and Provincial Services.
- The appointing authority of the officials to All India Services will be the Secretary of State
- The direct recruitment should be in equal proportion for Indians and Englishmen
- A Public Service Commission, as proposed in the Government Act of 1919, should beestablished.

Administrative System 1937-1947

The two basic concepts underlying the Government of India Act 1935 were central self-government and All India Confederacies. The simple part of the Act was inaugurated on 1 April 1937, but for numerous reasons, the federal provision could not be introduced at the same time. For one thing, the prescribed least number of princes had not given their consent to

join the confederacy till before the declaration of war in 1939. Another reason was that the federal part of the new constitution evoked serve criticism from all political parties in India, though for different reasons. After the declaration of the war, it was decided that prologue of the federal scheme should be

pending during the war period. Even the provincial part of the Act could not be operated for long. In the wake of joint declaration of war by the Viceroy and head general on behalf of India, the Indian National Congress decided to withdraw its cooperation, and by the end of 1939, the Congress ministers complied. This led to the deferment of the constitution in large majority of the provinces and the governor's rule was introduced under section 93.

Provincial Autonomy

The introduction of outmoded autonomy in 1935 was the highlight of the process of pronouncement initiated in 1861. This Act carved out separate fields for the Centre and provinces. In addition, a third general field was created for their parallel command and action. In accordance with this threefold sphere, three breaks up lists of subjects were in material form in the Act. Three subject lists, the Union list, the State list, and the Concurrent list, define the legislative powers of each level of government. The Union government reserves the right to make laws in areas specified on the Union list, the state governments are allowed to make laws in areas specified on the State list, and laws in areas listed on the concurrent list may be made at either a state or federal level.

The Act also took a key step in the direction of introduction of the answerable government in the provision. The diarchal structure introduced by the Act proved to be a failure. Therefore, the new Act abolishes the system by putting an end to the division between reserved and transferred subjects. Under the Act, the exclusive authority of the province was exercised on behalf of the governor. There was no obligation to consult the minister in the former sphere, while in the latter sphere, the governor was not bound to follow the minister's advice even though it may be sought and given. Undoubtedly, this provision put serve constraints on an effective and responsible regime. However, it remains standing that in the years of the working of Congress ministries, the governor chooses to act by and large as the unconstitutional head.

Changes by the Centre

The Act of 1935 had envisaged three vital changes at the centre. By far, the most momentous change introduced by the new Act was the provision for the company of an all India grouping, which included the British Indian Provinces and the princely state. It would have turned the entire subcontinent into one political, legal and undemocratic entity—a grand theory never before realized in the long history of India.

After Independence, civil services in the country were reorganized to shape them for responding to the challenges of development in independent India. All India services during the British regime have attracted a lot of criticism against them.

SUMMARY

- The bureaucracy of China is the most contemporary of all the earliest bureaucracies. It was first executed during the Qin dynasty. Later, it developed more on the lines of

Confucianism under the Han dynasty.

- German sociologist, Max Weber, gave a renowned theory on bureaucracy. He described the ideal type of bureaucracy in the positive connotation. His analysis of bureaucracy is connected with the impact of rule of law upon the functioning of bureaucratic organizations.

- Public Administration is as old as civilization itself. Since ancient times, monarchy is using the public administrative form of government.

- In the history of the development of Indian Administration, numerous administrative organizations rose and fell, but its two specialists continued all the time. From this, we can say that the present administration is developed from the old administrative system.

- In other words, we can also say that modern public administration is established on the fundamental pillar of the old-style public administration.

- In ancient India, the power of controlling the State was in the hands of the King, but in Vedic times, the King was aided by numerous officers.

- During ancient times, there were various forms of government found in different periods. In the Indus Valley Civilization, there were planned roads and drainage system in the cities and there was also a municipal government which looked after the requirements of people and laid down a methodical procedure for cities.

- The Indus Valley Civilization was succeeded by the Vedic period. The preliminary part of this period belongs to the Rig Vedic period which was followed by the post Vedic period.

- The post Vedic period beheld the upsurge of influential and prevailing kingdom. There was an ordinary escalation in the number of officers aiding the King in his administration.

- *Ramayana* and *Mahabharat* are very old epics of our country. In the *Ramayana* period, there was monarchy and administration was adequately advanced.

- During the period of Buddha, numerous republics were established. However, it is important to note that along with these republics, there were four big kingdoms, namely 'Magadha', 'Avanti', 'Vats' and 'Kaushal'.

KEY TERMS

1. **Formality:** Bureaucracies emphasize formal procedures and documentation. Written records are maintained to track decisions, actions, and communications within the organization.

2. **Rationality:** Bureaucracies strive to achieve goals through logical and systematic means. Decisions are made based on rational analysis and consideration of available information.

3. **Efficiency:** Bureaucracies aim to maximize efficiency in the allocation of resources and the accomplishment of tasks. Processes are designed to minimize waste and optimize productivity.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What were the administration units referred to in the Rig Vedic Period?

2. Name the four important kingdoms established during the 'Buddha period'?

3. What are the main features of the Sultanate period administration?

4. In which year was the Aitchison Commission established?

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UNIT-15: Changing Role of the District Collector

Structure:

- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Changing Role of District Collector
- Changing Role of the Collector in Post-Independence Period
- Role of Collector in the Panchayati Raj Set Up
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

The District Collector, often referred to simply as the Collector, is a key administrative officer in the governmental structure of many countries, including India. This role holds significant responsibility at the district level, acting as the chief representative of the government and overseeing various administrative functions within the district. Overall, the role of a District Collector is multifaceted, requiring strong leadership, administrative skills, and a deep understanding of local issues. District Collectors play a pivotal role in ensuring effective governance, promoting development, and upholding the rule of law within their respective districts.

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UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- To analyses the Changing Role of District Collector
- To Discuss the Changing Role of the Collector in Post-Independence Period
- To Examine the Role of Collector in the Panchayati Raj Set Up

CHANGING ROLE OF THE DISTRICT COLLECTOR

The District government in India is a British bequest with the District Collector at its apex as the head. During the British rule, the district as a unit of administration had been drawn as follows:

'Apart from extraordinary areas such as the Job towns, every inch of soil in British India forms part of a " District" , and at the head of every District there is an office

known in some provinces as the Collector and in others as the Deputy Commissioner – who is in the eyes of most of its occupants " the Government" .' The co-ordination has some roots in the past. Akbar for instance, sub-divided all Bengal into Sarkars. But until the institution of British rule, there never existed the settled administration, discipline and strong supervision which are needed if single officials are to be placed in charge of areas as large as Indian districts. The scope of his functions has varied from time to time. The conception of his office, as it became established in Bengal after many experiments, and as it was extended throughout British India, is expressed in the following quotation: "*It is the Lieutenant-Governor's wish*," wrote Sir George Campbell, the Lieutenant-governor of Bengal in 1872, "*to render the heads of districts no longer the drudges of many departments and masters of none, but in fact the general directing authority over all departments in each district ... he has, therefore, striven to make the Magistrate-Collector of a great Bengal district, generally comprising one and a half to two and a half millions of inhabitants, the real executive chief and officer of the tract of county steadfast to him, and supreme over everyone and everything except the proceedings of the Courts of Justice.*" '

The district as a unit of administration was placed under the charge of a district officer called the 'Collector'. The office of the Collector has been described by the Indian Legal Committee (1930) as follows—'The position of the Collectors in the districts may be swotted from two aspects: the part which they are expected to play in the organization of their districts, and the status they occupy in the eyes of the people of the Districts.'

The office of the Collector or District Magistrate owes its allegiance to the British rulers who formed an office that could represent the Crown in small provinces. The office was regarded as the eyes and ears of the government. These officers were trustworthy and were never questioned by the government. To support the District Magistrate, the police force, under the command of a Superintendent of Police at the district level, was formally placed under the control of the District Magistrate. The office of the District Magistrate was adopted as it is in independent India as well. Since independence, its role has become increasingly multidimensional. With the emergence of new departments and the strong Panchayati Raj institutions, the position of the office of District Magistrate has undergone a huge transformation. Terrorism, smuggling, migration, communalism and other offences have added to his burden. He acts as the agent of the judiciary.

The District Collector is still the head of the Land Revenue and Records department at the district level, which functions directly under his control, unlike other departments of the government for which the Collector has only a coordinating role. The wide range of a Collector's duties has been noted by every writer on Indian direction and is thus described in the Joint Report:

'The district officer has a dual capacity: as Collector he is head of the proceeds organization, and as Magistrate he exercises general regulation over the inferior courts and in particular, directs the police work. In areas where there is no permanent revenue clearing, he can at any time be in touch through his returns subordinates with every inch of his territory. This organization in the first place serves its peculiar purpose of accumulating the revenue and of keeping the peace. But because it is so close knit, so well-known and so thoroughly understood by the people, it simultaneously discharges easily and efficiently an immense number of other duties. It deals with the process, alteration, and partition of holdings; the settlement of disputes; the management of indebted estates; loans to agriculturists; and above all, starvation relief. Because it

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controls revenue, which depends on agronomy, the supreme interests of the people, it naturally attends also as the general administration staff … Several other specialized amenities exist with staffs of their own … but in varying degrees the district officer stimuli the policy in all these matters, and he is always there in the background to lend his support, or, if need be, to mediate between a dedicated service and the people.'

The Commission has made the following notes regarding the eminence of a Collector during the British rule:

'It is difficult to convey how great is the standing of the Collector of a District among the residents whom he serves. To most of them, as we have said, he is the byword to Government. The authority which he stems from his statutory power is better by the constant exercise of advice in direction in matters where he is expected to give a lead. He wields large powers of patronage; he is guilty for making a vast number of minor appointments, for instance, of village headmen and accountants, of revenue officials and office clerks. His recommendations for honorary magistrate ships and nominated membership of all local self-governing bodies are ordinarily accepted. He can grant seats at ceremonial functions such as " durbars" (much prized as social distinctions), and the coveted Indian titles and honors, and other rewards, are usually conferred at this suggestions. The preservation of this influence is of the utmost concern to the Administration. Many everyday matters which might involve merely tedious disputes, or even civil action, quickly reach conclusive settlement were brought before the Collector. The same influence becomes of manifest public advantage when more serious conflict threatens. It is not by his success in putting down communal riots that a Collector is judged so much as by his success in preventing their occurrence.'

Functions of the District Collector

Irrespective of its genesis and the practices prevailing during pre-independence era, the office of the District Collector has now become a uniform institution throughout the country. The contents of the functions may vary to an extent, but by and large, the functions of a Collector are similar in all States, except, of course, with regard to development functions in which the pattern varies significantly. However, it is possible to have a broad categorization of functions that a Collector performs. These categories are as follows:

1. Land administration
2. Revenue administration
3. Magisterial functions
4. Civil supplies
5. Elections
6. General administration
7. Relief and crisis management
8. Development administration

Changing Role of the Collector in Post-Independence Period

Although we had started with the issues of the past, reforming district administration was a necessity identified in all five-year plans. The Community Development Programme (CDP) and national extension services came in the context of these policy objectives. The Planning Commission and the Grow More Enquiry Committee (1952) emphasized on the importance of establishing a nationwide extension service which called for a reorientation of outlook and

reorganization of district administration to meet the demands of the welfare State.

It was the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee (1957) which envisaged the role of the Collector as the head of the team of officers of all departments and suggested that the office of the Collector should be invested with such powers that would enable him to coordinate between different departments, bring efficiency in their work and facilitate understanding among the people. However, the administrative and organizational structure at the district level and below remained with two parallel competitive forces, i.e., democratic and bureaucratic.

A shift from regular functioning of revenue, law and order of the Collector was included in the First Five Year Plan. A steady support to the system of administration of development programmes was documented in the First Five Year Plan. The Second Five-Year Plan stressed the relative importance of the administrative system of democratic government. The reorganization of district administration, integration of activities of various development departments, merging of local self-governing institutions with administrative agencies, regional coordination and supervision of the district development programmes as well as strengthening and improvement of machinery of general administration were made in the Second Five Year Plan. This exercise was continued in the Third Five-Year Plan. However, the plan called for more intensive effort and a greater sense of urgency towards strengthening equality of opportunity and the socialistic pattern of society. In the course of the Fourth and Fifth Five Year Plans, organizational dimension of district administration for development, which valued new pattern of relationship between the district officer and the officer of the technical department, between the administration bureaucracy and democratic bodies and between the district officer and the State department, emerged.

During the Fourth Plan period, the Planning Commission recommended to all the State governments the establishment of regional/district planning units equipped with qualified and competent technical staff. As a result, the office of the Collector was further strengthened as the head of the planning machinery at the district level besides being an overall co-coordinator of different departments.

The district level administration acquired greater complexity during the Sixth Five-year Plan. It strengthened the district with the appointment of a District Development Officer having complete authority and responsibility in respect to development work and enjoying the same status as the Collector. Apart from provision of adequate co-coordinating mechanism and decentralization of the administration machinery at the local level, involvement of people at every stage of planning and implementation was also felt necessary. Therefore, an institutional mechanism for this purpose was adopted by bringing in representatives. Some State governments established the system by entrusting the development work to an officer holding the rank of District Collector as the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the Zilla Parishad.

The Seventh Plan launched large-scale multi-sector countrywide programmes of rural development, aiming at creation of assets in the rural areas. This further executes the delivery mechanism at the district level. The strategy adopted under this Plan applied considerable degree of rationalization in Panchayati Raj and substantial autonomy in the implementation of programmes by the Collector.

The team observed that in spite of multifarious functions which the Collector had been called upon to release, the collector had done well so far and had been able to provide coordinating leadership required for the development administration in the district. However, in this process, certain essential 'looking after' functions like maintenance of land

records suffered due to inadequate attention. Making up law and order as well as land revenue brought the Collector into conflict with various forces in the district, and as a result, both preservation and development administration has suffered in the process. This also led to the tenure of a Collector being shortened by quick transfers. Keeping in view the various responsibilities assigned to the Collector and taking note of the fact that the district running has become complex, it recommended the establishment of major operational machinery for enactment in the district development plan.

It soon became obvious that the underlying problem was not so much a matter of simplifying procedures but was basically of a systematic nature. Hence, a series of 'Workshops on Responsive Administration' were conducted all over the country to focus on the fundamentals of the problems between district administration and the people. With the downfall of the Panchayati Raj Institutions, the administration got isolated from the people, undermining the sensitivity of the people's needs. The main focus of administration was on development. There was widespread concern at the declining powers and authority of the district collector. Rajiv Gandhi, in his address to different Workshops, outlined the positions of the Collector as follows:

'The second and, perhaps, even stronger impression was of the faith and belief of the DMs in our democratic institutions and the involvement of the democratic institutions in the development process. This is quite in contrast to the attitudes of administrators 30 years ago, 25 years ago, certainly before Independence, when administrators looked at democratic institutions as meddling in the affairs of development without really knowing about it. The task of development, in their view, was a preserve of the administrator and democratic institutions only interfered in the speed and the value of development that took place. Quite in contrast to that, I found that in our younger generation of administrators there is a totally new perspective of seeing a valid role for the democratic system and, in fact, interacting strongly with it to get the best, the most rapid

and, perhaps, the most wholesome development. I found that DMs now readily acknowledge and, perhaps, even enthusiastically seek the harnessing of the people's cooperation in their work. It is only with the co-operation we can have economic development with social progress, which is really the essence of our development work.' (Hyderabad – February 13, 1988)

'Since the achievement of Independence, and more particularly, since the advent of planned development, the country has looked to the district administration to serve as the principal instrument for the country's development. The administration is the vehicle of delivery. Its efficiency determines whether development really reaches the people. It is also the perspectives and approaches of the district administrators which, in many ways, determine the content of development. Whether development concentrates merely on rapid economic growth or extends to social reform, distributive justice and human resource development, depends in good measure on the attitudes of the district administration. That is why it is essential that district administrators relate the details of their daily tasks to the larger national goals of democracy, socialism, secularism and non-alignment. That is also why it is important that our administrators be imbued with the essential values of our millennial traditions: truth and non-violence; tolerance and compassion; one humanity and one world. I have explained in previous inaugural addresses at Bhopal, Hyderabad and Imphal this broader context in which I would like you to consider the specific tasks of evolving a more responsive administration. Those

speeches have been circulated to you. Today, I propose to be more pointed and specific.'
(Jaipur, April 30, 1988)

'The office of District Magistrate has declined in significance and importance because it has not adapted itself to the changing realities. The major reality of post- Independence India is the assertion of the people's will. The position of the District Magistrate can be restored only if it reinforces the democratic process and is responsive to the people. The attempt to preserve the office of District Magistrate as a kind of island of benevolent paternalism rising above the surging waves of democracy is what has resulted in the District Magistrate's island being eroded. The basic task before you is to see how the pristine powers and authority of the office of District Magistrate can be meshed into and harmonized with the processes of democratic decentralization so that the forces of democracy reinforce the prestige and powers of the District Magistrate, even as the prestige and powers of the District Magistrate are so exercised as to reinforce the processes of democracy.' (Coimbatore – June 18, 1988)

The efforts made in the series of Workshops on responsive administration led to the establishment of the new Panchayati Raj System in 1993. A sense of urgency created an impression that the reintroduction of Panchayati Raj with the Collector and the bureaucracy cannot be seen in isolation. It is a crucial part of the political process. However, the position of the Collector, by and large, continued without much change in the country. As expected by the plan ners, the process o f demo cratic decent ralization has not proved to be respon sive administration in true sense of the word. Democracy is not merely devolution of power—it should also comprise devolution of responsibility. There are basically two major responsibilities, which the democratic institutions must exercise:

- The first is financial discipline. Authorities who rarely spend can never be financially responsible.
- The second responsibility is safeguarding the interest of the people, generally the weaker sections of society.

For the achievement of these two major goals, local self-governing institutions require expertise in planning and implementation of development programmes.

Every state in India gives importance to the office of the Collector. He is fully or partly involved in district planning. His role is different from state to state, and at times, district to district. The strengthening of the Zilla Parishad affected the traditional position of the Collector in states like Gujarat and Maharashtra in the 1960s. However, in the 70s and 80s, the Collectors continued to occupy the key position.

The integrated rural development programme, literacy programme and other employment-oriented schemes knowingly brought the Collector back to the key position. The introduction of DRDA once again brought the Collector squarely back into the picture. Keeping in mind the government's responsibilities towards the poverty-ridden section, which constitutes a major part of the country's population, the rising percentage of politicians commissioned the position of the Collector more in the direction of target achievement. Presently, he is being seen as a trouble-shooter, grievance redresser and government machinery at the district level for both state and centre. The unstable pattern of rural development programmes, directly funding the villages and the constitutional stat us to t he panchayats under the Co nstitut ion' s 73rd Amendment, are expected to bring more changes in the role of the collector.

Role of Collector in the Panchayati Raj Set Up

Democratic decentralization, with its three-tier pattern of popular administration, was the result of effo r ts made by the Balwant Rai Meht a Co mmit tee (1957). The acceptan ce o f th ese recommendations and consequent introduction of the system of Panchayati Raj gave a strong foothold to a trend which had started well before 1929 and turned into a recognizable set up in 1952. The varying forms of decentralization efforts in different states resulted in a change in the fundamental character of district administration. The most obvious change was in the approach and style of his office from the position of authority to a people-friendly and development- oriented top official functionary at the district level. Though the Mehta Committee had already advocated retention of the traditional position of the Collector in the Panchayati Raj framework, at least two states decided to have an independent IAS officer to take care of the Panchayat set up at the Zilla Parishad level.

One common pattern that has emerged in all the states is that the executive agencies are eventually controlled by the government, and with increased decentralization and delegation of powers, the need for agency to coordinate the work of the agencies has increased. There have been different opinions on the executive agency which can best deal with the programmes of democratic institutions at the base.

Panchayati Raj is the backbone of administration and is a means of decentralization of the authority of implementation of development programmes in the field. As the area of operation of a Collector clashed with the area of the Zilla Parishad, he automatically came into the picture as the informer of the government. What needs to be seen is whether there is a purposeful utilization of the Collector in the administration of the district. One argument is that with the increasing concentration on development in district administration, the Collector cannot find time to look after the ever increasing development activities adequately, and that his association with development in addition to his traditional duties may lead to the neglect of or inadequate attention to both. Therefore, it is argued that district administration would be better served if the Collector was left free to look after regulatory aspects of administration and a separate officer of the same rank is made available to attend to development functions exclusively.

In most of the states, a Chief Executive Officer has been appointed exclusively to deal with developmental functions, while the Collector continues to be in charge of law and order, land revenue, excise, registration, etc. At the same time, the Collector continues to be intimately associated with development programmes through his positions in agencies such as District Rural Development Agency (DRDA). In most states, the Collector is ex-officio chairman of DRDA. He is also connected with the Zilla Parishad and District Planning Committee in some form or the other. Recent measures to merge DRDA with the Zilla Parishads in some states have, however, hardly affected his authority. However, there are states such as West Bengal where the District Magistrate stays to practice a larger share of responsibility in facilitating the functioning of Panchayati Raj Institutions, ensuring coordination at the district level between the Zilla Parishad and the technical officers, ensuring close links between the second and the block level as well as controlling from branches at the state level.

A study of the government statutes related to the Panchayati Raj would show that the Collector, in view of his special position status, may curb the efflorescence of the autonomous spirit. There is a line of thought which argues that the Collector is laden with multiplicity of works along with physical margins of time and energy, and thus, would be not be able to do justice to the mammoth tasks of Zilla Parishad. Therefore, it is suggested that he may be

kept out of it. In terms of status of the Collector vis-à-vis the Panchayati Raj, some basic

arrangements are observed across the states. Some people think that the Zilla Parishad needs practice and guidance from the Collector, who could, as Chairman, give fillip to the intact programme and promote matched efforts of the official and elected agents. In some states, they have employed a full-term officer from the Indian Administrative Service as Chief Executive Officer to entirely deal with anti-poverty programmes as well as changing schemes of the state. In such states, the Collector is left with merely adjusting with imperious powers.

The pattern of relationship between the Collector and PRIs can be conveniently studied in four heads, namely:

- Control over the Staff of PRIs
- Powers to suspend the resolutions of Panchayati Raj bodies
- Powers to remove office bearers
- Powers to suspend and dissolve the PRIs

1. Control over the staff of PRIs

It may be cited that the intermediate tier and Zilla Parishad have two groupings of staff at their disposal. Firstly, they have the Chief Executive Colonel and various extension officers whose services are placed at their approval by the parent department. Secondly, they have the members of the block (intermediate tier) Panchayat and Zilla Panchayat package. The control and movements for enquiry would automatically be different in case of these two categories. The question of control, in the present context, would relate only to the executive officers, as the control over the staff of Panchayati Raj Institutions is mostly implemented by their chief management officers or by the right heads of sectors from which they are on deputation.

The disciplinary controller over the executive officers of the Panchayati Raj bodies might take the form of:

(a) Writing of personal report

(b) Authority to inflict various punishments

In Maharashtra (in the case of Zilla Parishads), the Divisional Representative has the power to inflict minor retributions on the executive officers. In Maharashtra, the power to suspend the resolutions of a Panchayat rests with the Commissioner, whereas this power is used by the Director of Panchayats in Kerala and the State government in West Bengal. The powers are also drilled by the Collector in Maharashtra. Thus, it is clear that there is a general disposition in the direction of granting powers of suspending a resolution of Panchayats or Panchayat Samiti to the Collector, whereas the power of the authorities suspending a resolution of the Zilla Parishad largely depends on the State Government.

2. Powers to suspend and dissolve the PRIs

In the case of Panchayats, these powers rest with the state governments in Kerala and Maharashtra. In case of a Panchayat Samiti, the state advisers have the powers to split it up Maharashtra. The powers to thaw a Zilla Parishad rest with the state direction in Maharashtra. One can state that the Collector is freestanding the Zilla Parishad.

3. Power to remove office-bearers of PRIs

In the case of Panchayats, these powers rest with the state governments in Kerala (for Sarpanch and Upa-Sarpanch) and Zilla Parishads in Maharashtra. The powers to remove the Chairman in the Zilla Parishad ideally should be assigned to the state government. Appeals

against the orders of authorities below the state level should be given to the next higher authority.

4. Power to suspend and dissolve PRIs

A number of State Panchayati Raj Acts have made the Collector the key officer to take decisions with regard to the suspension and conclusion of PRIs. Though the number of such states may

not be very high, but the fact that the Collectors have been designated to take such far-reaching judgements on behalf of the government only affirms his position in the overall organizational set up at the district level.

SUMMARY

- The Sultanate Administration was basically military and its rulers were self-willed despots.
- It is very essential for an understanding of the Muslim rule to keep in mind the nature of Islam. Islam aimed at the realization in practice of a city where only the law of the God prevailed. These laws were contained in the Quran, Hadith and Shariat.
- The King was the head of the Mughal Empire and its administration. As early as 1526, Babur had proclaimed himself as 'Badshah' and his successors followed suit.
- The existing system of administration in India can be traced back to the East India Company rule in the country. The company entered the Indian subcontinent as a commercial corporation and it subsequently changed into a state of government with the motive to establish British parliamentary control over the company government.
- The first important result of the enactment of the Government of India Act 1858 was that the control of the Government of India was transferred from the company to the crown.
- The Aitchison commission was appointed in 1886 to make recommendations for improving the setup of civil services. It was set up under the chairmanship of Sir Charles Umpherston Aitchison.
- Under the reform of 1919, local self rule became a provincial and transferred subjected under a responsible Indian minister. The provincial management displayed great zeal for the growth of local institution and many acts were passed with that end in view.
- The Scheme of legal reforms introduced in 1919 did not extend to the sphere of management of India.
- A royal Commission was appointed for superior civil services under Lord Lee of Fareham, known as the Lee Commission. The Commission made the following recommendations:
  - A threefold classification of Civil services shall be made i.e. All India Services, Central Services and Provincial Services.
  - The appointing authority of the officials to the All India Services will be the Secretary of State
  - Direct recruitment should be in equal proportion for Indians and Englishmen
  - A public Service Commission as proposed in the Government of India Act 1919 shouldbe established.

KEY TERMS

- **District Collector:** A District Collector is the head of District Administration in India.
- **Panchyats:** They are the village councils in India.
- **Patwari:** A state officer in the revenue department at village level.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What was the role of the Regulating Act and Pitts India Act in formulating the office of civil services in India?
2. Write a brief note on the Saptanga Theory.
3. Briefly explain the significance of the Islington Commission.
4. How are the Panchayati Raj Institutions still affected by the State power and controlled by bureaucracy?
5. What are the various reforms required for Indian bureaucracy?
6. What is the role of a Block Development Officer?

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UNIT-16: Role of Block Development Officer

Structure:
- Introduction
- Unit Objectives
- Role of Block Development Officer
- Other Development Officials at District and Block Levels
- Summary
- Key Terms
- Questions and Exercises
- Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

The Block Development Officer (BDO) is a pivotal administrative position within the governmental structure of many countries, particularly in the context of rural development. Overall, the role of a Block Development Officer is integral to promoting inclusive and sustainable development in rural areas. It requires strong leadership, administrative skills, and a deep commitment to improving the quality of life for rural communities.

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UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:
- To analyses the Role of Block Development Officer
- To examine the Other Development Officials at District and Block Levels

ROLE OF BLOCK DEVELOPMENT OFFICER

The Block Development Officer (BDO) is the Secretary and officer-in-charge of the Panchayat Samiti. In most of the states, he belongs to the state amenities and is deputed to the Panchayat Samiti. In other states, these are stimulated officers, formerly from the subsidiary services in the state. Moreover, in certain states, a post of BDO is reserved for partisan sufferers and public workers. The BDO's role in the PRIs is characterized by multi-functionality, such as:

1. BDO as in-charge of Panchayat Samiti Office (PSO)

The BDO receives as well as attends to the post as the Panchayat Samiti Officer (PSO). He maintains administrative control over the Panchayat Samiti personnel and can appoint class four employees in his office. He sanctions tour programmmes and travelling allowances of the staff along with certifying the manuscript of the Panchayat Samiti. He is expected to inspect the PSO at least twice a year. Furthermore, he is in charge of all arrangements like boarding and provision of jeep for higher officials commute within the block. Notably, a BDO helps the Panchayat Samiti acknowledge that revenues are being acquired on time and that the

disbursement conforms to the budgetary provisions. Besides, he gives a detailed account of the income and disbursement in front of the Panchayat Simiti. The BDO confirms maintenance of the list of people who have been given loans by the Samiti through the Panchayat, VLW's and the extension officers. Besides, he ensures that the funds are applied for the welfare of the Samiti.

2. BDO as the Captain Extension Officers Team

In almost every Panchayat Samiti area, there are about four to eight extension officers, working on deputation from the state government. They are mostly posted to junior positions in various government departments as they are subject specialist in areas such as agriculture, education and health. They provide technical advice and assistance to Panchayat Samitis. They all work under the supervision and control of the BDO who has to coordinate the activities of these officers and act as the link between them and the district administration. It also prepares the confidential reports of the extension officer's sanction or cancels their leave, gives them necessary guidelines and conveys government instructions to the respective district levels officers.

The Control or authority of the BDO over extension officers has resulted in a problem which could cause a deadlock at the Samiti level. The administrative control of these officers is under the supervision of the BDO. However, regarding technical matters, the extension personnel continue to function under the control of their respective district level department. The extension officers have to serve different sets of orders issued by the BDO and by the 'parent' department which might lead to ambiguity and delay. Therefore, it is imperative for the BDO to meet the extension offices regularly, and as far possible, refrain from giving them orders which are inconsistent which those issued by the technical departments.

3. BDO as Managers of Development Programmes

At the central, state, district and block levels, the various government departments and agencies formulate plans and programmes for the socio-economic upliftment of the rural population. It is the BDO's responsibility to check that the tasks delegated to the Panchayat Samiti in this regard are completed on time.

Furthermore, he is expected to ensure that the constitution activities undertaken by the Samiti are completed within the stipulated period. Moreover, he keeps an eye on disbursement incurred on these programmes and reports to the Panchayat Samities, Zilla Parishads, DRDA, Collector and fretful district level officers on the delay in the activities.

4. BDO as the secretary of the Panchayat Samiti

The BDO is also the clerk and chief policy making general of the Samiti. He issues notices for the meeting of the Samiti as well as its committees and prepares their agenda. He participates in these meetings and answers queries. He also maintains a record of the proceedings of the Simiti meetings. Besides, the maintenance of all important records regarding the salaries and growth of the Samiti to the Pradhan is also his responsibility. He draws and distributes money from the Samiti funds and helps the Panchayat draw up enlargement plans and programmes.

OTHER DEVELOPMENT OFFICIALS AT DISTRICT AND BLOCK LEVELS

Besides the District Collector, there are other important officials who help in developmental activities. Some of the officers are:

- The District and Session Judges
- Civil surgeons
- Superintendent of police
- PWD and Public Health Engineering Department
- District social welfare officers

Following are the important officials who help in day-to-day activities of the District Collector:

(a) Additional Deputy Commissioner/Additional District Magistrate:

The office of ADC/ADM was created in order to assist and support the Deputy Commissioner in his daily work. Their powers are derived from:

- The law;
- Delegated by the order/notification of the State government; or
- Administratively delegated by the Deputy Commissioner under the rules.

In reality, they do not possess any powers or authority that is exclusively conferred upon them. They derive their powers, be it statutory or otherwise, from the office of the Deputy Commissioner. They exercise the same only in consultation with or as delegated to them by the Deputy Commissioner.

(b) Sub Divisional Officers (Civil):

The district has various sub divisions. The district division is based purely on territorial basis and not on functional basis. Every sub division is led by the Sub Divisional Officer (Civil) who is usually a member of the State Civil Services. The duties and powers of the Sub Divisional Officer (Civil) are alike those of the Deputy Commissioner within the district. The powers of the Collector/ Assistant Collector under the Revenue Laws Act and other Civil/Criminal Acts have been vested upon the Sub Divisional Officer (Civil).

This office also looks after diverse development activities in the sub division and is also accountable for coordinating the work of different departments where required. Besides looking
after the work of Revenue Administration, the SDO (C) also is the Sub Divisional Magistrate under Cr.P.C, and is, therefore, involved in safeguarding of law and order with the support of the Police. He also looks after the grievances of the public and attends to the predicaments arising out of natural calamities.

He is chiefly accountable for everything that happens within his territorial division and must act accordingly. Though his decisions are independent, they are definitely under the control, guidance and supervision of the Deputy Commissioner. He a direct subordinate of the District Magistrate. He enjoys numerous powers under sections 107/151, 109, 110, 133, 144 and 145 of the Cr.P.C. in order to help maintain order in his area.

(c) Tehsildar/Naib Tehsildar

The Revenue Officer (Tehsildar or Naib Tehsildar) is in charge of tehsils and sub tehsils in the districts. The key difference between the SDO (C) and Tehsildar is that the former has multifarious functions to perform for the purpose of development, revenue and

coordination, whereas the latter is concerned only with revenue work and does not have much to do for coordination of activities and work. The Tehsildar / Naib Tehsildar enjoy the powers of Executive Magistrate, Assistant Collector and Sub Registrar. He is the in charge of the Tehsil Revenue Agency and is responsible for appropriate preparation, maintenance and updating of the tehsil revenue records and accounts. He is also accountable for recovery of government dues under various Acts. Therefore, they are called Revenue Officers.

(d) Kanungo

He is the revenue inspector who is basically responsible for revenue administration of the Tehsil/ Sub Tehsil. His duties mainly require supervision. He supervises the work of Patwaris and usually a Kanungo circle will consist of about 20-50 patwar circles. He also acts as a bridge between the Patwari and the Tehsildar. The kanungos institution consists of field, office and district kanungos. They also assist the court of law in examination of revenue records.

(e) Patwari

The village level revenue officer or Patwari is the most significant functionary of the state at the village level. No proficient revenue administration of a district is feasible if the Patwari staff is not strong or appropriately trained and austerely supervised. In simple terms, he is regarded as the village accountant. He is known as Talati in Mahatrashtra, Lekhpal in Uttar Pradesh and Karnam in Tamil Nadu. He usually has one or two villages under his charge. Patwari is the custodian of the record of ownership of the village's land called ***"Shazra Kishtwar" Mutation Register***, ***Village Statistics Book (Lal Kitab)*** and other records of the village. The patwar system was first initiated during the reign of Sher Shah Suri and was further enhanced by Emperor Akbar. With slight amendments, the British Colonial system retained the system.

A Patwari has the following duties:

(i) Maintenance of land record and documentation of the crop grown at every harvest. (ii) Keeping the record of rights up-to-date by the punctual record of mutations and other

changes related to possession or ownership of land including the record relating to

land recoveries.

(iii) Preparation of statistical returns, embodying the information derived from the harvest inspections, register of mutation and record of rights.

(iv) It is the responsibility of the Patwari to immediately inform about severe natural calamities affecting people, property, land or the crops.

(v) The Patwaris are responsible for safe custody of all records and maps along with measuring equipments of their respective circles. He assists in carrying out the orders related to spot partitions of land between interested parties.

Patwari is not only the principal revenue official at the village level but is also the government's informant at the village level. It can easily be understood that in a county where land is the principal source of livelihood of nearly 75 per cent the population, the work outlay for management and administration of land records is perhaps the most important government function from the public's point of view.

SUMMARY

- Democratic decentralization with its three-tier pattern of popular administration was the result of the efforts made by the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee (1957). The acceptance of these recommendations and consequent introduction of the system of Panchayati Raj gave a strong position to a trend which had started well before 1929 and turned into a recognizable set up in 1952.
- Panchayati Raj is the backbone of administration and is a means of decentralization of the authority of implementation of development programmes in the field.
- The Block Development Officer (BDO) is the Secretary and officer in charge of the Panchayat Samiti. In most states, he belongs to the state amenities and is deputed to the Panchayat Samiti.
- The BDO receives as well as attends to the post as the Panchayat Samiti Officer (PSO). He maintains administrative control over the Panchayat Samiti personnel.
- In almost every Panchayat Samiti area, there are about four to eight extension officers, working on deputation from the State government. They are mostly posted to junior positions in various government departments as they are subject specialists in areas such as agriculture, education and health.
- At the central, state, district and block level, various government departments and agencies formulate plans and programmes for socio-economic upliftment of the rural population.
- The BDO is also the clerk and chief policy making general of the Samiti. He issues notices for the Samiti's meetings and creates its agenda.
- Besides the District Collector, there are other impo r tant officials who help in the developmental activities. Some of the officers are the District and Session Judges, Civil Surgeons, Superintendent of Police, PWD and Public Health Engineering Department as well as the District Social Welfare Officers.

KEY TERMS

- **Sarpanch:** A sarpanch is a democratically elected head of a village level statutory institution of local self-government
- **Zilla Parishad:** It is a local government body at the district level in India.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Who helps the District Collector in his day-to-day activities?
2. What is the difference between the Sub Divisional Officer (Civil) and the Tehsildar?
3. Who is a 'Kanungo'?
4. List some of the important duties of a Patwari.

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