DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

STUDY MATERIAL

B.A. POLITICAL SCIENCE

VI SEMESTER

CORE COURSE

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UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT

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Module 1
<u>Development Administration</u>

I.   <u>Introduction</u>

Development administration originated during the 1950s as a convenient way to describe the new role of the State and public administration in national progress and modernization. In contrast to law and order administration, the aim of development administration was change and innovation. Public officials would serve the people rather than the empire. Finally, it was anticipated that public officials would approach their tasks with creativity and persuasiveness. Development administration also made larger assumptions. The UN division for Public Economics and Public Administration explains the Goals and tasks of development administration as:

"Foremost among these assumptions was the possibility and desirability of establishing a welfare state. The State, and by extension public administration, would be the engine of development. The welfare state would come about through government's command of the national economy. Accordingly, government took on several important tasks: centralized economic planning, the preparation and execution of development programmes and projects, the promotion and management of industrial growth, and meeting the basic needs of citizens through the provision of social services, economic opportunities and social welfare programmes"

Development Administration is administration for development purpose. It is a version of public administration for underdeveloped or developing nations who want to improve themselves using public administration. It is an offshoot of comparative public administration. It addresses the need of society and social dynamics. The basic assumption behind development administration is that social changes can be initiated or guided by administration machinery. Classical public administration was looking for improvements within the administrative framework while development administration is looking for social change and wants to be a cause for social engineering. It represents under developed and developing nation's resorts to well configured system of administration to achieve national goals. Development administration represents the goal oriented or plan based developmental tasks.

II.   Development Administration and Public Administration

Development administration was a deviation from traditional meaning of public administration. Public administration says about the institutional as well as instrumental designs of policy implementation using well established administrative machinery. Theories and methods developed within the ambit of public administration were revolved around the nature of organisation and management with which public policies can be implemented from top to bottom levels of social life.

On the other hand Developmental administration has dramatically changed the entire scope of administration. It says about larger goals of administration and it has an altruistic or enlightened role in the developmental programmes of people. It is a people centred vision and the merit of development administration is judged from the point of fulfilment of public policy rather the procedural clearance of bureaucratic administration. Public administration adhere principles and procedures of legal or normative aspects of management. The rational of public administration eschews policy goals of a democratic government and virtually quite ignorant of its due process. Traditional public administration behaves like an impersonal being with little attention to the broad goals of administration.

The concept of Development Administration is a development of the post 1945 era. The term "development administration" came into use in the 1950s to represent those aspects of public administration and those changes in public administration, which are needed to carry out policies, projects, and programs to improve social and economic conditions. During a period of 15 years following the end of World War II, in 1945, colony after colony threw off the imperial yoke. Country after country achieved independence and political autonomy.

This new status gave promise of freedom and liberty and self-determination in political systems of representative democracy. It gave hope of greater individual freedom and equality of treatment in the society. Even in countries which had not been colonies but had been administered by some other form of authoritarian government, this was a generation of rising and insistent expectations pressing for rapid political, social, and economic change. New governments and their bureaucracies, their administrative agencies and processes, were expected to give reality to these anticipated fruits of independence and liberty. These new functions, these demands upon the administration system, were not only enormous in size and weight; they were novel and complex in character.

III. Dimensions of Development administration

Development Administration is a mid 20th century concept. It was an attempt to make public administration more goal oriented and democratically driven one. The concept is largely encouraged to evolve developmental programmes and policies suitable for developing and developed countries. It is an action oriented and strategy packed aspect of public administration. It is a path breaking approach towards administration. Normally administration, in the context of Government, is an offshoot of professional management of public policies. But development administration is an attempt to integrate multitude functions of government in a systematic way to peruse goals of development, very often targeted and previously ascertained goals of development. No longer will administration be considered as a pattern of systematic and routine bound activity.

Development Administration is an inclusive approach towards development. Development is the ultimate goal. Without development no administration can achieve anything. It is for the people and not for the technocrats of administrative milieu. As the goals of administration became well defined development, the new approach can bridge the gap between different administrative theories.

Development Administration is focussed on the administrative problems of developing and developed nations. Administration should not be meaningless. It will be supplemented with corresponding changes in a given area of attention. The Change should be positive as well as progressive in the long run. According to D Goulet, true development has several dimensions. They are;

   a. An economic component dealing with creation of wealth and improved conditions of material life, equitably distributed;
   b. A social ingredient measured as well-being in health, education, housing and employment;
   c. A political dimension including such values as human rights, political freedom, enfranchisement, and some form of democracy;
   d. A cultural dimension in recognition of the fact that cultures confer identity and self-worth to people;
   e. The full-life paradigm, which refers to meaning systems, symbols, and beliefs concerning the ultimate meaning of life and history; and
   f. A commitment to ecologically sound and sustainable development so that the present generation does not undermine the position of future generations.

IV. Following reasons are responsible for the emergence of the concept of Development Administration. –

   1. Emergence of newly independent developing countries.
   2. Development schemes in the developing countries.
   3. Establishment of comparative administration group in 1960.

1. Emergence of newly independent developing countries:-

The traditional concept of public Administration as was underwent transformation with the emergence of the 'Welfare state'. The narrow vision of public administration as "law and order machinery or revenue administration" underwent overhauling to get armed with socialistic centred path of welfare state during the 20th Century. The development administration as movement was a response to the emergence of the 'Newly Independent states' in Asia and Africa, and they were trying to address the problems of poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, malnutrition etc. The governments in these countries were entrusted with an agency role of welfare and development. The exigencies of time have made the administration in developing countries development – oriented or welfare oriented.

2. Development schemes in the developing countries:-

These developments have had a profound impact on the public administration. Development becomes a multi system management. Complex socio-economic compendium gets processed by the political systems for gaining balanced change. Developmental Administration in developing countries represents a cluster of politico-bureaucratic nexus. Further, most developing countries have realised that national development is essentially an integrated process of change. It is a dynamic process directed towards transforming the entire society, enmeshing its economic, social, political and administrative aspects, for an all-round, balanced change.

3. Establishment of Comparative Administration Group (CAG) in 1960-

D. Waldo, Fred Riggs, Weidner were the major advocates of New Public Administration. These scholars in 1968, in Minnibook conference, attempted to define public Administration anew. They focussed on the concept of development administration, in different ecological settings, operates in order to achieve a set of social goals. The CAG attempted to make comparative study of Public Administration as evolved in the developed nations with as adopted in developing as well as under developed nations of the world. Hereinafter the public administration treated as a tool for ensuring development in developing and under developing nations. When we connect public administration with its end result or nature of service delivery system it becomes development administration or administration for development of society. Development administration is process of guiding an organisation toward the achievement of progressive political, economic and social objectives that are authoritatively determined one manner the other.

V.   Development administration is concerned with following matters:

1. The formulation and implementation of plans, policies, programmes and projects for national development.
2. Development Administration focussed to the national development; it is 'action oriented' and 'goal oriented' administrative system.
3. Development administration concentrates on the Socio-economic change of developing nations.

Development Administration is a type of administration or management, adapted for the particular needs of developing countries has been referred to interchangeably as development administration or development management. Broadly development administration is an integral part of societal development and is profoundly influenced by the overall political, economic, and cultural attributes of society.

The sphere of development administration has acquired an immense importance in the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin American since the 1960s. Often these countries are labelled as developing countries because they are relatively young and are engaged in the developmental tasks of nation-building and socio economic progress. Although, these countries have different customs, traditions, cultures, political systems, languages, and vary greatly in social values, religious beliefs and degrees of economic development, they have the following fundamental features in common.

a.   First, they are faced with similar developmental problems, be it social, economic, political or administrative.

b.   They are embarking on the road of modernisation with much stress on raising their national income per capital and improving the well being of their people.

c.   They have realised the importance of development administration as a means of carrying out socio-economic, political change with a view to achieving the goals of nation building and socio economic progress.

V.   Meaning of Development Administration

For **Harry J. Friedman** development administration means:

i.   Programme implementation for socio economic progress and monitoring of nation building progress

ii.   Administrative reforms to keep the bureaucracy updated.

For **Hahn Been lee,** development administration involved management of government or of an agency to ensure capability to cop up with social change and sustained growth.

Gant observed that development administration is "that aspect of Public Administration in which focus of attention is on organizing and administering public agencies in such a way as to stimulate and facilitate defined programmes of social and economic progress. It has the purpose of making change attractive and possible."

Thus development administration involves two elements:

1.   The bureaucratic process that initiates and facilitates socio-economic progress by making the optimum use of talents and expertise available; and

2.   Mobilisation of administrative skills so as to speed up the development process.

Development administration concentrates on the needs and desires of the people, it is concerned with formulation of plans, programmes, policies and projects and their implementation. It plays a central role in carrying out planned change i.e. it is concerned with planning, co-ordination, control, monitoring and evaluation of plans and programmes. It is not only concerned with the application of policies as determined by the political representatives in existing situation but also with introducing efforts to modify existing situations so as to serve the cause of the masses.

The administration of development implies:

i.   The execution of programmes designed to bring about progressive improvement

ii.   The changes within an administrative system which increases its capacity to implement such programmes.

In brief, Development Administration has following objectives:

❖ Application of innovative strategies for development

❖ Emphasis on development at the grassroots level.

❖ Development has to be a need-oriented and self-reliant process

❖ Stress on social development and human capital as a major resource.

❖ Development has to be viewed not merely as a technological problem but also as an ideological norm

❖ Profound and rapid change in order to establish a distinct and just social   order.

❖ Recognising and highlighting the unity, rather than dichotomy between politics and administration

❖ Effective and efficient use of scarce resources

❖ Creation of a politics-administrative environment which is oriented towards securing basic needs of the population

❖ Freedom of administrative machinery to express its values and beliefs without fear or favour on programmes and projects.

Edward Weidner defined it as "The process of guiding an organisation toward the achievement of progressive political, economic and social objectives that are authoritatively determined in one manner or the other", i.e. Edward Weidner thinks that development administration deals with achievement of social goals as determined by government on behalf of its population. **Merle Fairsoul** regarded development administration as "a carrier of innovating values, it embraces the way of the new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernisation and industrialisation. Development administration involves the establishment of machinery for planning economic growth and mobilising and allocating resources to expand national income".

F W Riggs mentions that the study of Third World administration, interpreted largely as development administration, became the central concern for and synonymous with comparative public administration.

As a concept, he defines development administration as the combined process of both the 'administration of development' (implementation of development policies and plans) and the 'development of administration' (improvement of administrative capabilities)

To **Montgomery,** Development Administration connotes "carrying planned change in the economy or capital infrastructure and to a lesser extent in the social services especially, health and education". In the above definitions, development administration is used in two inter-related senses

i. It refers to the administration of development programmes, to the methods used by large scale organisation, notably government to implement policies and plans designed to meet these developmental objectives,

ii. By implication, rather than directly, it involves the strengthening of administrative capabilities.

The two aspects of development administration i.e. administration of development and development of administration are intertwined in most definitions of the term. Riggs Observes "Administration cannot normally be improved very much without changes in the environmental constraints (the infrastructure) that hamper its effectiveness and the environment itself cannot be changed unless the administration of development programmes is strengthened".

Donald Stones analysed the concept of development administration in terms of plans, policies, programmes and projects towards the achievement of developmental goals. Development administration, therefore is concerned primarily with the tasks and process of formulating and implementing the **four Ps (Plans, Policies, programmes and projects)**, in respect to whatever mixture of goals and objectives may be politically determined.

VI(a). Development Administration as Development of Bureaucracy;

The development of administration means development of administrative machinery and processes suited to the task of national development. Only through an effective administrative system can the goals of socio-economic development and nation-building be achieved. The government being the principal planner, financier, promoter and director of national development depends on bureaucracy for its functioning. Therefore, the role of bureaucracy as an agent of socio-economic change becomes important in the development process. Despite the fact that bureaucracy in developing countries is ill-prepared and ill-motivated for the tasks lying before it, the fact remains that in most of these countries it is the major instrument of social change.

Eisenstadt observes that bureaucracies in developing countries "helped to maintain the framework of a unified polity as well as the capacity to absorb varied demands and to relate them effectively. Not only were they important instruments for unification and centralisation, but they enabled the rulers to implement continuous policy. In addition, they also served as important instruments for mobilisation of resources, taxes, manpower and political support. There is no basic conflict between bureaucracy and development. No doubt, at present it suffers from certain structural weaknesses and behavioural attitudes, nevertheless, given right orientation in the new content, bureaucracy can be structurally and behaviourally geared to the task of development.

Weidner stated that Development Administration means "an action oriented and goal-oriented administrative systems." Weidner emphasised that the study of development administration can help to identify the conditions under which a maximum rate of development is sought and obtained. He contended that existing models for comparison were limited in their usefulness because they made inadequate provision for social change. He suggested development administration as a separate focus for research, the end being to relate different administrative roles, practices, organisational arrangements and procedures to the maximising of development objectives. Pai Panadikar identifies Development Administration with "administration of planned change."

VI (b). Hallmarks of Development Administration :-
1. Change – oriented
2. Goal - Oriented and result oriented
3. Citizen participation in the administration
4. Commitment to development
5. Integrated and holistic process
6. It has two sides – one is development programmes and other is its implication.
7. Its scope of Operation is wide.
8. Stress on planning
9. Believes in decentralization.

1.   **Change – oriented**

Development administration is change-oriented. Traditional administration was oriented towards the maintenance of stability and statusquo. Hence, Pai Panandikar said development Administration means 'administration of planned change'. The Planned development is intended to achieve specific results within the specified time.

2.   **Goal-oriented and result-oriented**

It is result-oriented. It expects specific results and expresses in most areas clear-cut norms of performance. Consequently, it would also be judged on the basis of results achieved

3.   **Citizen participation**

Development being a process of social and economic change, citizen participation in the task of administration is vital. The public servants must be able to carry the citizens with them and draw them actively into the developmental processes. It demands a basic change in the outlook of the civil servants.

4.   **Commitment to development.** Development administration requires a firm commitment, a sense of involvement and concern on the part of civil servants, if the goals of development are to be realised.

5.   **Integrated and holistic process.** Development administration is inter-related and holistic process of change. It refers to the structure, organisation and behaviour necessary for the implementation of schemes and programmes of socio-economic change undertaken by the governments of developing nations."

6.   **It has two sides.** Firstly, it refers to the administration of developmental programmes, the methods used by large-scale organizations, especially governments, to implement policies and plans designed to meet developmental goals. Secondly, Development Administration involves the strengthening of administrative capabilities. These two aspects are intertwined in development administration.

7.   **Its scope of operation is wide -** Traditional public administration was limited to its function of maintaining law and order. But the scope of development administration is wider.

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

9.   **Believes in decentralization -**Traditional administration believes in centralization. But Development administration believes in decentralization.

VI(c). Development of Administration or Administrative Development

Development Administration has to be efficient and effective. For that purpose it has to aim at enlargement of administrative capabilities and structural and behavioural change. It is this aspect of administration that is called administrative development or development of administration. In simple terms it means development of administrative system,'of administrative health by introducing-administrative rationalisation and institution building. The purpose implicit in this concept is not merely changing the administrative procedures and channels but also bringing out fundamental change in administration .

The administration should evolve so as to commensurate with societal goals. Development of administration further means cultural change in administration. The colonial administrative culture is unsuitable to the changed socio-political ethos of the developing world. Our British legacy has adversely affected the administration. The obsolete Acts e.g. Police Act, 1861,'cannot take us towards the path of change.

Development of administration should refer to the creation of ability to adjust to new stimuli or changes. The development of administration aims at qualitative and quantitative transformations in administration with an eye on the performance of management of affairs. The term also implies technological changes in administration so as to enable it to adopt new modes or techniques of administration. Thus administrative development focuses on adaptability, autonomy and coherence in administration.

In short, administrative development is concerned with:

1. The capacity of an administrative system to take decisions in order to meet the ever increasing demands coming from the environment and with the objective of achieving larger political and socioeconomic goals.
2. Increase in size, in specialisation and division of tasks and in the professionalization of its personnel.
3. A pattern of increasing effectiveness in the optimum utilisation of available means and further augmentation of the means, if necessary.
4. Increase in administrative capability and capacity.
5. Transformation of existing administrative mechanism into new machinery through modernising the bureaucracy by external inducement, transfer of technology and training. Replacement bf initiative, practices etc. with those based on realist need.
6. Reducing the dependence on foreign experts by producing adequate trained manpower.
7. Promotion of development initiative.
8. Administrative reorganisation and rationalisation.
9. Making modernisation culturally related.
10. Removing or reducing bureaucratic immobility and widespread corruption.
11. Reorientation of established agencies, and the delegation of administrative powers to them.
12. Creation of administrators who can provide leadership in stimulating and supporting programmes of social and economic improvement.

The meaning and importance of administrative development as an ingredient of development administration has been well summed up by Caiden in the following words, "Administrative reform is an essential ingredient of development in any country, irrespective of the speed and direction of change. Administrative capacity becomes increasingly important in the implementation of new policies, plans and ideas. The improvements in administrative capacity may involve the removal of environmental obstacles, structural alternatives in traditional and innovatory institutions bureaucratically organised or otherwise. This would also necessitate changing individual and group attitudes and performance." The behaviour

pattern of bureaucrats is as crucial to development administration as the institutions and structures. The purpose of development of administration is to remove the administrative lag which seriously handicaps governments in planning and executing co-ordinated programmes of economic and social reforms.

The predominant concern of development administration is to design and administer such development programmes which meet the developmental objectives. It is the administration geared to the task of achieving certain clear-cut and specified objectives and goals expressed in operational terms. Thus development administration is defined as a process of action motivated by and oriented to the achievement of certain predetermined goals.

Actually administration of development and development of administration are interrelated concepts. Both are dependent on each other. Administration of development is as important as development of administration. To achieve development goals it is essential that there is proper assessment of resources, proper plan formulation, evaluation and. implementation, adequate involvement of people, emphasis on technological change and self-reliance. At the same time we also need developed bureaucracy, integrity in administration, initiative, innovativeness, delegation of powers, decentralised decision-making etc. Administrative development cannot take place without administrative change and reform. Both the concepts support each other and development of administration is needed for administration of development. As per F.W Riggs 'development administration' and 'administrative. development' have a chicken and egg kind of relationship. Superiority of one concept over the other cannot be established.

VII. Difference between traditional public administration and Development Administration

Many scholars like George Gant, Ferrel Heady and others have sought to conceptualise development administration **as** different from traditional administration. They explain that these two types of administration differ from each other in terms of purpose, structure and organisation, attitudes and behaviour, capabilities, techniques and methods. This is the implicit meaning of the observation of John Gunnel who says, "The increasing shift of development scenario requires increased diversification and specialisation of knowledge and skills and high level of managerial ability for integrative co-ordination.

To quicken the pace of development there is an additional need for a new breed of administrators of superior calibre and vision with a passion for achieving results and of those who can take risks and introduce innovations. There is an increasing need to have heightened sensitivity to the welfare of the poor sections and greater responsiveness to the political process." It follows that development administration has to have different features and should be based on different requisites than the traditional or law and order or general administration.

We can sum up the difference between development administration and traditional public administration as follows.

Development Administration	Traditional Public Administration
Change – oriented	Status –quo oriented
Goal and result oriented	Emphasis on economy and efficiency
Flexible and dynamic	Hierarchal and rigid
Its objectives are complex and multiple	Simple and limited objectives
Concerned with new tasks	Concerned with routine operations
Believes in decentralization	Believes in centralisation
Stress on planning	Does not relay much on planning
Creative and innovative	Resists organisational change
Stress on participation of people	Organisational stress due to control and command structure.

J.N Khosala divides the functions of Development Administration into the following six categories

1. Formulation of development goals and policies
2. Programme formulation and project management
3. Reorganisation of   administrative structures and procedures
4. Evaluation of results.
5. Peoples participation into development efforts
6. Promotion of growth of social and political infrastructure.

VIII.   Features of development administration.

1. **Change Orientation**

The first and foremost element of development administration is its **change orientation.** Change forms part of philosophic values of development administration. Development administration involves itself in establishing a new social order in which growth and distributive justice coexist. For Pai Panandikar the central theme of development administration is socioeconomic and political change. Development administration cannot be status-quo oriented. No development can take place unless and until it introduces certain positive changes in a system. Changes such as structural reorganisation of administration, innovative programme to increase production, remove unemployment, poverty etc., new schemes to improve employer-employee relations must form a part, of development administration.

2. **Goal Orientation**

Developing countries are facing the problems of poverty, squalor, and injustice, unequal distribution of wealth, lopsided agricultural growth, underdeveloped technology etc. These colossal issues need to be tackled systematically by fixation of priorities and goals. Development administration is the means through which the goals of development viz., social justice, modernisation, industrialisation and economic growth can be achieved.

3. **Innovative Administration**

Development administration focuses on replacing/ improving the existing governing structures and norms with the ones that suit the changing political and social environment. In other words development administration is one that is dynamic and progressive in thought and action. It is interested in identifying and applying new structures, methods, procedures, techniques, policies, planning projects and programmes so that the objectives and goals of development are achieved with minimum possible resources and time. India, for example, has experimented with many new institutions and procedures which can be termed as the hallmarks of development administration.

We have introduced various development programmes like IRDP (Integrated Rural Development Programme), TRYSEM (Training Rural Youth for Self employment), NREP (National Rural Employment Programme), DWACRA (Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas), Tribal Development Programmes etc. These programmes broadly aim at removal of unemployment, creation of job opportunities and reduction of poverty. These programmes will be discussed in detail in Block 4 of this course. We have also established some development agencies like the District Rural Development Agency, District Planning Cells, State Planning Boards, Co-operatives etc. Thus development administration has to be innovative enough in order to realise the pre-determined objectives of development. In fact, innovative and creative administration leads to speedy realisation of goals.

4. **Client-Oriented Administration**

Development administration is positively oriented towards meeting the needs of the specific target groups, like small and marginal farmers of landless agricultural labourers and rural artisans in India. The socio-cultural and politico economic progress of these sections forms the essential basis of performance appraisal of development administrators. Many target groups centred or beneficiary-group oriented organisations have to be created so as to provide these under-privileged sections the requisite goods and services. It has been suggested that development administration is 'people-oriented' administration which gives priority to the needs of its beneficiaries by preparing, reviewing and, if necessary, changing the programmes, policies and activities aimed at the satisfaction of the needs of people in question. The administration is involved in the betterment of the lot of the deprived and the weak. Their upliftment becomes a part of the whole administrative ethos. The welfare of the weaker sections is a part of the administrative values. Development Administrations are highly motivated and committed to a progressive philosophy aiming at cutting the roots of vested interests in the society. 'This is possible if the people of initiative, extra dedication and perseverance are inducted into the development administrative structures. Training of personnel can be one effective method of creating such a team. Development administrators should not just formulate plans for the people but even monitor them in such a way that the beneficiaries are actually benefited.

5. **Participation-Oriented Administration**

Development administration accepts for its purposes the principle of associative and participative system of administration. Here, people are not treated as mere passive recipients of benefits or goods and services. They are taken as active participants in the formulation and execution of development plans, policies and programmes. It is recognised that centralised administration will not only be unable to take cognisance of local problems in a realistic frame, but it would also be deprived of the use of local initiatives, energies and resources. Hence, effective formulation of programmes and their implementation with the help and association of the local people is now a well recognised principle of administration. It involves giving people an increasing share in the governance and management of developmental affairs of the government. That is why the involvement of Panchayati Raj institutions in planning and administration has found renewed support in the development strategy of India.

6. **Effective Co-ordination**

Since development implies increasing specialisation and professionalization, the number of agencies and organisations involved in development tasks has considerably gone up. In order to have the maximum benefit of this emergent administrative system, co-ordination between various administrative units and activities is essential. To achieve maximum results, wastage of resources, time and cost has to be avoided.

Development .administration has to co-ordinate the activities of development agencies and organisations to integrate their efforts and energies for the realisation of development goals. This would even save the administration from the problems of duplication of functions, neglect of important functions and unnecessary focus on irrelevant or marginally relevant activities. It would thus minimise administrative lag.

7. **Ecological Perspective**

Development administration shapes the environment-political, social and economic and also gets affected by it in turn. It is not a closed system. It receives a feedback from the social system and responds to the demands put on it by the system. In a way, development administration is related to the environment and involves close interaction between the administration and environment. The environment sets forth the operative parameters of development administration. It requires the qualities of flexibility and responsiveness in administrative actions and methods. The changes in administration affect its environment and changes in environment also have its bearing on administration.

IX.   Rigg's Prismatic model and scope of Development Administration

Development Administration deals with implementation of development policies. Innovative practices to channelize public opinion in the form of policies and programmes are very essential. The domain of development administration is highly connected to developing and under developing countries. The development ideas of developing or under developed countries linked to the fight against poverty. This approach focuses on the problems of

widespread poverty, hunger and misery in developing countries and on the question of what can be done in order to realise improvements of the situation in the short term. The analysis of long-term economic and social development is another approach towards developmental concepts. This approach concentrates on comparing developments in different countries, regions and historical periods in order to gain a better understanding of the factors that have long-term effects on the dynamics of socio-economic development. Development, connected with industrialisation, economic enhancement and infrastructural development, has a surplus area beyond the reality of subsistence level of poor countries. It is inevitable for developing countries to delve in to the rational of development administration for achieving pre planned development goals. In other words development administration is a post colonial state centric model of public management.

During the 1960s and 1970s, the idea of development administration evolved as an extension or an applied part of comparative public administration especially due to the CAG; (Comparative Administration Group created by the American Society for Public Administration) has a keen interest in exploring administrative problems in developing nations and the agenda set by its funding agency (the Ford Foundation) to improve administration for economic development in these countries. Riggs mentions that the study of Third World administration, interpreted largely as development administration, became the central concern for and synonymous with comparative public administration.

Riggs defines development administration as the combined process of both the 'administration of development' (implementation of development policies and plans) and the 'development of administration' (improvement of administrative capabilities). Riggs eventually came up with a new analytical construct (known as the prismatic model) to explain these transitional nations. Riggs articulated this prismatic model based on the metaphor of prism – as the fused white sunlight (which represents the fusion of several colours) passes through a prism; it becomes diffracted into several separate colours. Here the fused light signifies the fused structures of traditional society (single structure performing all necessary functions); the diffracted colours represent the specialized or differentiated structures of modern society (separate structures or institutions for major functions); and the situation within the prism (which is a transitional phase between the fused and diffracted stages) reflects the condition in developing nations, which Riggs began to define as prismatic societies (Riggs, 1964). In explaining the nature of administration in these transitional societies, Riggs systematically used an ecological approach to explore their non-administrative domains of society, politics, economy, and culture.

In general, such prismatic societies are characterized by formalism (theory-practice gap), heterogeneity (co-existence of the traditional and the modern), and functional overlaps (similar functions are performed by different institutions) . These features are reflected in the prevalence of poly-communalism in society (interaction among communities based on suspicion and distrust); the bazaar-canteen model economy and its price-indeterminacy

(caused by the influence of social status, bargaining capacity, and official position on economic behaviour); and poly-normativism in decision process (representing the use of both rational and non rational criteria). These ecological or contextual factors, according to Riggs play significant role in shaping the nature of public administration in developing nations, which he presents as *sala* (complex and mixed) model administration characterized by the coexistence of universal official norms and respect for traditions, which is reflected in the influence of family and community on official decisions (e.g. nepotism and favoritism); prevalence of both ascriptive and achievement criteria leading to the 'attainment' norms in public offices; and so on. However, Riggs refined this prismatic model with unique ecological and contextual forces in the process of developmental regimes.

The 1980's was a radical turn in the concept of Development Administration where scholars wanted administration to be flexible and people should be included in the process. Towards the 90's the very influential 'New Right Philosophy' sprung up which was neo-liberal (modern form of the liberal approach prevailing in earliest time of society) and also the Public Choice Theory (Discussed in previous articles on this blog) emerged that brought a new paradigm to the concept of Development Administration. This led to the Good Governance concept. New Public management also made a huge impact where it was suggested that administration should become more managerial and market based in its approach in order to survive and be efficient. It stated that the state cannot sacrifice social values for achieving efficiency and not go beyond its constitutional limitations. Nowadays, the Discourse theory of Development Administration is doing the rounds that assert that development administration should have two major criteria: Human need based approach and Sustainable approach.

They examined five strategies (liberal capitalism,communist strategy,liberation theology,Islamic fundamentalism,Sarvodhaya/socialist) to find out which one catered to both these criteria. It was found that Sarvodhaya was the only model that contained both the above criteria and if implemented properly will lead to optimum results in Development Administration.

Module 2
Theories and Approaches:
Capitalist, Socialist, Mixed economy and Gandhian

I.　　Capitalist Approach to Developmental paradigms

Adam Smith (Wealth of Nations 1776) is considered the first theorist of what we commonly refer to as capitalism; David Ricardo (On the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation 1817) and Milton Friedman are the chief proponents of capitalist model of development. Interestingly Adam Smith never used the word capital or profit in his theoretical defence of capitalism. He used the phrase "the system of natural liberty" instead of capitalism. And defined capital as stock and viewed profit as an expectation of a revenue from the improvements on stock.

Capitalist mode of development is based on capital. The Capital (or the "means of production") is owned, operated, and traded for the purpose of generating profits for private owners or shareholders. Profit of individual as derived from market intervention is the aim of capitalism. Individual development at large leads to social development is the theory of capitalist model of development. The theory is also known as laissez-faire capitalism. Laissez-faire means to "let it be" or let the individual free; opposed to government intervention in economics because capitalists believe it introduces inefficiencies. Free market produces the best economic outcome for society. Govt. should not pick winners and losers. The capitalist system of development relies principally on markets to determine investment, production and distribution decisions. Markets may be free-markets, regulated-markets, or may be combined with a degree of state-directed economic planning or planning within private companies. There are Classical liberalism, Social liberalism, Libertarianism, Neo-liberalism and Modern Social-Democracy, varying the role of government for intervention in market.

The capital drives economic activity - the need to continuously produce profits and reinvest this profit into the economy. "Production for profit": useful goods and services are a by-product of pursuing profit. The means of production are privately-owned and operated for a private profit. This drives incentives for producers to engage in economic activity. In theory, the relationship between buyer and seller (the market) is what fuels what is produced. Government can change rules of conduct/business practices through regulation or ease of regulations.

The developmental ideas of capitalism lie in its faith in market forces. They believe that development is the result of competition and individual initiative.　As an economic system, capitalism wants to see private owner ship of means of production. (land, labour, capital and organisation) and distribution.

I (a) Assumptions of Capitalism

The major assumptions of capitalism are;

- Trust the market because it is self-correcting.
- *We* are the market. We supply labour, capital investment and entrepreneurship to produce goods and services that people actually want.
- *We* are the consumers who benefit from our choices and carefully assume risk.
- The Government is opposing to freedom. When the government grows we all lose.
- *You* are free to choose and reason it out.
- *We* trust that you will make the best evaluation based upon your free will and intelligence.
- The decision-taking process of the government is always more time consuming than is the case with private enterprise. This also causes an additional waste of resources.

The developmental paradigm extended by capitalism is centred on the idea that neither the government nor any external agency can decide the nature of development. Development is a by product of market forces. It has faith in the inherent quality of individual and individual is viewed as a rational actor. As a rational being he has the ability to choose his life and can work for maximization of utility in every effort. He need not be checked or censored by the government. A free market where there is no state intervention can extent unlimited opportunity for economic development. In this context development is viewed as a spontaneous reaction of market forces. A developed market can support its consumers and sellers. State is an enlarged market. Individuals are rather players in the market endeavouring to maximise their gain both as a consumer or seller. He has no other roll.

I (b)   Features of Capitalist model of development.

1. Capitalism believes in capacity of individual to guide development of society.
2. No society can develop without competition; competition gives us freedom of choice.
3. Presence of large number of independently acting buyers and sellers in the market.
4. Freedom of enterprise and choice.
5. Private business enterprises are free to obtain economic resources and they can produce and sell the product as they wish.
6. Market is the chief motivating factor in the economic.
7. There will not have any central agency to monitor the development programmes.
8. The need of the society is expressed by the market forces and the market is expected to react in response to it.
9. The buyers and sellers or price of a commodity the demand for it will automatically decide the price and quantity of the product to be produced by the producer.
10. Capitalism is a market economic system.
11. Limited role for the state. State is limited to perform police functions or minimal functions.
12. Development is winner take all phenomenon.
13. Those who can survive in the market can achieve gains.

14. Government represents "the tragedy of commons"; as only things which are owned by somebody can be protected. Unless it will be a tragedy. Nobody take responsibility to improve or protect it.

15. Social relations are decided by market mechanism or capitalism entails to see common man either as a consumer or producer or seller rather a social being.

16. Nature of development is defined by individual interest.

17. Social cause is treated as a figment of imagination and no social demand is treated above individual interest.

18. The qualities of development project are judged by its rational to satisfy individual interest.

I (c) Merits of Capitalist model or approach to development.

1. It is self-regulatory. It is regulated by market mechanism leading to several benefits for the economy and less expensive as the market automation is based on spontaneous reaction of demand and supply.

2. It is claimed that the process of economic growth is faster under capitalism. This is because the investors try to invest in only those projects, which are economically viable as dictated by the market forces.

3. The capitalist system decides the basic economic problems ('what to produce' and' how to produce' and 'for whom to produce') in consonance with the forces of demand and supply. Every producer tries to maximize his profit by employing resources in such a manner that the cost of production is reduced to the minimum possible. This results in an optimum allocation of productive resources of the economy.

4. It is generally believed that long-term projects are more productive. The financial system of the capitalist economy helps the entrepreneurs in selecting long-term projects by providing sufficient credit facilities.

5. Every economic unit tries to adopt a set of activities, which are in its best interest. Advocates of capitalism claim that on account of this reason, there is a harmony of decisions in the economy as a whole.

6. Capitalist system provides an incentive for efficient decisions and their implementation in the form of economic gains to the decision makers. This ensures a high degree of operative efficiency in the system.

7. The net result is that a capitalist economy has a tendency to register a high growth rate both in national income and per capita income. It also produces a large and growing variety of products, and has an inherent tendency to develop technology.

I (d)   Demerits of capitalist model of development:

However, as in the case of every other economic system, capitalism also suffers from several demerits. The leading ones are as follows.

1. Capitalism generates inequalities of income and wealth. They keep widening with the development of capitalism. In the initial stages of capitalism, therefore, there is widespread poverty of the masses.

2. The inequalities of income and wealth, together with the institution of inheritance, leads to wide differences in economic opportunities.

3. Wealth accumulation among few people is a demerit of capitalist model of development.

4. The composition of production in capitalism follows the pattern of demand. The pattern of demand does not represent real needs the society.

5. It is maintained by critics that capitalism wastes its productive resources in several ways. Large-scale advertisement and other forms of selling expenses will increase wastage of resources and cost of production in capitalism. As a result, while competing firms do not gain, the resources of the economy are used up in the process.

6. In contrast, the capitalist system may be producing a number of goods and services, which are positively harmful for the society. Business units produce only those goods and services, which are profitable to do so even when they are harmful such as cigarette and tobacco.

7. Capitalist model of development is unable to support poor people who are living in peripheries of society.

8. Profit maximisation trends in capitalism will eventually degrade the system and its durability.

9. Great depressions of 1930s and recent credit crises in America are examples of its demerits.

10. It is very often regarded that individual initiative or market alone could not solve the problems of society like more need for drinking water, employment opportunities, protection of downtrodden etc.

11. Capitalism is anti-social from a holistic view point. Survival of the fittest is a jungle justice. Development should be reached everywhere irrespective of capital flow or profit generation.

II.   Socialist model of development

Socialism was a reaction against capitalist mode economy. It was a correctional force. There are different kinds of socialism. The evolutionary socialists like Fabian socialists wanted to transform existing capitalist model of economy and society by peaceful means of legislation or they wanted to see democratic means to change the social structure constructed on the parochial vision of capitalism. On the other hand the revolutionary socialists wanted to establish a socialist society resorting to revolutionary means; for example Marxism. The concern of development administration is nothing but transformation of society into more acceptable and enlightened social relations.

Socialism is an economic system in which society controls the means of production. The basic economic problems (what to produce, how to produce and for whom to produce) are solved by collective decisions and at society level. The model of development initiated by socialist pattern of society will be planned one. The state on behalf of its population can decide priorities of development. The principles of equality, equity, egalitarianism etc. will be given weight age to determine development needs.

Socialism is a type of economic system in which the state totally owns or controls the resources and means of production. The basic stress is on the use of these resources for the overall welfare of all members of the society.

Socialism is a world-wide social system in which the means of production will belong in common to mankind and will be controlled by them for their own benefit. Production will be carried on solely to satisfy human needs. The wages system, buying and selling and money will disappear. In their place the principle "from each is best, to each his need" will operate. Socialism can only be achieved by political means.

Socialism can only be achieved by a socialist class. Until workers want and understand Socialism, it is impossible. Thus only conscious, majority, political action can achieve Socialism. The way to political power lies through the ballot box. A socialist working class can use the vote to win power just as today they use it to hand over power to capitalists.

A Socialist party can have only one aim: Socialism. For a socialist party to seek support on the basis of a reform programme can only lead to compromise with capitalism. To free themselves from wage-slavery workers need no leaders. Leaders only flourish on the ignorance of their followers. Once workers understand their interests and know that they want.

Socialism they require no leaders. All they require is political organisation. Trade unions arise out of the class struggle that goes on under capitalism between workers and capitalists. They will be necessary and useful as long as capitalism lasts. However trade unions have their limitations.

Any of various economic and political theories advocating collective or governmental ownership and administration of the means of production and distribution of goods

II (a)   The following are the features of socialism:
1. A system of <u>society</u> or group living in which there is no private property.
1. A system or condition of society in which the means of production are owned and controlled by the state.
2. A stage of society in <u>Marxist</u> theory transitional between <u>capitalism</u> and <u>communism</u> and distinguished by unequal distribution of goods and pay according to work done.
3. Common ownership: Socialism implies social ownership/state ownership of means of production. Under the socialistic system the workers in sectors like industry, agriculture and transport become the joint owners of the means and results of production.

4. As the non-human resources of production are mainly owned by the state or the society it ensures better allocation and utilization of these resources, elimination of unemployment and class struggle.
5. It also reduces the inequality in income.
6. Structure of production and all natural resources be held in common by all people.
7. Every person will stand in equal relationship with every other person with respect to the means of producing the things we need to live, that is, mines, industrial plants, manufacturing units, all land and farms, and all means of transport and distribution. This also means the common ownership of all natural resources.
8. It implies equality of incomes and equality.
9. Economic planning is an essential feature of socialism.
10. Social welfare and social security.
11. Classless society: Class is a social relationship that invades and has a corrupting influence on every part of our lives.
12. In socialism, social relationships of common ownership and equality will end class divisions.
13. Lack of incentive. Socialism encourages collective initiative than individual initiative.

II. Socialism and Development Administration:

The aim of administration is development of society. Development administration is imbibes the inherent quality to change the stature of society as more egalitarian and pro-people. Problems of inequality, unemployment, corruption, competition along with wastage of resources, poverty, undernourishment, housing, mortality rate, balance of payment ………. ;the challenges of modern administration go on. Socialist path of development is a planned one and there is no room for market mechanism. State acts as a guardian, promoter and protector of interest of the society. the administration attuned with the well studied and defined national goals to eradicate poverty and unemployment. The system should be equipped with a number of instrumentalities to curb monopoly and monopolistic competition. Priority based planning will be implemented. Entire bureaucratic structure will work as a machinery to attain the goals of an egalitarian society. Individual interests will be substituted for social interest. Government guided public distribution system should be promoted to ensure minimum subsistence level to the least deprived. Socialism disapproves the ethical role of nationalism. Society and social cause are ethically sound and could not be put in margins of vision.

II (a) Tenets of socialism in relation to Development Administration.
a. Governance is the responsibility of legitimate government
b. No capitalist government can address larger interest of society.
c. Planned economy is essential for social development.
d. Social development should be viewed from its social acceptance rather than individual ratification.

e. Resources should be distributed equally using administrative machinery.

f. Social change from a capitalist mode of mobility should be restricted with planned development programmes.

g. Individuals are not stake holders. They are inseparable part of the social organism.

h. Individual has no existence apart from society.

i. Fullest development of individual can be attained with in a socialist frame work of administration.

j. Individual initiative and gain are self interests. The public administration will be designed to foster social initiative and social upliftment.

II (c) Merits of socialist model of development

1. Social problems will be addressed.
2. Individual interest is subordinated to social interest.
3. More authentic transformation of society is possible.
4. Socialist model of development can ensure an egalitarian society.
5. It is pro-people and pro-development strategy.
6. The system will increase the importance of public administration.
7. Success of development administration depends on "authoritative allocation of values" for a social cause.
8. There is no competition; thus there is no over production or under production.

II (d) Demerits of socialist model of development

1. It is fictional development as personally no one can become companionable for a long period.
2. Individual initiative will be exterminated and people are taught to be subordinate for social interest as defined by administrators.
3. Administration may become less democratic.
4. Development administration will be managed by strict hierarchical machinery.
5. The system may lead to bureaucratic excesses.
6. Development administration, if stick on the principles of socialism, likely be less democratic and more autocratic.
7. As competition gets undermined, it exhausts desire for more innovation and enquiry.

III. Mixed Economy and Development Administration.

An experience with mixed economy is equal to an experience with comparative study of public administration in socialist and capitalist countries. It is an endeavour to transform society clubbing goodness of two opposite developmental styles, i.e., capitalism and socialism. A mixed economy is one in which there is a presence of both public and private sectors. While government agencies have a role in developing the financial system in this environment, so too does private enterprise, which includes businesses that may be owned by public investors. Primary characteristics of a mixed economy tend to include traces of capitalism, which encourages businesses to create their own wealth, in addition to socialism. With socialism, the government has control over the amount of resources that are distributed and the manner in which those funds and efforts are directed.

Another of the characteristics of a mixed economy is the government being heavily involved with infrastructure development in a region. This could include the construction of public schools, highways, and local roads. A government is likely to use proceeds from the taxes charged to a country's citizens in order to finance such development.

The participation of both public and private sectors in economic development leads to a greater probability for the creation of jobs and expansion. In a country that is still developing, the involvement of private business can also advance the integration of health-related initiatives, including water purification and medical procedures, for instance.

Mixed Economy as the term suggests it is a combination of two economic systems i.e. capitalism and socialism. Mixed Economy represents the virtue of both capitalism and socialism. The state will allow a fair role for both market economy and planned economy. This system overcomes the disadvantages of both the market and planned economic systems. India followed a mixed economy model after its independence. While both public and private sectors coexisted, a central role was assigned to the state's planning machinery for resource allocation across sectors. The stated primary objectives of the planning process have been economic growth, social justice and self-reliance. Development Administration under a mixed economy model will have a major role to play. The administrative machinery will perform the role of an entrepreneur for the benefit of society and social justice. On the other hand the duty to ensure surveillance over bad practices of capitalist economy is another area of development administration.

The role of government or public administration under mixed economy has a text book orientation. Procedures and process within the frame of strict bureaucracy is the hall mark of public administration in mixed economy. The administrators are accountable to the public and public monitoring will be there in the form of budgetary control.

Cardinal principles of mixed economy are:
1. Production functions as well as service functions are shared in between public sector and private sector according to its merits and importance of public utility.
2. Market forces are allowed play under strict monitoring of government.
3. Individual enterprises will be encouraged but restricted to curb monopolistic practices.
4. State will act as a monopoly for the protection of larger interest of society.
5. Public administration will be a watchdog over economic affairs of the country.

III (a) Main Features of Mixed Economy model of development.

a.   Co-existence of the Public and Private Sectors.

The chief characteristic of a mixed economy is that in this economy both public as well as the private sector work mutually. They co-exist. Generally, the basic industries, the industries concerned with the production of defence equipment, atomic energy, engineering industries, etc., are put in the public sector. On the other hand, the consumer goods industries, small and cottage industries, agriculture, etc., are generally given to the private sector. It may be borne in mind that the government does not work against the private sector. On the

contrary, the government helps and encourages the private sector by providing them several incentives and facilities so that the industries in the private sector are able to develop properly and make the country's economy efficient and strong.

b.   Role of Price structure and Government Directives.

Another characteristic of mixed economy is that it is operated both by the price system (market mechanism) and government directives. The public sector is always vigilant upon the ills of the private sector. But the private sector in the mixed economy is operated by price-mechanism.

c.   Government Regulation and Control of Private Sector.

In a mixed economy, the administration implements required methods to control and control the private sector, so that it may work in the interest of the state rather than completely for profit making motives. For this purpose, it introduces the licensing system according "to which government approval or license is essential for setting up a factory. If the government considers that in a certain industry already there is excessive investment or excess capacity, no new licenses are issued for setting up factories in that industry. Licensing system is the instrument by which the government controls and regulates industrial investment and output. The government also controls and regulates the private sector through appropriate monetary and fiscal policies. For this purpose, the government gives rebates and tax concessions and credit facilities at low and reasonable rates, so that the private entrepreneurs are induced to invest in those industrial lines.

d.   Consumers Sovereignty Protected.

In a mixed economy, the sovereignty of the consumers is protected. Like socialism, the mixed economy does not put an end to consumer's sovereignty. It is clear that in spite of some restrictions imposed by the government, the consumers are free to purchase the goods they like. It is their demand or preferences which guide production in the private sector.

e.   Government Protection of Labour.

In a mixed economy, government protects the weaker sections of society especially labour. That is, it saves labour from abuse by the capitalists. In the developed countries, in the beginning of Industrial Revolution, the greed and selfishness of the factory owners inflicted untold hardships on male labour, women and children. Social conscience was roused on seeing the pitiful and miserable working and living conditions of such labour. The government realized its responsibility for protecting labour from exploitation by industrialists and factory owners.

f.   Reduction of Economic Inequalities.

Extreme inequalities of income reduce social welfare. Income inequality creates inequalities of opportunities for education and training in favour of high-income groups. The extreme inequalities of income create class distinctions and generate class-conflict which splits the whole society into two-warring camps—the rich and the poor or the 'haves' and the 'have-nots'. The rich exploit the poor. For this purpose, government levies progressive taxation, wealth tax, gift tax, etc.

On the other hand, free education, free medical aid and old-age pensions, for the poor, stipends for poor students are some of the remedies adopted for distributing the extra income of the rich among the poor. The Government of India also has introduced a socialistic pattern of society and for that purpose of reduce inequalities of income and wealth. This is a major objective of our Five-Year Plans.

g.   **Control of Monopoly.** In a mixed economy, the government tries to control and regulate monopolies. The monopolist uses his monopoly power to exploit the consumers. He fixes a price which is above the marginal cost of production and in this way reduces consumers' welfare. Such a price-output policy results in misallocation of productive sources of the society. Besides, the excessive profits made by monopolists result in accentuating economic inequalities in the country. Moreover, monopoly creates unemployment by reducing output and thus hampers-industrial growth

III (b) Merits of Mixed Economy.

- Public Administration becomes more responsible to the people.
- The government can protect interest of consumers and entrepreneurs as well.
- The system can extend a synthesis of virtues of two, unless go together, social systems.
- Administration is controlled by budgetary process.
- As compared to Market economy, a mixed economy may have less income inequality due to the role played by the government.
- Monopolies may be existing but under close supervision of the government.
- Government plays different roles like, protector, promoter, entrepreneur and guardian of social justice.
- Hypothetical approach towards equality is minimised in mixed economy.
- Resorts evolutionary methods to transform society.
- Individual plays will be given reasonable freedom and encourage individual initiative under the anvil of guidance.

III (c) Demerits of Mixed Economy

- As a system of administration it is highly bureaucratic.
- Practice of "red tapeism" may put government machinery slow like anything.
- Government excesses reduces role of individual players in the market structure.
- Licence regime no longer is tolerated as it gives unwarranted role for bureaucracy to initiate control over investor.
- Freedom of people may be restricted with regard to their right to private property.
- Globalized governmental ethics is against mixed economy.
- Political system is likely to be burdened with functional overload.
- Public administration is characterised by its excessive formalism and routine. Government may be halted in between due to this lacuna.
- Public administration becomes an instrument with lots of systemic complexities and it will not be viable for change.

IV. Mahatma Gandhi's vision of development

Gandhiji's economic thought is imbibed in his overall philosophy. His approach is holistic and aims at the socio-economic reconstruction of society. Once, Gandhiji was asked to write down the text of his economic thought, he refused, saying that his framework is based on some basic principles which he applies to solve the day to day practical problems. So it can't be summarized in a few equations.

Gandhi wanted to transform the dominant paradigm of large-scale industrialization to include an aspect of development that was highly localized in villages. Gandhi believed in

the ability of reformation to take place in India from the bottom up. Gandhi believed in a completely different strategy of economics that worked from the bottom up, developing capital and creating self-sustainability within the community, instead of injecting large amounts of aid through the government. With this type of economic development structure, the people can create their own income, and are in charge of development that caters to the unique needs of their communities. One of Gandhi's ideas for developing village sustainability came from the Khadi campaign, a project that would enable villagers to spin their own cotton and produce their own clothing. This campaign created small-scale businesses for village communities, national unity among everyone who practiced it, and helped Indians resist foreign imports that took financial activity away from India. Gandhi opposed planned development. He believed that planning at any level is an intervention on ones ability to achieve self development. State as he viewed represents violence in concentrated form.

Ghandism is not a systematic ideology like Marxism. It is way of life and a cult too. He was a spiritual man but not have blind faith it religious dogmatises. Present context is meant for analysing the developmental concepts of Gandhism than its political or social implications.

Gandhian social and economic ideas are interrelated each other. As a social reformer he insisted on communal unity between Hindus and Muslims, removal of untouchability, adult education, village improvement, peasant uplift, and peaceful trade unions, economic and social equality, decentralized economic production and distribution through promotion of cottage and village industries and striving for abolition of various social evils such as alcoholic and intoxicating drinks and also upliftment of women, tribals and improvement of health and hygiene of people. He also emphasized on the role of students, labour, education and promotion of national and regional languages.

Gandhian economics do not draw a distinction between economics and ethics. Economics that hurts the moral well-being of an individual or a nation is immoral, and therefore sinful. The value of an industry should be gauged less by the dividends it pays to shareholders than by its effect on the bodies, soul and spirits of the people employed in it.

In essence, supreme consideration is to be given to man than to money. In fact, the first basic principle of Gandhi's economic thought is a special emphasis on 'plain living' which helps in cutting down your wants and being self-reliant.

A distinction is to be made between 'Standard of Living' and 'Standard of Life', where the former merely states the material and physical standard of food, cloth and housing. A higher standard of life, on the other hand could be attained only if, along with material improvement, there was a serious attempt to imbibe cultural and spiritual values and qualities.

IV (a) Concept of Rural Reconstruction:

His concept of rural reconstruction is a comprehensive one, emphasizing on the economic, political, social, educational, ecological and spiritual dimensions. He ceaselessly insisted on a pattern of village life, which will be man-centred and non-exploiting. The decentralized village economy should provide full employment to all on the basis of voluntary cooperation and work for achieving self-sufficiency in its basic requirement of food, clothing and shelter.

(b) Non-Violent Rural Economy

Gandhian economics places importance to means of achieving the aim of development and this means must be non-violent, ethical and truthful in all economic spheres. In order to achieve this means he advocated trusteeship, decentralization of economic activities, labour intensive technology and priority to weaker sections. Gandhi claims that to be non-violent an Individual needs to have a rural mindedness. It also helps in thinking of our necessities of our household in terms of rural mindedness. The revival of the economy is made possible only when it is free from exploitation, so according to Gandhi industrialization on a mass scale will lead to passive or active exploitation of the people as the problem of competition and marketing comes in. Gandhi believes that for an economy to be self-contained, it should manufacture mainly for its use even if that necessitates the use of modern machines and tools, provided it is not used as a means of exploitation of others.

(c) Economics of Decentralisation

The organisation of decentralised rural commonwealths is highly conductive to equitable economic distribution. The present capitalist society, in which the means of production are controlled mainly by the bourgeois class, has failed to establish enduring peace and real prosperity in the world. Socialism, on the other hand, has mercilessly rooted out the rentier class altogether. While it has raised the standard of living of the masses by capturing the instruments of production, Soviet communism is, by no means, an unmixed blessing. Its huge and powerful machinery of planning has reduced individuals to, more, or less, non-entities and automatons. Large scale and centralised socialism tends to grow aggressive and 'imperialist'; it cannot, therefore, herald a new world order in which peace, welfare and freedom are guaranteed to all countries, big or small. Decentralised cottage industrialism shows the way for the demerits of capitalism and socialism. The Indian village communes had evolved a well-balanced economic system by eschewing the two extremes of *laissez faire* and totalitarian control. After serious experimentation they had discovered a golden and happy mean between capitalism and socialism. They had developed an ideal form of cooperative agriculture and industry, in which there was scarcely any scope for exploitation of the poor by the rich.

As Gandhiji puts it, production was almost simultaneous with consumption and distribution. Commodities manufactured in cottages and domestic factories were for immediate use and not for distant markets. Such small scale and localised production on a self-sufficiency basis automatically eliminated capitalist exploitation. It virtually established economic equality without either ruthlessly curtailing individual liberty or allowing a few individuals to boss over others.

According to Gandhian ideals, the decentralised cottage industries should be organised on a cooperative and not capitalistic basis. If a few capitalists are allowed to control the domestic factories as in Japan, the cottage workers will continue to be exploited as mere labourers. Gandhiji, therefore, is against modern industrialisation. It is very wrong to think, however, that he is hostile to all types of machinery. What he objects to is the "indiscriminate multiplication of machinery." Observes Gandhiji: Today, machinery has reduced workers to ciphers; they have lost their individuality in huge factories with giant machines working noisily day and night. Gandhiji would however certainly welcome small and efficient machines that could be beneficial to the millions of peasants and artisans by lightening their labour.

The capitalistic society, with its large-scale and centralised production has so often hurled the world into bloody and devastating wars. Should all this tragic loss of life and money not be included in the costs of large-scale production? This practical consideration renders mechanised production very costly and uneconomical, indeed

IV 1.   The basic principles of the Gandhian development programme:

a.   Avoidance of mechanization and encouragement of cottage industries, especially spinning and weaving.
b.   Improvement of rural small scale agriculture.
c.   Making the village community as much self-sufficient and self-reliant as practicable.
d.   Decentralization of the administrative and economic structure.
e.   Reducing income in equalities by raising the income level among the poor and by changing the attitude and motivation of the rich.
f.   Ensuring that the capitalists and big businessmen serve as 'trustees' for the whole community.
g.   Voluntary reduction of wants is an indication of development and not the desire to satisfy unlimited wants.
h.   Co-operation and not competition is a better principle of life.
i.   It is inappropriate to look down upon physical labour.
j.   Each person must have access to enough resources so that his/her basic livelihood needs can be taken care of.
k.   Too much dependence on the "state" is fatal.

Based on these principles, Gandhiji has given the concept of constructive work. Gandhiji's schemes of thoughts, the non-economic components of economic development are perhaps more important than strictly economic concepts. Reconstruction of village economy based on "Gram Swaraj" is the pillar of economic development.

In his vision, each village is a totally autonomous and self-sufficient unit which will be totally self-reliant in fulfilling the basic needs. A cluster of mutually dependent (in some matter) villages forms the basis of economic order. In Gandhiji's vision of Gram Swaraj;

- human beings will be most important,
- labour will be given due importance,
- There will be decentralization of power and owners of property will consider themselves as trustees.
- Satyagraha, secularism and self-reliance as necessary aspects of social ethos.
- Each person is not always bent on "Maximizing" his/her profit but wishes that he/she gets enough to save for a rainy day after meeting the day to day requirement.

Technology which is in synchronization with the social, cultural and economic ethos of a community is the relevant technology for that community. He objected Capital intensive technology of the west, had evolved in a totally different context and cannot be universally be deemed appropriate anywhere in the world, for all time to come.

Schumakhar lists certain basic tenets of Gandhian way of development as as follows –

- People should get the work where they stay.
- Work must be available with minimum expenditure (in other words capital intensive technology is not necessary).

Production should be based on local needs and the process should be such that it can be completed with local resources; advocated 'middle level' technology. Gandhiji suggested three remedies for the ills or maladies of society; **smallness, simplicity and non-violence**.

In the language of contemporary social science Gandhi was a pioneer analyst of the phenomenon of growth with increasing poverty. Gandhiji wanted development to be related to human scale, handy crafts instead of gigantic industries village habitats instead of megalopolis, swadeshi in place of imported technology , a decentralize economy instead of centralized one. Gandhiji is also realized the need for and integrated rural development. He viewed property as a trust and people are trusties.

Module 3
Development Administration in India.
Constitutional frame work of decentralised strategies of Development Administration in India.

In the Indian context the central challenge before development administration relates to social development. In his famous 'tryst with destiny' speech on 14 August 1947, Jawaharlal Nehru articulated this challenge as 'the ending of poverty and ignorance and disease and inequality of opportunities'. Development administration in India connected with the principle and policy of good governance, which must aim at expansion in social opportunities and removal of poverty. Good governance, means securing justice, empowerment, employment and efficient delivery of services to its diverse population.

India is a Parliamentary form of government which is federal in structure with unitary features. Government in India has four layer structures. The first layer of Indian government consists of a Central Government, comprising of President at its apex, Vice president, Prime Minister with his Council of Ministers and attorney general of India. The legislative wing of the central government lies in a bicameral legislature called Indian Parliament; Lok Sabha (House of People, Lower House, First Chamber) and Rajya Sabha (Council of State, Second Chamber, Upper House).

The second tire of government is state level administration consists of State Governments with Governor and a Chief Minister aided by a council of ministers. Legislatures of the states consist of the Governor, Chief Minister and one or two Houses. The Constitution provides for a Legislature for every state.. The legislatures in the state are either bicameral (consisting of two Houses) or unicameral (consisting of one House). The lower House is always known as the Legislative Assembly (Vidhan Sabha) and the Upper House wherever it exists as the Legislative Council (Vidhan Parishad). At present only six states have a bicameral legislature- Anthra Pradesh, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh. All other states have only one house.

The next tire of administrative structure consists of Local Governments. There are Panchayathi Raj and Urban Local Governments which gained constitutional status with 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments respectively in 1992.

The administrative units of Indian Democratic state again expand to seven Union territories which are administered by central government. Delhi, one of the Union territories was recently designated as the National Capital Territory by 69th constitutional Amendment of 1991. Delhi and Pondicherry have Legislative Assemblies.

Part X (Art. 244) of the constitution envisages a special system of administration for certain areas designated as 'scheduled areas' and 'tribal areas'. The fifth and sixth schedule of Indian constitution provides of provisions for the administration of scheduled and tribal areas of the country.

Administrative Machinery of Central Government.

India is a federal state with lots of unitary elements. Development administration in India depends upon different roles played by governments at different levels. The subjects of administration are distributed between central government and state governments by incorporating Seventh Schedule in the constitution. There are three lists in the Seventh Schedule. List I or the Union List consists of 100 subjects (areas on which the union government has exclusive jurisdiction) List II or State List consists of 61 subjects (states in India enjoys administrative autonomy over these subjects) and the List III, known as concurrent list; comprising of 52 subjects, gives equal opportunity for Union Government as well as State Governments to move legislations. The Union Law cannot be superseded by State Law. The subjects which cannot be fallen in any of these lists (Residuary Powers) will be given to the Union Government. The executive power has been divided between the Centre and the states on the lines of the distribution of legislative powers.

There are a number of non-constitutional bodies within the disposal of central government for administrative convenience. The most important of them, from the developmental administrative perspective are the Planning Commission and National Development Council. It is worthwhile to look upon the composition powers and functions of Planning Commission.

Law making procedure in Legislature

In this first stage called **First Reading**, only a general sketch of the bill is presented and its importance and need talked about. This is called the Introduction Stage or First Reading when a date is fixed for further discussion. Then the bill moves to a more important stage called Discussion Stage or **Second Reading**. This involves lengthy consultations and consists of further three stages called as below:

1.   *First Stage:* In this stage, the general aspects and principles behind the bill is discussed. The bill may be agreed upon to pass on to the next stage, referred to a 'Select Committee' or circulated (or put up on websites) to elicit the opinions and comments of general public. Yes, this is where we come in.

2.   *Second Stage:* In this stage, the bill is examined clause by clause.

3.   *Third Stage:* This is the stage where the amendments take place. In this stage, each clause may be subject to vote especially when it is a contentious issue. The majority view prevails and the clauses may be accepted unchanged, amended, replaced or disposed.

Third Reading: Now that the fine prints of the bills have been discussed, a general discussion as to the applicability and impact of the bill as a whole is discussed at this stage. The debate ensues for or against the bill followed by a voting to adopt it. Once the bill is passed by a majority, it is passed to the other house where the same stages are repeated. Once the bill is accepted by the other house, it is sent to the President *(or the Governor in the states, as the case may be)* for his/her assent. Upon receiving the Presidential assent, the bill is notified and published in official government gazette and becomes an Act of Parliament. The President may also return the bill with suggestions without giving his/her assent. But

when it is returned to him/her a second time without any changes, he/she is bound to assent to it. If the bill is rejected or sought to be modified by the other house, it goes back to the house where it originated. If the original house does not agree to the modification sought, it may resend it or call for a joint session of both the houses. Such a session is also called for when the bill lapses for more than 6 months in the other house.

Planning Commission

India has accepted a socialist pattern of society where inequalities in income and life situations should be reduced to the possible level where we should feel a sense of equality. Planning commission is an extra constitutional body which came in to being in March 1950 by an executive resolution of the Government of India. It is the supreme organ of planning for social and economic development.

Functions of the Planning Commission

a. Make an assessment of the material, capital and human resources of the country, including technical personnel, and investigate the possibilities of augmenting such of these resources as are found to be deficient in relation to the nation's requirement;

b. Formulate a Plan for the most effective and balanced utilisation of country's resources;

c. On a determination of priorities, define the stages in which the Plan should be carried out and propose the allocation of resources for the due completion of each stage;

d. Indicate the factors which are tending to retard economic development, and determine the conditions which, in view of the current social and political situation, should be established for the successful execution of the Plan;

e. To Determine the nature of the machinery which will be necessary for securing the successful implementation of each stage of the Plan in all its aspects;

f. Appraise from time to time the progress achieved in the execution of each stage of the Plan and recommend the adjustments of policy and measures that such appraisal may show to be necessary; and

g. Make such interim or ancillary recommendations as appear to it to be appropriate either for facilitating the discharge of the duties assigned to it, or on a consideration of prevailing economic conditions, current policies, measures and development programmes or on an examination of such specific problems as may be referred to it for advice by Central or State Governments.

Role of Planning Commission:

All the Divisions in the Planning Commission may be grouped into three types of Divisions as indicated below:

a. Administrative Divisions: They render services pertaining to administration, accounts, library, training and other general services to the employees of the Commission.

b. General Divisions: These are concerned with certain aspects of the entire economy e.g. Perspective Planning, Financial Resources, International Economics, Plan

Coordination, State Plans including Multi-Level Planning, Hill Area Development Programme, Labour Employment and Manpower, Science &

Technology, Project Appraisal and Management, Development Policy and Socio-Economic Research.

c.   Subject Divisions: These are concerned with specific fields of development e.g. Agriculture, Environment and Forests, Water Resources, Power and Energy, Industry and Minerals, Transport, Communication and Information, Village and Small Industries, Rural Development, Education, Health, Nutrition and Family Welfare, Housing & Urban Development, Social Development and Women's Programme, and Backward Classes

From a highly centralised planning system, the Indian economy is gradually moving towards indicative planning where Planning Commission concerns itself with the building of a long term strategic vision of the future and decide on priorities of nation. It works out sectoral targets and provides promotional stimulus to the economy to grow in the desired direction.

Planning Commission plays an integrative role in the development of a holistic approach to the policy formulation in critical areas of human and economic development. In the social sector, schemes which require coordination and synthesis like rural health, drinking water, rural energy needs, literacy and environment protection has yet to be subjected to coordinated policy formulation. It has led to multiplicity of agencies. An integrated approach can lead to better results at much lower costs.

The emphasis of the Commission is on maximising the output by using our limited resources optimally. Instead of looking for mere increase in the plan outlays, the effort is to look for increases in the efficiency of utilisation of the allocations being made.

With the emergence of severe constraints on available budgetary resources, the resource allocation system between the States and Ministries of the Central Government is under strain. This requires the Planning Commission to play a mediatory and facilitating role, keeping in view the best interest of all concerned. It has to ensure smooth management of the change and help in creating a culture of high productivity and efficiency in the Government.

The key to efficient utilisation of resources lies in the creation of appropriate self-managed organisations at all levels. In this area, Planning Commission attempts to play a systems change role and provide consultancy within the Government for developing better systems. In order to spread the gains of experience more widely, Planning Commission also plays an information dissemination role.

The National Development Council (NDC)

The National Development Council (NDC) was set up on August 6, 1952 to strengthen and mobilize the effort and resources of the nation in support of the Plan, to promote common economic policies in all vital spheres, and to ensure the balanced and rapid development of all parts of the country. The Council, which was reconstituted on October 7, 1967, is the highest decision-making authority in the country on development matters.

The National Development Council has a special role in our federal polity. It is the apex body for decision making and deliberations on development matters, presided over by the Prime Minister of India and comprising of all Union Ministers, Chief Ministers of all the States and Administrators of Union Territories and Members of the Planning Commission. Ministers of State with independent charge are also invited to the deliberations of the Council.

Objectives :

The National Development Council was established with the following objectives.

1. To ensure co-operation of states in the execution of the five year planning (Plan).
2. To strengthen and mobilise the efforts and resources of the nation in support of the Plan.
3. To help to evolve a common economic policy for the entire nation.
4. To ensure balanced and rapid development of all parts of the country.

The functions of the Council:

a. to prescribe guidelines for the formulation of the National Plan, including the assessment of resources for the Plan;
b. to consider the National Plan as formulated by the Planning Commission;
c. to consider important questions of social and economic policy affecting national development;
d. to review the working of the Plan from time to time; and
e. to recommend such measures as are necessary for achieving the aims and targets set out in the National Plan.

The aim of these distributions of powers is decentralisation of power. Power as protected and ensured through constitutional means cannot be abrogated under normal circumstances. The union government is given subjects of national importance and very often beyond the purview of developmental administration. Developmental administration is the concern of state as well as local self governments in India. In states there is a Council of Ministers with the Chief Minister as its head, who advices the Governor.

II.   State Governments

Article 157 to 167 in Part VI of the constitution deal with the state executive. the state executive consists of the governor, the chief minister, the council of ministers and the advocate general of the state. The legislative and executive powers of state governments are predetermined by the State List and Concurrent List of the constitution of India. Democratic decentralisation process made state governments more feasible place for development administration. States governments are again divided into several independent administrative units called Nagarapalika and Panchayati Raj.

Federal states like India moves on its planned projects and project implementation within the stipulated time is very essential for the development of the country. Priorities will be decided from the grass root level itself. The inputs for achievement of development in a

desired level should be passed from District Planning Committes to State Planning boards. State planning boards act as a link between planning commission of India and District Planning Committees. Though state planning Borads are not mandatory, the 73rd constitutional amendment made constitution of state planning commission mandatory for every state.

The Kerala Planning Board has started a virtual space called *plan space* as a data base centre to support and assist implementation of developmental plans at grass root level. "*Plan Space Kerala*" is a web based information system - a ***virtual space*** for concurrent monitoring and evaluation of plan schemes. It is intended to develop a comprehensive, scientific, and reliable database as well as a sufficiently elaborate and transparent system of reporting; analysis, and upkeep of information on plan implementation across all departments.

State Planning Boards

Functions of planning boards in states.

a.   To make assessment of the state resources and formulate plans for the most effective and balanced utilization of these resources.

b.   To determine plan priorities of the state within the framework of the priorities of the National Plan.

c.   To assist the district authorities in formulating their development plans within the sphere in which such planning is considered to be useful and feasible and to coordinate these plans with the state plans.

d.   To identify factors which tend to retard the economic and social development of the state and determine the set of conditions for successful execution of the plan.

e.   To review the progress of implementation of the plan programmes and recommend such adjustments in policies and measures as the review may indicate.

Planning process at the state level:

Stages of preparation of development projects:-

a.   States initiate advance action on plan formulation even before the guidelines of the Planning Commission on the preparation of five-year plans are received.

b.   Different departments of the state governments are involved in formulating broad parameters of the state plans.

c.   The States, in response to call from the Planning Commission, send their suggestions, which form the base of the approach paper for the national plan. After the approach paper, prepared by the planning commission, is approved by the NDC, it forms the basis on which states are required to formulate their draft five-year plans in accordance with the objectives and strategies

d.   State Planning Board holds continuous discussions with other state departments and district and regional planning agencies on the one hand and with the central working groups, the Planning Commission and the central ministries on the other hand.

e.   The state draft plan is then discussed at the level of the central working groups and the Planning Commission. The proposals are approved/modified by the Planning Commission, keeping in view of the national and the state priorities and resources.

f.   The Planning Commission prepares the draft national plan and it is discussed in the National Development Council. With the approval of the NDC, the plan gets ready for endorsement by the Union Cabinet and the Parliament.

III.   Local Administration in India.

Local Administration means presence of local self governments in India. They should enjoy autonomy and are at the behest of ordinary people living in villages. Pure form of decentralisation is the basis of development administration. Without the rational of decentralisation no government can claim that they are democratic to the spirit and in principle. Decentralization is the transfer of power and authority from the central/state government to the local level government, and some times, to non-government and private organizations (for example; Jalanidhi project, Akshaya mission, IT mission etc.)

Decentralization enables rural poor people to:

a.   Share in decision-making that affects their daily lives;

b.   Evaluate the outcome of their own decisions;

c.   Minimize chances of misunderstanding;

d.   Understand the difficulties and complexities of administration, planning and management;

e.   Accept responsibility for failure; and

f.   Develop a sense of belonging and commitment to civil society.

Basics of decentralization:

a.   Political and administrative autonomy to local bodies.

b.   Devolution of revenues to local bodies and empowering them to levy taxes to fund part of their expenditure.

c.   Periodic local body elections.

d.   Reservation of seats on local bodies for weaker social sections.

e.   Local database on administration.

f.   Local voluntary and private sector organizations collaborate with local governments in addressing development issues.

g.   Build local human capacities through improved access to health care, education and productive assets to ensure that decentralization empowers the poor.

Types of decentralization

Political – provides citizens or their elected representatives at the local level with more power in decision making and supports democratization by giving them more influence in the formulation and implementation of policies. The process is known as 'devolution' and is inherently tied with local autonomy.

Administrative – redistribution of authority, responsibility and financial resources among different levels of government.

This includes:

De-concentration – transfer of power, authority, responsibility or the discretion to plan, decide and manage.

Delegation – creation of autonomous units with a great deal of discretion in decision making.

Fiscal – delegation of fiscal and financial powers, including taxation powers to the local self government bodies.

Leading forces behind decentralization

1.   Democratization process.

2.   Structural adjustments and disengagement of the state.

3.   Emergence of civil society organizations and new stakeholders.

4.   Growth of local and regional forces in search of their own socio-political identities.

The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments and structural revamping Local Self Governments:

The importance of the 73rd and 74th constitutional amendment Acts is that it provides constitutional status for panchayats and Municipalities in India. Hereinafter, they are enjoying powers which a constitutionally protected and listed in 11th and 12th schedules of Indian constitution. A new part, Part IX also incorporated in the constitution entitled "The Panchayats" in the constitution of India. There are 29 subjects for panchayats and 18 areas of local importance are reserved for Nagarapalikas (municipal bodies)

The introduction of 64th constitutional amendment bill in July 1989, represented the first attempt to confer constitutional status on rural local governments. But the bill was ultimately defeated in the Rajya Sabha. The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments were introduced in parliament in September, 1991 by the government of Prime Minister Narasimha Rao. They were referred to a Joint Select Committee of Parliament and were ultimately passed as the 73rd and 74th Amendment Bills in December, 1992. After the bills were ratified by the state assemblies of more than half the states, the President gave his assent on April 20, 1993.

The amendments were then officially enacted through the issue of government notifications the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 (commonly referred to as the Panchayati Raj Act) went into effect on April 24, 1993, and the Constitution (74th Amendment) Act, 1992 (the Nagarpalika Act), on June 1, 1993.

The amendments made a distinction between mandatory (compulsory for all states) and discretionary provisions (states can take appropriate decisions over these matters) And so, while many of the discretionary provisions laid out a vision and created a space for individual states to legislatively innovate in reforming local government, ultimately, the design and scope of particular reforms was left to the discretion of individual state legislatures.

Of the mandatory provisions of the Panchayati Raj Act, the most critical are those that strengthen the structure of representative democracy and political representation at the local level.

Power to the *panchayats*; 73rd constitutional amendment.

The *Eleventh Schedule* added to the Constitution of India by the 73rd Amendment Act lists a comprehensive range of development activities to be entrusted to Panchayati Raj Institutions as a part of the decentralization process.

1. Programmes for productive activities – agriculture, irrigation, animal husbandry, fuel andfodder, poultry, fishery, small-scale industries including food processing and cottageindustries;
2. Land development programmes – land reforms, soil conservation, minor irrigation, water management and watershed development, wasteland development, social forestry and grazing lands;
3. Education and cultural activities – primary schools, adult education, technical education and libraries;
4. Social welfare – women and child development, family welfare, care of people with physical and mental disabilities;
5. Provisions of civic amenities – drinking water, rural electrification, non-conventional sources of energy, rural roads, bridges, culverts, waterways, sanitation, rural housing and health;
6. Poverty alleviation and allied programmes for social and economic advancement of the weaker sections;
7. Maintenance of community assets and public distribution system;
8. Organization and control of rural markets and village fairs.

The key provisions :

a. Organisation Grama Sabha in a village or group of villages.Establishment of three tire panchayat system in all states.
b. Direct elections to all seats in the panchayats at all levels.
c. Compulsory elections to panchayats every five years. In the event that a panchayat is dissolved prematurely, elections must be held within six months and the newly elected members enjoy the rest of the period.
d. Mandatory reservation of seats in all panchayats at all levels for Scheduled Casts and Scheduled Tribes in proportion to their share of the panchayat population.
e. Compulsory reservation of fifty percent of all seats in all panchayats at all levels for women, with the reservation for women applying to the seats reserved for SCs and STs as well.
f. Mandatory reservation of the position of panchayat chairperson at all levels for SCs and STs in proportion to their share in the state population.
g. In addition, the act mandates the constitution of two state-level commissions:

- An independent election commission to supervise and manage elections to local bodies and

- A state finance commission, established every five years, to review the financial position of local bodies

Urban Local Governments and 74th Amendment 1992.

The Act added a new part, Part IX A. entitled as "the Municipalities" in the constitution. The Act gives constitutional status to the municipalities. It has come under the justiciable part of the constitution of India. The Act provides for three types of Municipalites. They are

a.   Nagar panchayat; at transitional area i.e., area in transition from rural to urban area.

b.   Muncipal council; for a smaller urban area.

c.   A municipal corporation for a larger area.

Representatives are elected as the manner in which elections are conducted to panchayats. But the Act allows certain persons having special knowledge, the members of lok sabha, Rajya Sabha , or MLAs, as special representatives without the right to vote in the municipal organs. The act recommended for the constitution of ward committees (similar to Grama Sabha) consisting of one or more wards. Reservation of seats and manner of election are on the same line with panchayati raj institutions.

Functional items of urban local bodies

1.   Urban planning
2.   Regulation of land use and construction of buildings
3.   Roads and bridges
4.   Water supply, public health, sanitation etc.
5.   Fire services
6.   Urban forestry, protection of environment etc.
7.   Slum improvement and upgradation.
8.   Urban poverty alleviation.
9.   Burials and burial grounds. Crematoriums etc.
10.   Public amenities including street lighting, parking lots etc.
11.   Regulation of slaughter houses and tanneries.
12.   Care for disabled and downtrodden.

Devolutionary aspects of local self governments makes them more relevant in the context of developmental administration. Development of administration and Administration development are simultaneously carried out by these administrative units. Creation of Finance commission and District planning committee should be mentioned here. State level election commission is also established for superintendence, direction and control of elections to local self governments. It acts independently of the Election Commission of India. It is worthwhile to study the nature of Finance Commission and District Planning Committee as they show that how does the Amendment ensure proliferation of power to the grass root level

of Indian democracy. The system revokes the traditional concepts of centralised planning and addresses the local needs. This is the only way we can change entire administrative scenario of the country. The aim of developmental administration can be materialised with this irrevocable initiative made by our parliament.

State Finance Commission

The state finance commission review the financial position of local bodies and make recommendations to the governor as to:

1. the pricnipales that should govern

a. The distribution between the state and the local bodies, the net proceeds of the taxes duties, tolls and fees levied by the states.

b. The determination of the taxes, duties, tolls and fees that may be assigned to the local bodies.

c. The grants-in-aid to the municipalities form the consolidated fund of the state.

2. The measures needed to improve the financial position of the municipalities.

3. Any other matter referred to it by the governor in the interest of sound finance of the municipalities.

District Planning Committee

It is suggested that every state should constitute a District Planning Committee to consolidate the plans prepared by panchayats and municipalities in the district. The state legislature is empowered to make necessary laws for the constitution, composition, powers and functions of the District Planning committees. The Act lays down the four-fifth of the members of a district planning committee should be elected by a district panchayat and municpalites in the district from amongst themselves. There is a provision of Metropolitan Planning Committee in every metropolitan area.

IV. Social Audit- a mode of social censoring

Social audit as a term was used as far back as the 1950s. Social audit is based on the principle that democratic local governance should be carried out, as far as possible, with the consent and understanding of all concerned. It is thus a process and not an event.

A social audit is a way of measuring, understanding, reporting and ultimately improving an organization's social and ethical performance. A social audit helps to narrow gaps between vision/goal and reality, between efficiency and effectiveness. It is a technique to understand, measure, verify, report on and to improve the social performance of the organization.

Social auditing creates an impact upon governance. It values the voice of stakeholders, including marginalized/poor groups whose voices are rarely heard. Social auditing is taken up for the purpose of enhancing local governance, particularly for strengthening accountability and transparency in local bodies.

The key difference between development and social audit is that a social audit focuses on *the neglected issue of social impacts*, while a development audit has a broader focus including environment and economic issues, such as *the efficiency of a project* or programme.

Objectives of social audit

1. Assessing the physical and financial gaps between needs and resources available for local development.
2. Creating awareness among beneficiaries and providers of local social and productive services.
3. Increasing efficacy and effectiveness of local development programmes.
4. Scrutiny of various policy decisions, keeping in view stakeholder interests and priorities, particularly of rural poor.
5. Estimation of the opportunity cost for stakeholders of not getting timely access to public services.

Advantages of social audit

a. Trains the community on participatory local planning.
b. Encourages local democracy.
c. Encourages community participation.
d. Benefits disadvantaged groups.
e. Promotes collective decision making and sharing responsibilities.
f. Develops human resources and social capital

To be effective, the social auditor must have the right to:

1. seek clarifications from the implementing agency about any decision-making, activity, scheme, income and expenditure incurred by the agency;
2. consider and scrutinize existing schemes and local activities of the agency; and
3. access registers and documents relating to all development activities undertaken by the implementing agency or by any other government department.

This requires transparency in the decision-making and activities of the implementing agencies. In a way, social audit includes measures for enhancing transparency by enforcing the right to information in the planning and implementation of local development activities.

Appropriate institutional level for social audit

The most appropriate institutional level for social audit is the *Gram Sabha,* which has been given 'watchdog' powers and responsibilities by the *Panchayati Raj* Acts in most States to supervise and monitor the functioning of *panchayat* elected representatives and government functionaries, and examine the annual statement of accounts and audit reports. These are implied powers indirectly empowering *Gram Sabhas* to carry out social audits in addition to other functions. Members of the *Gram Sabha* and the village *panchayat*, intermediate *panchayat* and district p*anchayat* through their representatives, can raise issues of social concern and public interest and demand an explanation.

The *Gram Sabha* should have the mandate to: inspect all public documents related to budget allocations, list of beneficiaries, assistance under each scheme, muster rolls, bills, vouchers, accounts, etc., for scrutiny; examine annual statements of accounts and audit reports; discuss the report on the local administration of the preceding year; review local development for the year or any new activity programme; establish accountability of

functionaries found guilty of violating established norms/rules; suggest measures for promoting transparency in identifying, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating relevant local development programmes; and ensure opportunity for rural poor to voice their concerns while participating in social audit meetings.

Social audit committees

Social audit can also be used for auditing the performance of all three PRI tiers with a social audit committee at each level. These committees should not be permanent, but can be set up depending on the nature of programmes/schemes to be audited.

Social audit committee members can be drawn from among programme stakeholders. It is advisable to use the services of retired functionaries of different organizations, teachers or persons of impeccable integrity living in the *Zilla Panchayat*/Block *Panchayat/Gram Panchayat* jurisdiction. Both facilitators and social audit committee members can be trained by social audit experts..

PUBLIC GRIEVANCES AND REDRESSAL MACHINERY

In a democracy, the citizens make the government and hold it accountable. The grievances of citizens against government machinery need to be heard and redressed otherwise, citizens will tend to withdraw their loyalty towards it. Hence, democracy sets up appropriate machineries for the redressal of citizen's grievances.

Importance for public grievances mechanism

Development oriented administration expands the functions of government in many levels. Day to day life of citizen is linked to variety of functions performed by several Departments; Health, Education, Banking, Public Distribution system, Electricity, Travelling, Communication …. The quality of delivery system is very important. Though the government departments are equipped or packed with enough number of bureaucratic cadres, common people could not be given quality service in time; leads to public unrest. Existence of too many rules and regulations, red-tapism, excessive formalism etc makes the administrative system inaccessible and un familiar for the people who are hailed as sovereign.

Instruments for the redressal of grievances- a global interface

To deal with administrative-corruption and to redress citizens' grievances, simplification of rules and procedures has been suggested and carried on in practice. Besides these, new institutions have also been recommended and actually set up in many countries. Created for the redressal of public grievances, the institution of "**Ombudsman"** is typically Scandinavian. The office of Ombudsman has been in existence in Sweden since 1809 and in Finland since 1919. Denmark introduced the system in 1955. Norway and New Zealand adopted it in 1962, and the United Kingdom appointed the Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration in 1967. Several countries in the world have since adopted the Ombudsman-like institution.

Ombudsman, a Swedish word, stands for an officer appointed by the legislature to handle complaints against administrative and judicial action. As an impartial investigator, the ombudsman makes investigations, gets at the facts objectively, and reports back to the legislature. The complainant has simply to write to the ombudsman appealing against an administrative decision. The ombudsman system has been popular because of its simple and speedy nature. It is a cheap method of handling appeals against administrative decisions.

Indian instrumentalities dealing with complaint redressal

The Department of Administrative Reforms and Public Grievances (DARPG) under the Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions, Government of India is the chief policy making, monitoring and coordinating department for public grievances arising from the work of Ministries / Departments / Organizations in Government of India. Allocation of Business Rules 1961, have allocated following roles to the DARPG.

a. **Policy formulation role:**The Department formulates new policies to meet the needs and challenges of Citizen Centric Administration that is now regarded as the heart of governance in Government of India. the Department publishes a compilation on 'Policy Guidelines for Redress of Public Grievances' and updates it from time to time.

b. **Monitoring role**: the Department acts as an external monitoring agency and reviews the status of pending grievances in all the Central Ministries / Departments periodically. For this purpose meetings of Directors of Public Grievances are organized and chaired by Joint Secretary / Special Secretary / Secretary in DARPG. Coordinating role: In its coordinating role the DARPG provides networking with 89 Central Ministries / Departments / Organizations in Government of India through the CPGRAMS. The citizens are free to lodge their grievances directly with the Ministry / Department concerned or to send them to DARPG through the CPGRAMS. They are also free to their grievance by post on any plain sheet of paper or on a postcard / inland letter.

c. **Framework for redress of grievances in all Central Ministries / Departments:**Each and every Ministry / Department of Government of India has a Joint Secretary level officer designated as its 'Director of Public Grievances' who is the nodal officer for redress of grievances on work areas allocated to each Ministry / Department.

d. **Framework for improvement of Service Delivery (Sevottam):** The Grievance Redress Mechanism is a part of a broader subject of public service delivery and as such a holistic view needs to be taken in the matter of public grievance redress. top five areas in which the largest number of grievances have been received during a year, should be identified by each Ministry / Department to take steps for reforming the processes in a manner that eliminate the rise of such grievances in future.

The **Sevottam framework**: a systemic methodology to deal with Grievance Redress Mechanism in the context of the wider area of public service delivery and its improvement. The Sevottam has three basic modules:

(i) Citizen's Charter

(ii) Public Grievance Redress

(iii) Public Service Delivery Capability

Lokpal and Lokayuktas

The Scandinavian system of Ombudsman in India is called as Lokpal/Lokayukta. The Administrative Reforms Commissions (ARC) of India (1966-1970) recommended the setting up of two special authorities designated as Lokpal and Lokayukta for the redressal of citizen's grievances. Many governments attempted pass a comprehensive lok pal bill in the parliament since 1968. Present parliament also witnessed the uncertainty of the bill which is pending in Rajya Sabha (when this material is prepared). Although no institution of Lokpal has yet been established at the Centre, there are states like Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Karnataka, Bihar, Orissa, Himachal Pradeshand National Capital Territory of Delhi which have appointed Lokayukta for dealing with the public grievances on the lines suggested by the ARC. Maharashtra was the first state to enact such legislation in 1971. The other state legislations were based more or less on the Maharashtra lines which provide the Lokayukta with exclusive powers to look into complaints against state ministers, secretaries and other senior officers.

Module 4
Development Issues, Poverty, Inequality, Regional disparity,Rural Class Structure, Gender and Class Structure.

I. Introduction.

The constitution of India is packed with full potentials to reach socio- economic and political development in the country. We have adopted a mixed economic approach to developmental goals. India has succeeded to establish democratic institutions in every space of its vast political landscape. Part IV of the Indian constitution itself is a declaration of humanitarian manifesto to achieve development goals expressed in Indian Constitution: "….resolved to make India into a Sovereign Socialist Democratic Republic.. JUSTICE, social, economic and political;.." India had adopted a strategy of mixed economy to achieve development in different sectors. For that purpose the government instituted extra-constitutional bodies like planning commission to initiate planning in a fruitful manner.

The launching of the First Five Year Plan in April 1951 initiated a process of development aimed not only at raising the standard of living of the people but also opening out to them new opportunities for a richer and more varied life. This was sought to be achieved by planning for growth, modernisation, self-reliance and social justice. We have come a long way over the past forty years. India was   largely agrarian feudal economy at the time of independence and it has been transformed into one based on a well developed and a highly diversified infrastructure with immense potential for industrialisation. Income and consumption levels have significantly risen. Consumption basket has diversified. Incidence of poverty has visibly declined. The average life expectancy has gone up. The death and the birth rates have declined. Literacy has improved and the educational base has widened.

II. National Plans in India

The national plans in India dealt with distributional issues throughout growth process .In fact, attesting to the shift in development thinking, poverty constrains growth, and that investments in the poor can increase both wages and productivity, causing the incomes of all to rise. The core reason for this is that in this way poverty reduction does not occur at the expense of growth, thus constituting a sustainable improvement in both the conditions of the poor and the basis for poverty-reducing growth. The emergence of the understanding that growth and equity can and should go hand in hand opened up an era of development thinking in which a host of factors increasingly oriented the debate towards how to promote growth with equity.

The stated vision of the 12th Five year Plan (2012 to 2017) is "of India moving forward in a way that would ensure a broad-based improvement in living standards of all sections of the people through a growth process which is faster than in the past, more inclusive and also more environmentally sustainable".

Human Development Index (indicative of inclusive growth and the extent of population benefiting from development) saw a downward slide from 128th and 127th positions in 2000 and 2005 respectively to 134th position in 2009 and 2011. While a handful of reaping benefits and have entered the billionaires club, millions are being forced into deprivation and disempowerment. For the first time in history, four Indians found a place amongst the 10 richest people of 2009, but three out of every ten poor people in the world in the same year were also Indians - an unusual phenomenon of continuing poverty and marginalisation in the midst of plenty.

India suffers severe deprivations in education and health—especially in the North, where caste, class, and gender inequities are particularly strong. In studies in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh poor women and men emphasized their extreme vulnerability and the ineffectiveness of state institutions, from schools to police. In the past, poverty reduction in India lagged behind that of East Asia because of slower growth and significantly less progress in promoting mass education and basic health. More recently, however, growth has accelerated and poverty has fallen, although the actual impact of growth on poverty reduction remains controversial because of measurement problems .There are also marked differences within India—with the South, particularly the state of Kerala, having sharply better education and health. Kerala has life expectancies greater than those in Washington, D.C., despite vastly lower income levels. The effectiveness of public action in Kerala has been attributed to its strong tradition of political and social mobilization.

India has entered the Eleventh Plan period with an impressive record of economic growth. After a dull performance in the Ninth Plan period (1997–98 to 2001–02), when gross domestic product (GDP) grew at only 5.5% per annum, the economy accelerated in the Tenth Plan period (2002–03 to 2006–07) to record an average growth of 7.7%, the highest in any Plan period so far. Besides, there was acceleration even within the Tenth Plan period and the growth rate in the last four years of the Plan has averaged 8.7%, making India one of the fastest growing economies in the world.

It can be argued that there is an element of cyclicality in the high growth observed in the past four years since these were also years of a global upswing. However, India's growth performance goes beyond mere cyclicality. It is underpinned by a number of factors which are real sources of strength and will serve us well in the years ahead. Savings and investment rates have increased significantly. The industrial sector has responded well to economic reforms and has shown that it is capable of competing in the global economy. Perceptions about India among global investors are very favourable. These developments suggest that the economy is now at a point when it can achieve sustained economic expansion that has the potential to bring significant improvement in the lives of our people. If this momentum can be accelerated in the years ahead, it will put India on the path to becoming one of the key players in the world economy over the next two decades.

Indicators of human development such as literacy and education, and maternal and infant mortality rates, show steady improvement, but they also suggest that the progress is slow and we continue to lag behind several other Asian countries. While the literacy rate has gone up from 18.3% in 1951 to 64.8% in 2001, the number of illiterate persons still exceeds 304 million, making India the country with the highest number of illiterate persons in the world. Life expectancy at birth has increased from approximately 32 years for both males and females in 1951 to 63.9 years for males and 66.9 years for females in 2001–06. Yet this is well below the life expectancy of around 80 years in industrialized countries and 72 years in China. Although Indian women now have higher life expectancy than Indian men, as is the case in industrialized countries, India also has an adverse sex ratio with only 933 women per 1000 men. More disturbing, the child sex ratio (ages 0–6) has declined sharply from 962 in 1981 to much higher than those of countries in East Asia, showing poor access to essential health care services.

The composition of growth in recent years has also presented some problems. Agriculture has grown very slowly from the Ninth Plan onwards and this has widened the rural–urban divide and also contributed to the severe distress in rural areas in some regions. Although there is an upturn in agricultural growth after 2004, it is too early to be complacent. Total employment in the economy has improved in recent years, but the labour force has grown even faster, leading to an increase in the unemployment rate. Permanent employment in the organized sector has decreased, although organized sector firms may be increasing their informal employment. Also, economic growth across regions has not been balanced, with some of the most backward areas yet to experience any significant growth. The delivery of essential social services at the grass roots level is also poor and this is a major causative factor in unequal development.

The social sector expenditure in the current Five Year Plan, which consists of rural development, elementary education, health and family welfare, women and child development and water and sanitation, has gone up from 181.46 billion (USD 3.299 billion) in 1999-2000 to 1,788.22 billion (USD 32.513 billion) in 2012-13. However, as a proportion of total expenditure, expenditure for health and family welfare has fallen, from 9.10% in 2000-01 to 7.01% in 2012-13. During the same period the share going to water and sanitation has declined from 9.80% to 7.73% and the share to social welfare and nutrition has declined from 5.07% to 4.75%. Only the share allocated to education has increased from 10.89% to 14.60%. Even in this area, the goal of spending 6% of GDP on education remained unfulfilled.

II a. New Strategies and challenges of Development

The target is not just faster growth but also inclusive growth, that is, a growth process which yields broad-based benefits and ensures equality of opportunity for all. This broad vision of the Eleventh Plan includes seven linter-related components:

a. rapid growth that reduces poverty and creates employment opportunities,

b. access to essential services in health and education especially for the poor,

c. equality of opportunity,

d. empowerment through education and skill development,

e. employment opportunities underpinned by the National Rural Employment Guarantee,

f. environmental sustainability,

g. Recognition of women's agency and good governance.

India is currently at a stage of 'demographic transition 'where population growth is slowing down but the population of young people entering the labour force continues to expand. The dependency ratio (ratio of dependent to working age population) declined from 0.8 in 1991 to 0.73 in 2001and is expected to decline further to 0.59 by 201. If the workforce is gainfully employed, a lower dependency ratio means a higher rate of savings which, in turn, can raise the growth rate. This young demographic profile places India favourably in terms of manpower availability and could be a major advantage in an environment where investment is expanding in India and the industrial world is ageing. The ability to sustain a labour-intensive growth process depends crucially upon the expansion of skill capabilities in the labour force. A few strategies are devised to achieve rapid economic growth.

a. Register rapid economic growth by wooing youth to more productivity oriented employment

b. Efforts to improve the income-earning opportunities of those who remain in agriculture by raising land productivity

c. Emphasis on income generating small scale industrial units. Special programmes aimed at target groups such as small and micro enterprises, weavers, artisans, craftsmen, etc. will therefore remain important in the Eleventh Plan period.

Access to essential services to common people is very essential to achieve desired development out comes. Supply side and delivery side are given equal importance. Removal of poverty, illiteracy, access to better credit facilities, need of all weather roads, better policing, access to public utility services and extended reach of these services to the farthest corners of country etc; were given foremost importance during the eleventh five year plan . Access to basic facilities such as health, education, clean drinking water, etc. impacts directly on welfare, in the longer run, it determines economic opportunities for the future. Without access to these services one cannot be considered to have equality of opportunity. The Eleventh Plan's vision of poverty reduction includes major expansion in the supply of these services. The resources needed to create the infrastructure necessary for delivering these services to the poor are large.

Social Justice is connected with empowerment in many levels. Women empowerment, empowerment of marginalised and downtrodden are the areas of attention for implementing policies and programmes. The vision of inclusiveness must go beyond the traditional objective of poverty alleviation to encompass equality of opportunity, as well as

economic and social mobility for all sections of society, with affirmative action for SCs, STs, OBCs, minorities and women. There must be equality of opportunity to all with freedom and dignity, and without social or political obstacles. This must be accompanied by an improvement in the opportunities for economic and social advancement. Empowerment of disadvantaged and hitherto marginalized groups is therefore an essential part of any vision of inclusive growth. India's democratic polity, with the establishment of the third layer of democracy at the Panchayati Raj Institution (PRI) level, provides opportunities for empowerment and participation of all groups with reservations for SCs, STs and women. These institutions should be made more effective through greater delegation of power and responsibility to the local level.

III.   The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act

The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act empowers ordinary people to demand their constitutional right to work by placing a corresponding duty on the State to implement that right. By virtue of its legislative status, NREGA is different from earlier schemes aimed at employment generation as this scheme is not prone to arbitrary modification and revision.

The main objective of the NREG Act is to free rural India from poverty. Referring to a strong NREGA movement, The Hindu magazine said that the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act "offers an opportunity to remove substantially the spectre of starvation deaths from rural India". It also aims at reducing rural-urban migration.

Since the Rio summit 1992 (earth summit) and inception Agenda 21, sustainability becomes a watchword for genuine development among nations. The vision of the Eleventh Plan also included a clear commitment to pursue a development process which is environmentally sustainable. Natural resources such as water and land are limited and their per capita availability is actually diminishing because of rising population and also because of irrational exploitation of common pool resources. The Eleventh Plan was based on a strategy that not only preserves and maintains natural resources, but also provides equitable access to those who do not have such access at present. The growing evidence on climate change shows that Green House Gas (GHG) emissions, resulting from the cumulative action of all countries, will, if not effectively contained, produce changes in climate which would have very severe effects in the future. India will be seriously affected by such climate change

Gender is an area of concern and care for government now. It is more a universal approach to different problems of people at large. New awareness has been generated to protect the rights of all sections of population. The rights of Transgender also came to the limelight of the debating tables of equity and fairness. For the first time in the history of Indian planning there is an attempt to move beyond empowerment and recognize women as agents of sustained socio-economic growth and change. The Eleventh Five Year Plan acknowledges women's agencies and tries to ensure that their needs, rights and contribution are reflected in every section of the Plan document. Gender is, therefore, a crosscutting

theme; it is not confined to a single chapter on Women and Children. The vision is to develop an integrated approach which would eventually dispense the need for a separate chapter.

Finally, the vision for the Eleventh Plan must include an improvement in governance. Over the years, the governments at the Centre and the States have launched large number of initiatives at substantial public expense to achieve the objectives of growth with poverty alleviation and inclusiveness. Accountability and transparency are critical elements of good governance. The Right to Information Act (RTI) enacted in 2005 empowers people to get information and constitutes a big step towards transparency and accountability. The strategy for the Eleventh Plan must therefore aim at bringing about major improvements in governance which would make government-funded programmes in critical areas more effective and efficient.

IV.   Millennium Development Goals and vision 2015

In 2000, 189 nations made a promise to free people from extreme poverty and multiple deprivations. This pledge became the eight Millennium Development Goals to be achieved by 2015. In September 2010, the world recommitted itself to accelerate progress towards these goals. As the Indian government embarks on formulating the 12th Five-Year Plan aimed at achieving faster, sustainable and inclusive growth, UNDP India has shared the MDG Acceleration Framework (MAF) which was ratified as a potential framework for prioritizing action towards achieving the MDGs.

The Indian government has designed an inclusive development strategy for 2015 as a concomitant towards the UN Millennium Development Goals. There are eight goals which will be achieved by the 2015.

1.   Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
2.   Achieve Universal Primary Education
3.   Promote gender equality and Empower women
4.   Reduce child mortality
5.   Improve maternal health
6.   Combat malaria HIV and other diseases.
7.   Ensure environmental stability.
8.   Develop a global partnership for Development.

1. **Eradication of extreme poverty and Hunger**

The proportion of population that has a dietary energy consumption of below the permissible standards of 2,100-2,400 kcal has risen from 64 percent in 1987-88 to 76 percent in 2004-05. Malnourishment is also an indicator of food insecurity. In 1990, when the MDGs were formulated 53.5 percent of all Indian children were malnourished. Since then, progress has been slow. In India, the proportion of underweight children below three years has declined by only one percent between 1998-99 and 2005-06 to 46 percent. It is estimated that malnourishment could decline to 40 percent by 2015.

2.   **Achieve Universal Primary Education.**

Right to education became a fundamental right with the passing of the 86th constitutional Amendment Act. Thus India became one of the 135 countries to make education a fundamental right. But an amendment alone make it is easy for the government to achieve universal primary education. Hurdles on the way includes:

- Reduce dropout rates of children at the elementary level from 52.2 percent in 2003–04 to 20 percent by 2011–12
- Develop minimum standards of educational attainment in elementary schools, to ensure quality education
- Increase the literacy rate for persons of age 7 years or more to 85 percent by 2011–12
- Reduce the gender gap in literacy to 10 percentage points by 2011–12
- Increase the percentage of each cohort (i.e. is a group of people who share a common characteristic or experience within a defined period) going to higher education from the present 10 percent to 15 percent by 2011–12.

3.   **Gender equality and empowerment of women**

The Government of India MDG Report 2009 notes, "Participation of women in employment and decision-making remains far less than that of men, and the disparity is not likely to be eliminated by 2015."

The mission envisaged a fourfold path towards empowerment of women by the year 2015.

- Gender parity in education

In developing regions, as a whole, 95 girls were enrolled in primary school for every 100 boys in 2007, compared to 91 in 1999.Significant gaps remain in some regions. In South and West Asia, 66 per cent of out-of-school children are girls. In some regions, gaps in secondary education parity are widening, such as in sub-Saharan Africa, where the ratio of girls' to boys' enrolment in secondary education fell from 82 in 1999 to 79 in 2007

- Gender parity in non-agricultural employment

Globally, the share of women in paid employment outside the agricultural sector has increased marginally. But in South Asia, North Africa and West Asia, employment opportunities remain very low. Nearly two thirds of all employed women in developing countries work either as contributing family workers or as own-account workers, extremely vulnerable employment which lacks security and benefits. Gender differences in labour force participation rates, unemployment rates and gender wage gaps are a persistent feature of global labour markets.

- Gender parity in political representation

There is a slow rate of improvement in women's share of national parliamentary seats, averaging 18.6 per cent as of October 2009. This represents an increase of seven percentage points since 1995. In the two decades between 1975 and 1995, women's representation rose by less than one per cent. Cabinet has approved 50 percent reservation for women in Panchayat raj institutions and implemented in letter and spirit. But bill for improved reservations for women in Indian Parliament is yet to be passed.

- Sexual and reproductive health rights.

Close to 189 million women in India still lack the basic capability to read and write. The dropout rates of girls have not just been high, but are higher than that of boys at the primary (41.9%), upper primary (57.7%), and secondary (71.5%) levels. By the age of 18 years, 54% women are married. 25-35% of adolescent girls of India begin child bearing as early as 17 years.

The rights include areas like :

a. Forced and child marriage

b. Access to reproductive health services

c. access to lifesaving obstetric care Forced abortions or sterilizations rape survivors' access to legal abortion services

d. Access to safe and legal abortion services in cases of unwanted pregnancy as a result of rape, sexual assault or incest.

e. Imprisonment or other criminal sanctions for seeking or having an abortion is a violation of women's reproductive rights.

f. Women must have access to safe and legal abortion services where continuation of pregnancy poses a risk to their life or grave risk to their health.

g. Prevention of sexually transmitted infections.

4. Reduce Child Mortality

The fourth Millennium Development Goal aims to reduce mortality among children under five by two-thirds.

India's Under Five Mortality (U5MR) declined from 125 per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 74.6 per 1,000 live births in 2005-06. U5MR is expected to further decline to 70 per 1,000 live births by 2015. This means India would still fall short of the target of 42 per 1,000 live births by 2015.

In view of these statistics, child survival in India needs sharper focus. This includes better managing neonatal and childhood illnesses and improving child survival, particularly among vulnerable communities. Survival risk remains a key challenge for the disadvantaged who have little access to reproductive and child health services. Major states in the heartland of India are likely to fall significantly short of these targets, by more than 20 points

5. Improve maternal health.

From a Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) of 437 per 100,000 live births in 1990-91, India is required to reduce MMR to 109 per 100,000 live births by 2015. Between 1990 and 2006, there has been some improvement in the Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) which has declined to 254 per 100,000 live births as compared to 327 in 1990. However, despite this progress, India is expected to fall short of the 2015 target by 26 points. Safe motherhood depends on the delivery by trained personnel, particularly through institutional facilities. However, delivery in institutional facilities has risen slowly from 26 percent in 1992-93 to 47 percent in 2007-08. Consequently, deliveries by skilled personnel have increased at the same pace, from 33 percent to 52 percent in the same period. By 2015, it is expected that India will be able to ensure only 62 percent of births in institutional facilities with trained personnel. Thus, universal coverage remains to be achieved.

6.   Combat malaria HIV and other diseases.

India has made significant strides in reducing the prevalence of HIV and AIDS across different types of high risk categories. Eighty-six percent of transmissions of HIV and AIDS in India are caused by sexual activity. Much of this decline can be attributed to greater awareness and increasing condom use. Adult prevalence has come down from 0.34 percent in 2007 to 0.45 percent in 2002.Malaria, both in terms of prevalence and death has declined. Malaria diagnosis has declined from 1.745 percent in 2005 to 1.52 percent in 2009. Further, malaria prone states such as the north- eastern states, Gujarat, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal have recorded fewer malaria deaths since 2006.India accounts for one-fifth of the global incidence of tuberculosis (TB), but India has made progress in halting its prevalence. Treatment success rates have remained steady at 86-87 percent over the last five years and prevalence of TB has steadily declined.

7.   Environmental sustainability.

The Eleventh Five-Year Plan (2007-12) has set several targets to further India's progress in achieving MDG VII (Millennium Development Goals). These include:

- Increase forest and tree cover by 5 percentage points
- Attain WHO standards of air quality in all major cities by 2011–12
- Treat all urban waste water by 2011–12 to clean river waters
- Clean drinking water to be available for all by 2009, ensuring that there are no slip-backs by the end of the Eleventh Plan
- Increase energy efficiency by 20 percent by 2016–17
- Ensure electricity connection to all villages and Below Poverty Line households by 2009 and reliable power by the end of the Plan
- Ensure all-weather road connections to all habitations with population of 1000 and above (500 and above in hilly and tribal areas) by 2009, and all significant habitations by 2015
- Connect every village by telephone and provide broadband connectivity to all villages by 2012
- Provide homestead sites to all by 2012 and step up the pace of house construction for rural poor to cover all the poor by 2016–17

Several government schemes also focus on this Goal. They include:

- National Biodiversity Action Plan (NBAP)
- Total Sanitation Campaign
- Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme (ARWSP), a component of the Bharat Nirman Programme and Nirmal Gram Puraskar
- Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM)

9. **Global Partnership in Development**

New avenues of development become a part of global change in administrative strategies of government. FDI, Public Private Participation, BOT schemes etc have changed the development concerns of states. Development is a priority area for global stake holders.

Investment and flow of capital accelerates development paradigms of countries. No country wants to see the destruction of another economy as flow of man and material from one nation to another is very essential to reach development levels of modern society.

Challenges

The country's most marginalised sections like scheduled casts, tribes and people in villages, women, transgender, homosexuals, HIV infective and migrants are suffering from persistent inequality.An estimated 2.24 million people live with HIV in India, and among the most visible of sexual minority groups, transgender remain largely invisible, isolated and subject to branding.

While new infections have declined by more than 50 percent in the past decade, states with low frequency such as Bihar, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal now account for 41 percent of new infections. According to the National AIDS Control Organisation (NACO), the HIV epidemic has been increasingly feminized. In addition, the HIV epidemic in several states in the north and north-east of the country point to strong links between poverty, migration and HIV.

Gender inequality in India persists despite high rates of economic growth with the outcomes lower among Dalits and Adivasis. Participation of women in employment and decision-making remains far less than that of men and the disparity are not likely to be eliminated by 2015. India's poor performance on women's empowerment and gender equality is reflected in many indicators, the most telling of which is the sex ratio which has in some parts of India dropped to 833 females per 1000 males. Gender inequality is also reflected in India's low rank on the Gender Inequality Index, which are 129 out of 146 countries with a value of 0.617. In fact, among the South Asian countries, India is second from the bottom, just above Afghanistan.

The effectiveness of rights-based legislations such as the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, the Forest Rights Act and Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas has been hampered by weak implementation. India's poor record on governance is reflected in its 87th rank on the corruption perception index among 178 countries with a value of 3.3 on a scale of 1 to 10 in 2010. Sustained focus on attaining high GDP growth rates with inadequate attention given to the pattern and inclusiveness of growth lies at the heart of India's paradox.

Growth rates, inclusiveness and sustainability are further constrained by the impact of climate change and vulnerability to disasters. In fact, India is one of the most disaster prone countries in the world with the country losing about two percent of its GDP to disasters. Around 68 percent of cultivable land in India is prone to drought of varying intensities and around 12 percent of total land is flood prone. Diverse factors, natural and human induced, adverse geo-climatic conditions, topographic features, environmental degradation, population growth, urbanization, industrialization and unscientific development practices play a huge role in accelerating the intensity and frequency of disasters resulting in huge economic losses and human casualties. With close to 533 million or 40 percent of the population expected to live in urban areas by 2025, the vulnerability of India's cities to hazards is also likely to increase.

While India is the world's fourth largest emitter of greenhouse gas (GHG), per capita GHG emissions are amongst the lowest in the world. The challenge is to simultaneously and sustainably reduce the GHG intensity of growth while improving the access of people living in poverty to clean, sustainable and affordable energy. Much of India's efforts to bring close to 400 million people on-grid will depend on its ability to harness renewable energy and achieve greater energy efficiency in a range of energy intensive sectors. As the second most disaster-prone country globally, vulnerable communities especially women lack the capacity to cope and adapt in the face of natural disasters, climate change and extreme weather events.

India is also one of the 17 mega-diverse countries, with four global biodiversity hotspots. However, 41 percent of forest cover in India is considered degraded. Of India's land area of around 230 million hectares, about 188 million hectares is degraded.

V.   Class Structure in India

Indian society, like most of other societies in the world, is a complex entity consisting of a number of, what Charles Wright Mills calls, 'sociological imaginations' such as caste, gender, ethnicity and class. Existing as formidable sociological constructs, they tend to afford distinct analytical framework in discerning the inherent complexities of social structure in particular as well as general milieus. Unique to only a particular social context, for instance, caste, as a sociological construct appears to be relevant only in deconstructing the underlying features of Indian society, as the phenomenon of caste does not exist as a powerful component of the social structure of other civilizations. On the contrary, however, gender, as the omnipresent phenomenon having a strong bearing on the societal formations in terms of interactions between the people of two different sexes, happens to be a common factor in exploring the issues of equality in all the societies, irrespective of their socio-economic or politico-cultural orientations and levels of development. Thus, it becomes quite compelling to have a fairly good understanding of the notions of caste, gender, ethnicity and class in order to be able to discern the factors that shape and determine the societal characteristics of various human civilisations.

Class as a sociological concept was first explained by Karl Marx. Marxian approach to the study of class does not give enough scope to explain all types of conflict as it only refers to economic structure. Social and cultural perspective is equally important to give a holistic picture of class structure. The concept of class is purposively taken by sociologists to study it from its origin and to understand it from grass root level. In Europe class conflicts was concentrated to industry and feudal Lords which is not the case in India because here a whole lot of other aspects like wealth, power, caste, occupation and education also becomes important to determine an individual's class position and hence there are not two but several classes present in Indian society

V a.   Agrarian Class Structure

The British in order to facilitate the economic management to suit their own system introduced changes in agrarian system in India. The Zamindari, the Ryotwari and the Mahalwari system were introduced by the British for revenues assessment of land. The Zamindari system had the Zamindars, tenants and agricultural labourers as the main agrarian classes. The Ryotwari system consisted of two type segmentation i.e. the landlord and the

peasants. The agrarian class structure everywhere in India had a feudal character; the zamindars collected taxes and were non-cultivating owners of land, the tenants were the real cultivators often without security of land.

V b.   Middle classes in India

A R Desai is the first Indian sociologist to speak about Indian middle class and their role in the rise of Indian nationalism. He writes that the platform for the rise of Indian middle class evolved from out of the caste structure. A large body of non-ritualised, power and wealth conscious middle-caste group in India offered a direction to the rise of Indian middle class. Subsequently Indian middle class played a key role in bringing reforms in culture and religion. He considers that social religious reform movements are middle-class movements in India that question and challenge the upper class, Sanskritic and ritualistic values. i considers that British played a significant role in the expansion of the size of Indian middle class. More significantly British introduce printing press, bureaucracy, new kind of land tenure system, trade, commerce and industry, regular Army, policing systems and educational institutions that offered employment opportunities to a large body of Indians. These people got exposure to the rational ideas, democratic values of the Western world and started writing articles in newspapers, developed a political cause and a political organisation, made a presentation to British administration for different kinds of concessions and benefits. As a result Indian middle class offered a solid foundation to the rise of nationalist movement in India elf-respect movement in case of Tamil Nadu, Satya Shodak Samaj movement in case of Maharashtra and SNDP movement in Kerala gave way to the emergence of middle class movement; who wear articulated, non-traditional, anti-Brahmin and demanding for equity, control over power structure.

Gusharan Das in his book "India Unbound", Amartya Sen in his book "Argumentative Indians" and Abdul Kalam in his book "India 2020" consider that during post liberalisation period the human resource potential of India is mostly being exported leading to Indian scientist, researchers, industrialist achieving miracles and receiving global recognition thereby bringing India into the domain of world community as a rich nation with enough human resource potentials.

According to Gurusharan Das globalisation has offered unbound limit for self expression, mobility, prosperity and happiness. Amartya Sen indicate that India's success in the field of literacy campaign is an attempt to convert the ideal man's power into progressive working population which is the foundation to the creation of knowledge society. He considers that education is a prerequisite for the rise of knowledge society and India unlike China is a leader in this Frontier. He expects Indian economy grow to be sustainable because it stands on a solid knowledge base. The Institute of Applied Economic and Research in its report indicated that during India's independence the total percentage of middle class was 12% that increased to 20% during 1951 which reached the figure of 58% in 2001 and it is expected to reach a target of around 70% by the end of 2020.

V c.   Industrial class structure

Dominant element in the ruling class combine is the industrial bourgeoisie, which emerged and grew under the long shadow of British colonialism. Accumulating capital through merchant and trading activities related to the colonial economy, this class gradually diversified into industrial activities, beginning with the textile industry in an around colonial Bombay. A significant portion of the industrial bourgeoisie has been, and continues to be, organized along family lines, with the Tatas and the Birlas being the most prominent historical examples.

Three characteristics of the Indian industrial bourgeoisie need attention:

1.   its attitude towards other elements, especially the semi-feudal landlords, of the ruling class combine;
2.   The evolution of its internal structure and its relationship with the State; and,
3.   Its relationship with the centre of the global capitalist system.

At the time of political independence, the industrial structure in India was very concentrated at the top, with a few large monopoly business houses controlling large swathes of the market. Three trends have emerged, slowly at first, since then. The first trend has been the differentiation between large scale and small scale industries; policies of the Indian state helped in this differentiation. The second trend has been the relative growth and proliferation of the small scale sector, i.e., relative to the large-scale, organized sector. The third trend has been the slow but steady growth of a regional bourgeoisie. Thus, concentration and centralization of capital has proceeded in several branches of the organized sector; but this has also been accompanied by increased regional and sectoral competition and growth of the small scale sector.

Module 5.
Politics Administrative Interface: Nature of grass root level politics – role of bureaucracy Inter relationship between Politicians and Bureaucrats. Enhancing Bureaucratic capability.

Politics is what the power relations aspire to follow as it perceives legitimate application of power proved with popular participation in election process. Genuine democracy is a synthesis between bureaucracy and popular will. The politics-administrative interface is marked by the constitution of a nation. Grass root level administration is facilitated through districts and district Collectors. District has been placed under the charge of a district officer, called either Deputy Commissioner District Collector.

The Collector acts as the eyes, ears and arms of the State Government. The district also serves as a unit of administration for various departments of the State Government. Thus, many State functionaries like the Superintendent of Police, Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, District Agriculture Officer, District Medical Officer, etc., are located at the district headquarters and their jurisdiction extends to the district. However, the unit of administration of the department of irrigation is not coterminous with the district. The unit follows channels of irrigation quite often transcending district boundaries. Agencies operating in the district come under the co-ordinating discipline of the District Collector. The office of the District Collector can be traced to the Mughal era. The District Collector succeeded the Karori-Faujdar of the Mughal Government. However, with the decline of the Mughal Empire the institution suffered decay and eventually disappeared. The present office is the creation of the British in India and dates back to the year 1772.

I.   The District Collector

The District collector belongs to the General Administration Department of the State Government, while the officials over whom he exercises control and supervision belong to a variety of departments, in the district hierarchy of which he may or may not have a formal assignment.

As head of the district, the District Collector is involved in a network of inter-relationships with other district level functionaries such as (a) with officers whose head at the district level is the Collector in all matters, and who represent departments having no district heads of their own, e.g., the Tehsildar. (b) with officers whose head at the district level is the Collector for only administrative and certain disciplinary matters but who, in technical matters, are under the control of their own district level officers, e.g., District Agricultural Officer, District Excise Officers, etc. (c) with officers who are themselves heads, at the district level, of their field staff but are made subordinate to the Collector only in certain specified matters. Besides, they are also under the control of their respective regional officers, e.g., the Superintendent of

Police, the Civil Surgeon, the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Executive Engineer of the Public Works Department, etc. d) with officers, the control over whom does not at all vest in the Collector, e.g., Labour Officer, Sales Tax Officer, etc

II a. Recruitment of District Collector

The District Collector is usually a member of the Indian Administrative Service. As the IAS consists of both direct recruits and of promotes from State civil services, these two sub-groups constitute the two natural sources from which District Collectors are drawn. Direct recruits to the office, that is, those who join the IAS through a competitive examination, are young men, usually in their thirties. The office is also occupied by officers who were originally recruited to the State civil services and who have since been, promoted to the IAS. This category belongs to a higher age group. There may also be some District Collectors who are not members of the IAS. Such officers belong to the State civil service, to be soon promoted to the IAS. They are on the verge of retirement, and so, are afforded the satisfaction of functioning, and then retiring as District Collector.

II b.   Role of District Collector in Revenue Administration

Historically, prompt and fair collection of land revenue and other taxes has been his first charge as the title "Collector' signifies. As the head of the revenue department of the district, the District Collector performs the following functions:

1. Collection of land revenue, canal dues and other Government dues.
2. Distribution and recovery loans.
3. Assessment of losses to crops, etc. during natural calamities and to make recommendations for relief work.
5. Relief of fire sufferers.
6. Control over land records and land records establishment.
7. Collecting and furnishing multifarious agrarian statistics regarding rainfall, crops, etc.
8. Land acquisition work.
9. Supervision of treasury and sub-treasuries.
10. Sanctioning land revenue assignment.
11. Payment of Zamindari Abolition compensation and Rehabilitation Grant.
12. Assessment and realisation of agricultural income-tax.
13. As ex-officio Deputy Director of Consolidation of Holdings, hearing appeal against the orders of the lower authorities.
14. Taking relief measures in case of scarcity conditions caused by natural calamities like fire, drought, flood, waterclogging, etc.
15. Enforcement of the Stamp Act.
16. Management of Government estates

II b (i) .Role of District Collector in the Maintenance of Law and Order

Sound law and order situation is the basis of orderly and civilised life and so it is by far the most important function of the District Collector. He performs this function as the District Magistrate with the assistance of the district police and other agencies.

His law and order functions include :

       (a) Supervision over the investigation of crimes etc.

       (b) Prevention of breach of peace and maintenance of law and order.

With the separation of the executive and the judiciary, the supervision of investigation of crimes, etc., is now mainly performed by the Judicial Magistrates. However, the responsibility for maintaining peace, law and order still rests with the District Collector. In his capacity as District Magistrate the District Collector performs the following functions :

a. He controls and supervises the subordinate magistracy and orders magisterial postings during festivals.
b. He promulgates orders whenever there is any danger or breach of public peace and tranquility.
c. He disposes of all the petitions and miscellaneous general complaints received from Government and others.
d. He makes jail inspections and expedites disposal of cases of under-trial prisoners.
e. He grants superior classes to prisoners or releases them prematurely or on parole.
f. He deals with mercy petitions from prisoners.
g. He controls and directs the action of the police.
h. He submits an annual criminal report to Government.
i. He appoints and punishes village chowkidars.
j. He inspects police stations once a year.
k. He sanctions expunction of a crime from the crime register.
l. He recovers repatriation charges.
m. He performs functions relating to accidents, payments under the Workmen's Compensation Act, labour problems, strikes, etc.
n. He is also responsible for sanction of temporary electric connections including, enquiries regarding breaches, for granting and cancelling of many kinds of licences.
o. He exercises supervision over supply office and rent control and eviction officer under Rent Control Act and in supply matters.
p. He also exercises supervision and control over local bodies, municipal board, notified areas and town areas.
q. Recommends issue of passports and visas, and also schemes for the development of forests.
r. He is the issuing authority for certificates of domicile, scheduled and backward classes, etc.

Under normal circumstances, the law and order is maintained by the District Magistrate with the help of normal district police. However, if the law and order situation deteriorates, the District Magistrate can seek the assistance of Central reserve Police Force, Rapid Action Force or Border Security Force battalions may be made available by the Government of India through the State Government. The Central Government may also arrange for the enforcement of the District and State Police by requesting the other State Governments to send their armed forces. And if the civil police is not able to control the law and order situation, the District Magistrate can seek the assistance of the Army'. Maintenance of law and order requires a sound intelligence system which is organised by the Special Branch of the State Government. The Special Branch of the State Government has a small unit in the district which supplies information to the State as well as keeps the Superintendent of Police and District Magistrate informed of the developments having a bearing on the law and order situation. However, the latter do not depend solely on the information gathered thus but also have independent sources to check and cross-check the information gathered by official units. An eye is kept on the sensitive areas in the district and the people who are known as 'mischief mongers'.

II b (ii) Role of District Collector in Development

With the dawn of independence India has embarked upon a new era of welfare state and community life. The Collector is the most appropriate person to look after developmental activities in the district. The Balwant Rai Mehta team which made a study of Community Projects and National Extension Services recommended that At the district level, the Collector or the Deputy Commissioner should be the captain of the team of officers of all development departments and should be made fully responsible for securing the necessary co-ordination and co-operation in the preparation and execution of the district plans for community development.'

The District Collector's developmental duties comprise of:

1. dispelling of ignorance,
2. eradication of superstition,
3. spread of co-operative institutions and Panchayats,
4. increase of community projects and national extension schemes,
5. rehabilitation of refugees,
6. encouragement of awareness about rights and duties, etc.

The performance of these duties gives the Collector ample opportunities to come in contact with the people and to prove his worth as a public servant in the true sense. The Ministry of Food and Agriculture set up in 1963, a Working Group of Inter-departmental and Institutional Co-ordination for Agricultural Production under the chairmanship of Ram Subhag Singh to report on ways of ensuring speedy execution of agricultural production programmes and for effective co-ordination between the activities of agriculture, co-operation and other allied departments in the Slates and of the community development and Panchayati Raj institutions. The Group assigned a crucial role to the Collector.

It made some very significant recommendations which are as follows :

1. The District Collector should be the Chairman of the Agricultural Production Committee of the Zila Parishad. If there is no Zila Parishad, such a committee should be formed with the district officers of the departments concerned with agricultural production and representatives of non-official organisations, as members, with the Collector as Chairman. The Committee should be responsible for co-ordination of the activities of all departments concerned with agricultural production. In particular, the committee should consider and approve a co-ordinated agricultural production plan for the district, assign specific tasks and responsibilities to the officers and institutions concerned, receive and review progress reports from them and remove any bottlenecks or difficulties.

2. The District Agricultural Production Officer should assist the Collector in coordinating the efforts of all the departments concerned with agricultural production at that level and should function under the overall direction of the Agricultural Committee. State heads of departments should continue to deal directly with their district officers as at present, but in matters relating to the work of the Agricultural Production Committee, they should communicate through the District Collector.

3. The District Collector should be effectively involved in assessing the work of district level functionaries. The Deputy Directors at the regional level should initiate the annual entries in the character roll of all district officers under their control and route them through the District Collector to the heads of department concerned.

II b (iii) Changing role of the District Collector

The importance of the district administration can be realised from the fact that there is hardly any activity of the people which is in some way or the other not affected by the district administration. During the British period, people looked the district administration as their father and mother. The District Collector is the head of the revenue organisation. He exercises general supervision over the law and order machinery. Though the position and prestige of the District Collector have changed and undergone several modifications, he is still the responsible head of general administration in the district and representative of the Government. He is the only officer in the district who can correspond directly with the Government.

III. ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS and DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION.

Administrative reform is an attempt to make positive as well as progressive changes within the administrative structure. Updated administrative system is very essential to meet the challenges of society which is growing fast. Society is always dynamic, unless the bureaucratic structure is subject to inherent reforms, every effort to satisfy the need of people will be in futile. Administrative reforms also are viewed in different ways; such as administrative modernisation or improvement. It leads to procedural as well as substantive changes in the system. Very often administrative is

observed as an apolitical, impartial and neutral process. Administrative reforms will change the traditional nature of bureaucracy. Bureaucracy is forced to shed its compartmentalised automation and to absorb what society is longing for.

With the adoption of universal adult franchise, the constitution of India declared that the permanent executive should be amenable to popular will. The reforms in Indian administrative system start from this juncture. The Staff Reorganisation Unit was setup in 1953,(the Staff Inspection Unit under the Ministry of Finance) and the establishment of the O&M (Organisation and Methods) in 1954 to review staffing in government agencies with a view to achieve economy in staff consistent with administrative efficiency and to begin and sustain administrative efficiency in all branches of public administration brought in some hope for real administrative reforms. Main concern of administrative reforms are; efficiency and economy; specialisation; effective cooperation and coordination; administrative and development of personnel, accountability and corruption.

Prime Minister Lal Bahadur Shastri appointed the Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC-1) in January 1966 with Morarji Desai as its chair. A member of the commission, K. Hanumanthaiya, was appointed the new chairman. The ARC-I recommended a sixteen-member cabinet, including the Prime Minister, and a council of ministers no larger than forty to forty-five. The three-tier council of ministers should comprise cabinet ministers, ministers of state, and deputy ministers, dispensing with parliamentary secretaries. The Prime Minister was advised not to be in direct charge of any ministry, excepting the department of personnel. A monthly review by the Prime Minister of the work in individual or groups of ministers would improve implementation and efficiency. Rational considerations in choice of ministerial colleagues by the Prime Minister are urged. A two-week annual holiday for ministers for reading, reflection, and relaxation is suggested. Some of these ideas, e.g. categories of ministers and PM's strong drive in initiation, coordination and review of policies, are reminiscent of the British Westminster cabinet system in party government.

In the interest of collective responsibility of the cabinet, the commission emphasized the practice of discussing and settling all important issues by the cabinet, and avoidance of announcement of any new policy or departure from the existing policy by an individual minister without the approval of the cabinet. Individual ministerial accountability should be limited only to the failure or wrong formulation of policy regarding a major problem in one's ministry, lack of personal attention to the work, mismanagement or mal-administration, and acts of impropriety. Politics – administration dichotomy asserted in the report by making the post of Minister is exempted from accountability of the functions of civil servants.

As to the minister-secretary (civil servant) relationship, the commission laid down the following principles / practice:

a. all major decisions should be in writing with reasons stated,

b. an atmosphere of free, frank, and fearless discussion,

c. discouragement of unhealthy liaison between a minister and a secretary by the Prime Minister,

d. avoidance of ministerial intervention in day-to-day administration,

e. civil servants appreciation of minister's difficulties and discrimination between minor adjustment and major undermining of basic policies and principles, and

f. the development of a relationship of the secretary's loyalty to the minister and the latter's trust in the former.

To enhance parliamentary control over administration, the commission recommended: department-based standing committees in place of ad hoc committees, supplementing omnibus standing committees like Public Accounts Committee and Estimates Committee.

The commission recommended areas of mutual help and sharing between central government and state government in the following fields of state administration:

a. offering initiative and leadership to the states and serving as clearing house of information about good programmes and practices at any level and anywhere in the country,

b. formulation of national plan in close collaboration with states,

c. initiating research and development beyond the resources of states

d. undertaking foundational training programmes,

e. programme evaluation initiatives from the national perspective,

f. providing forums for intergovernmental meetings,

g. the function of coordination that can only be handled at the centre, and

h. relations with foreign governments and international organizations.

The commission recommended that the District collector should be made responsible for the efficient performance of only the regulatory functions, e.g. law and order, collection of land revenue and other taxes, land records, civil supply and ancillary functions. This could be done by separating the administrative from his judicial functions and developmental functions and transferring these to other functionaries. The developmental functions should be transferred to the Zila Parishads, the apex of the Panchayati Raj institutions, and the District Development Officer.

For the redressal of citizens' grievances, the commission recommended the adaptation of the institution of ombudsman in Scandinavian countries and of parliamentary commissioner in New Zealand. On these lines a two-tier machinery of the Lokpal and Lokayukta was suggested to supplement the process of parliamentary control, free from partisanship and outside the administrative hierarchy. Complaints against ministers and secretaries at the centre as well as in states could be made to the Lokpal. Lokayuktas, one for the centre and one for each state, should deal with the complaints against the rest of the bureaucracy. Having the same status as the Chief Justice of India, the Lokpal should be appointed by the President of India on the advice of the Prime Minister in consultation with the Chief Justice of India and the leader of the opposition in the Lok Sabha.

III a. Administrative reforms since 1990s

Demand for grater federalisation and growing importance of globalisation revamped the administrative reforms in 1990s.It is proper to discuss in this context the two following documents: the Report of the National Commission to Review the Working of the Constitution (Chair Justice M.N. Venkatachaliah) and Reports of the Administrative Reforms Commission – II (Chair M. Veerappa Moiley). Venkatachaliah Commission was appointed by Prime Minister Atal Bihari Vajpayee in 2000 to review and recommend "changes, if any, that are required in the provisions of the constitution without interfering with its basic structure or features." The commission submitted its report in 2002.

The major administrative reforms recommended by this commission may be summarised as follows:

a. to make the district as the unit of development administration and planning;
b. guarantee of title deeds after carrying out extensive land surveys and computerizing the land records;
c. downsizing the bureaucratic apparatus of the state and introduction of new management system;
d. placement of the specialists under the generalists at the top;
e. the appointment of a National Science and Technology Commission under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister;
f. restoration of ethical and moral dimension as one of the most crucial issues of governance;
g. enactment of a comprehensive law ensuring a public servant's liability for damages caused to the state by *mala fide* actions;
h. law for confiscation of illegally acquired assets of holders of public offices; constitutional amendment requiring the appointments of the Lokpal at the centre and Lokayuktas in states; and
i. enactment of a law by Parliament to establish the Inter-State Trade and Commerce Commission

The six-member Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC-II) was appointed by Prime Minister Manmohan Singh in 2005 to "suggest measures to achieve a proactive, responsive, accountable, sustainable and efficient administration for the country at all levels of the government." It submitted its reports (15 vols.) in 2009. After exploring international experiences of reorganizing governments, the commission highlighted the following global lessons:

➢ the political leadership at the apex level with consensus across party lines pushed the reform agenda with commitment;
➢ focusing on the core functions of government, right-sizing the administration and outsourcing the functions was emphasized;

- competition in delivery of public services--- dismantling of monopolies;
- agencification of government departments to carry out specific executive functions within a mandate and a framework of policy and resources;
- decentralization, delegation, and devolution;
- public-private partnership; bureaucratic deregulation;
- strengthening of accountability mechanisms;
- electronic or e-governance for efficiency and citizen-empowerment;
- Performance Management System (PMS) for refurbishing of personnel administration;
- citizen's charters, effective grievance redressal mechanisms, Right to Information, etc., promotion of diffusion of good governance practices;
- policy evaluation and regulatory impact assessment;
- benchmarking for continuous improvement;
- governance indices indicating what is happening to different social groups in terms of quality of life, especially to the disadvantaged and vulnerable.

IV.   **Bureaucratic Reforms**

In its review of the All India Services, the Sarkaria Commission found that although most of the state governments were agreed that the Services have fulfilled the expectations of the framers of the Indian constitution and the parliamentarians enacting the conforming law in their relation, some state governments were highly dissatisfied with the existing arrangements. The dissatisfaction mainly arose from the departures from the ideal of joint disciplinary control of the two orders of governments over the services. It virtually amounted to the unitary control to the exclusion of state governments. The commission found greater fault in this regard at the state level, where an officer belonging to these services "who is uncompromising in the matter of maintaining the probity and impartiality of administration not unoften finds himself on a path of collision with his political superiors." He is made to suffer punishment posting, frequent transfers, and even suspension on flimsy grounds. There are instances of state governments, more often than the union government, seeking to manipulate and coerce the officers into doing their bids anyhow.

As a remedy, the commission recommended (a) an Advisory Council for Personnel Administration of the All India Services comprising the union cabinet secretary (chair), union secretaries in charge of individual All India Services, and Chief Secretaries of states; and (b) disposal of an appeal against suspension of an All India Service officer by the union government "invariably" in consultation with the union Public Service Commission whose advice should normally be accepted to weed out partisan considerations on the part of the union government.

A bureaucratic apparatus is a means of attaining the goals prescribed by the political leadership. Those at helm of affairs exercise apical dominance by dint of their political legitimacy. Bureaucracy executes the functioning of the government. In such a scenario, the bureaucratic system too needs to be reformed as a part of the overall political reform process.

Indian bureaucracy has the following ailments right now;
- No time limit for case disposal;
- Problem of transfer of personnel;
- No direct responsibility and accountability;
- Official secrets act obstructs transparency and permits malpractices;
- No participation of people in formulation and implementation of development programs

The bureaucratic reforms have to be undertaken on two levels. First is the lessening of political power over bureaucracy. This involves a revamping of the whole politico – bureaucratic nexus and changing the power balance to eliminate unfair uses of powers of transfer of personnel etc. This requires constitutional modification which again is based on political will.

IV a.   Bureaucracy as a management.

Another aspect of bureaucratic reforms is to make bureaucracy more accountable, and more efficient. Individual accountability has to be enforced, both in politics as well as bureaucracy to fix responsibility. And responsibility should be supplemented by skills. In modern times, of all acts of civilized society, perhaps, governance is one of the most difficult tasks, as it deals with issues – political, economic or social, that directly affect public life of living human beings, who are full of psychological and sociological complexes and prone to unpredictable behaviour. Good governance is the foundation stone to build a forward-looking society.

The main tasks of an administration during nineteenth century were universally the maintenance of law and order and revenue collection. But in the post war period, development consciousness and development efforts, emerged in the new nations of Asia, Africa, Latin America and parts of Europe, which required a civil service of integrity, equipped with administrative ability and practical reasonableness for development. The emphasis in administration has shifted to the welfare plans, national reconstruction and development.

IV b.   Development administration and bureaucracy

The scope of state activities has been increasing due to many reasons. French Revolution, Bolshevik Revolution, Industrial Revolution and Contemporary developments etc have had great impact in expanding the scope of state and its role.

The ultimate aim of governance is to help common men live a peaceful, safe and secure life. Present era is democratic and people are well aware of the role governments. They are demanding for better standard of living, better housing, better education and better medical facilities. They don't want input agencies like political parties, pressure groups to support and raise their demands. In response to the increasing demands from the people, the theoretical frame work of administration has changed to take care of the delivery side of the administration. The trend led to design public administration more pro-people and started its

functions around the concept of welfare state and developmental administration. "Welfare state is the objective and Developmental administration is the machinery". The welfare state aimed to bring about `social, political and economic justice'.

Welfare of people connected with many faceted developments. The most important change is taking place in technological advancement. People are connected with wireless networks and they are registering their opinion and demands through online devises. Thus marginalisation is viewed both in terms of economic wellbeing and accessibility to communication networks.

Welfare state aims upliftment of marginalized sections of society. Provision of basic necessities to all irrespective of their caste or creed, the voluntary abdication of riches and power – that these riches brings and establishment of a productive, vigorous and creative political and social life are the aims of a national government.

Immediate objective of development administration in third world countries depends on it ability to address the core problems of – want, disease, ignorance, squalor and idleness. The welfare concept of state has no utility in itself unless it is translated into action. The instrument deployed for achieving welfare goals – national reconstruction and development – is that of the development of administration through the institution of civil service, which puts all its energies at bringing about socio-economic and political development of the nation as a whole. An efficient administration can successfully comprehend what is attainable, what is practical and what can help the agencies in the community to formulate plans and policies, by which the community can seek to, assure welfare of all its members.

In the post war period in general, development consciousness and development efforts, emerged in the new nations of Asia, Africa, Latin America and parts of Europe, required a civil service of integrity, equipped with administrative ability and practical sagacity for development.

V.   **Requirements for efficient governance:**

Following are the requirements needed for the civil servants engaged in development administration -

- Mental framework – it should never be conservative. It should have a scientific outlook and should be progressive, innovative, reformist and even revolutionary in mental attitudes and approaches.
- Knowledge – it should have knowledge of science, technology and social sciences.
- Skills – it requires conceptual skills (ability for innovative problem – analysis), planning skills, technical skills, managerial skills and human skills.
- Vision – A development bureaucrat requires the vision of a statesman and not that of either narrow-minded politicians or a rule-minded bureaucrat.
- Structures – it requires less hierarchical and more team-like structures such as Commissions, Boards, and Corporations etc.
- Behaviour – The behavioural pattern should consist of;
    a. action and achievement orientation,
    b. responsiveness,
    c. responsibility,

d. all round smooth relations inside with juniors and seniors and outside with clientele and the public, and

e. commitment to development ideologies and goals.

Besides, there should be –

- A working partnership between the civil servants and the people.

- A sense of service, a spirit of dedication, a feeling of involvement and a will to sacrifice for the public welfare.

- A pragmatic application of the basic democratic principles. Higher civil servants should provide the required leadership to the lower levels of administration.

- Constant field inspection by senior officials to provide the government with the ability to be in constant contact with the people; and to make the people conscious that the government is alive to their problem;

- Smooth relation between generalist administrators and experts specialists.

- Training from time to time to understand the success already achieved in the field of development administration and the efforts to be initiated in future.

VI. Downgrading trends among bureaucracy

Unless a nation is not able to assess the weaknesses of its bureaucracy, it would become difficult for it to achieve its targets within time and cost limitations.

India has everything, a nation needs for its development – like tremendous amount of skilled and unskilled manpower, all kinds of raw materials in abundance, a good legal system, a huge market and potential to export virtually everything, provided cost of its inputs are kept at international levels. Still success is far away and still much more is required to be done to achieve its desired goals. Everything depends on how those in the realm of authority perceive and handle them.

In India, there are many factors, which have made good governance difficult. As a developing nation, it is reeling between many internal contradictions like between prosperity-poverty, between plenty of resource endowments-scarcity of their management, between its culture of peace and tolerance-its tendency of sliding towards violence, intolerance and discrimination.

Somehow, by the late sixties, a spirit of frustration and despair with `development administration' and with `development' in general had set in. For one thing, it became evident that externally induced modernization had failed to eradicate the basic problems of under-developed, it purported to solve. While some significant increase in GNP had indeed taken place, poverty, disease and hunger had either worsened or remained unaltered. The same could be said of the growing gap between the rich and the poor nations or between different social strata within a nation. By seventies, the decaying trends had become noticeable in all the nations of developing world. Events like the major industrial countries and a crisis of liberal democracy in the seventies and the early eighties have dampened most traces of early optimism.

Due to arbitrariness of few powerful groups or persons, lawlessness is prevalent all over the country. There is a sense of frustration, distrust, venom and agitation/violence amongst

masses, which threatens to shake the whole system and its structures. General public has become so inured that any amount of harassment, violence, assaults on human dignity and human rights, bloodshed, caste-wars, carnage, riots, corruption, scams or scandals hardly throws him anymore. One feels secure, until not affected personally, but how long?

In an atmosphere of political uncertainty, it is not easy for upright bureaucrats responsible for the good governance of the country to give free and frank opinion to their political masters.

Democratic governments in multiparty systems are in a dilemma to address real issues of people as the government itself is a pray for regionalism and other sub-cultural ailments. Countries like India have multiparty system. Government hardly enjoys comfortable majority in the legislature. Decisions of the government are taken with due diligence may have negative feedback from ruling coalition. It is easier for the authorities to play on emotions of the populace rather than to make efforts address real issues. To divert mob attention from real issues, most of the politicians put emphasis on abstract ones based on the emotions of the people, like **"Equity"**, **"Secularism"**, **"Social Justice"**, " reservation" etc., which gives at-least some hope to the people. But the end result of all this is that instead of bringing prosperity, it has incited people to pit emotional venom against each other, bred in them intolerance, inflexibility, narrowness, unadulterated materialism or/and feeling of otherness/estrangement. The result is persistent backwardness and endemic instability.

VI a. *Constraints*

According to Ferrel Heady (Ferrel Heady, Public Administration, A comparative perspective), the main hindrances on the way of effective development are:

- The colonial bureaucratic traditions like elitism, authoritarianism, aloofness, red-tapeism and paternalistic tendencies;
- Lack of skilled manpower for development program. It is caused by inadequacies and deficiencies in the educational system, training schemes and brain drain.
- The emphasis of civil servants is on personal expediency, status-orientation on ascriptive grounds. Results of this tendency are `institutionalised' and `socially sanctioned' large-scale corruption and `over-staffing' in lower bureaucracy.
- Discrepancy between form and reality. There is wide gulf between the administrative form and reality due to a superficial change to modernizing values and substantial continuation of the traditional ideas. As a result, we find superfluous and excessive legislation or rules (which are normally violated), false delegations and decentralisations, eye-washing reports and actions with continuing backwardness.
- Bureaucratic Autonomy – Due to various factors like colonial tradition monopoly and prestige of expertise for development available in bureaucracy, monopoly of coercive power, the tiredness, inadequacies and instability of political leadership and the near absence or weakness of groups exercising countervailing force over bureaucracy, have all made it more self-serving than development oriented.

According to Valson (E.H. Valsan, Development Bureaucracy, A Tentative Model)

The higher-level development bureaucracy suffers from four constraints:

- disagreements with political bosses;
- the relatively better economic and social status of civil servants;

- Supremacy of seniority and patronage than qualifications in promotions; and
- Unwillingness of bureaucrats to accept new ideas and technology for fear of loss of power and positions.

Middle level is constrained by: -

- conflict between young and old minds in civil service;
- a high level of corruption;
- low commitment to development; and
- Conflict with higher level development bureaucracy and local politicians.

The lower level has to face:

- insufficient qualifications;
- poor salary;
- loss of morale and loss of faith in development ideology due to frustrating field experience; and
- loss of initiative, crippling subservience to seniors and sacrifice to developmental objectives.

VI b.   Remedy –

It is suggested that development of administration as the remedy for above said problems. Development of Administration means "a pattern of increasing effectiveness in the utilisation of available means to achieve prescribed goals". (E.H. Valsan – Development Bureaucracy – A Tentative Model)

Mr. Bata K. Dey has rightly said, "By and large, for development administration, the bureaucrats of major interest are those, who occupy managerial roles, who are in some directive capacity in either central agencies or in the field, who are concerned with the policy and plans formulation, programme implementation and evaluation". The directing services are obviously the higher generalist, specialist and managerial services.

An appropriate designing and sincere shaping of the civil service for making it an effective instrument for the required purpose can be done by:

- Renovating the Administrative structure; and
- Re-patterning the behaviour of civil servants.
- Behavioural changes in bureaucratic patterns are obviously more important.

These dimensions can be achieved either through reforms (structural) or through proper education and training of higher civil servants.

Apart from renovating the bureaucracy, the development of nation demands awareness and a sense of responsibility amongst masses as well. Political leaders need to find out honestly the real issues posing challenges before the government rather than wasting their efforts on peripheral/abstract issues for their short terms gains. Everybody together needs to make sincere efforts to address basic problems.

Until and unless basic issues are analyzed and tackled sincerely and honestly taking the total scenario in view, it will be difficult for India to achieve the sustainable development of the nation as a whole. The innovations of agency in public service and stakeholder concepts drastically changed the scope and meaning of public administration in lower level.

Module 6
Decentralisation and Development.

Concept of democratic decentralization – evolution and role of Panchayat Raj - Three tire system Impact of 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments on Panchayat Raj

I. Decentralisation and development.

Every discussion on decentralisation needs a study of its reasons. Decentralisation has different roles to play. For some countries it is a remedy to curb or mitigate emerging local or regional issues in terms of sub-cultural elements like regionalism, racism or even linguistic demands form nation's different areas. While, a few countries like India take a broader enlightened vision to support its people and differing culture, assigning them constitutional status to rule themselves. Indian government has incorporated to its constitution new schedules itself to solve the problem of democratic decentralisation in the country.

Decentralisation is viewed as an answer for regional problems in many situations. For example, the American constitution is viewed as a great compromise between the central government and states. Local autonomy in fiscal - managerial administration will help people think in terms of the protection of their personal ethics and culture. It is a declaration of cultural autonomy in regional level.

"Decentralization" generally means the devolution of decision-making powers. A related concept is "de-concentration," in which operations are decentralized, but decision-making powers are not devolved. In addition, decentralization does not necessarily denote erosion neither of central control nor of powers over issues and processes with national dimensions. Instead, it has political, administrative, and fiscal dimensions that are replicated more or less completely in different vertical spheres. There is no problem of deprivation of central authority in the decentralisation process.

Decentralisation heralds options for each administrative unit to be proud of themselves as autonomous. Federalism is an accepted form of decentralisation. There are three important inevitable features for a federation. Viz. existence of written rigid supreme constitution, presents of federal court to deal with the matters in between federating units and central government and division of power between central government and federating units. Decentralisation may take another dimension that it expands the participation of people rather than the participation of regions and people can feel the real aspects of democracy.

Mahatma Gandhi believed in voluntary decentralisation process. He viewed decentralisation as a natural phenomenon and it is a spiritual support to the villages. An ideal type of decentralisation make, he believed, villages a self sufficing communities; little republics. The Bertrand Russell has to say as regards Gandhi's concept of decentralization: "In those parts of the world in which industrialism is still young, the possibility of avoiding the horrors we have experienced still exists. India, for example is traditionally a land of village communities. It would be a tragedy if this traditional way of life with all its evils were to be suddenly and

violently exchanged for the greater evils of industrialism and they would apply to people whose standard of living is already pitifully low..... "

According to Rondilenni, Decentralisation means the "transfer of authority to plan, make decisions and manage public functions from a higher level of government to any individual organisation or agency at a lower level"

Decentralisation refers to "the transfer of political power, decision making capacity and resources from central to sub-national levels of government". A number of arguments have been advanced to support decentralization including:

➢ Efficiency allocation:
Local authorities are more sensitive to local priorities and needs, and can modify service provision to reflect this;

➢ Information provision:
Local government can keep people informed as they are in direct contact with users of services;

➢ Responsiveness:
The proximity of local government to service users means that, provided that they have sufficient autonomy, they can be more responsive to local needs than central government;

➢ Local revenue maximization:
Local authorities can optimise local sources of revenue by levying local taxes, fees and user charges and using the income locally; and,

➢ Accountability:
Local communities are better placed to influence politics and policy at the local level than at the national level. Communities can put direct pressure on local authorities if they are unhappy with the delivery of services.

The way in which decentralisation is undertaken and the impact that it has is heavily dependent on the context in which it takes place. Consequently, it is not easy to generalize about what makes the implementation of decentralisation successful. Watson identifies five areas that play an important role:

1. Clear division of roles, responsibilities and powers between levels of government;
2. The transfer of adequate financial resources to the local level;
3. A clear distinction between the roles of elected councillors and technical officials at the local level;
4. Capacity for planning, budgeting and project management; and,
5. Appropriate mechanisms of accountability between the local authority and the users of its services.

New approaches to planning have been developed in response to the decentralisation agenda. The scope of planning has expanded and it is increasingly seen to be an important management tool that "gives life" to many aspects of decentralisation by leveraging in the benefits of these processes and ensuring that the desired outcomes are achieved. Planning

has moved away from being only concerned with the control of land use, and increasingly concerned with:

1.   The co-ordination of activities across sectors;
2.   The efficient distribution of resources;
3.   Facilitating pro-poor outcomes;
4.   Providing tools for analysis and implementation;
5.   The creation of an enabling environment for development activities; and
6.   Being able to manage change while continuing to provide guidance in the event of change.

Democratic decentralisation implies more than the downward delegation of authority; significantly, it entails a system of governance in which citizens possess the right to hold local public officials to account through the use of elections, collective action and other democratic means. According to Harry Blair (Democratic decentralisation) can be defined as meaningful authority devolved to local units of governance that are accessible and accountable to the local citizenry, who enjoy full political rights and liberty. It thus differs from the vast majority of earlier efforts at decentralization in developing areas, which go back to the 1950s, and which were largely initiatives in public administration without any serious democratic component.

Henry Mayo identifies four areas of decentralisation that make decentralisation a success:

a. Popular control of policy makers, both by regular elections and by the pressure of social interest groups;
b. The institutionalisation of all adult citizens in voting (i.e. one person, one vote);
c. Political freedom in the eyes of the state; and
d. Policy decisions made on the basis of majority rule.

The USAID study of democratic decentralisation identifies seven mechanisms "that have proven at least potentially viable" in India

a.   Free and fair local elections;
b.   Strong and competitive political parties;
c.   Strong civil society organisations;
d.   A vigorous and accessible electronic media;
e.   Public meetings; Formal grievance procedures; and Opinion surveys.

The International Guidelines on Decentralisation and Access to Basic Services for all published by United Nations Human Settlement Programme suggested following important guidelines for the effective implementation of grassroots level democracy universally. It is asserted that representative and participatory democracy is the desirable form of government with which participation of people from different walks of life, culture, tradition, section and even gender can be assured.

a. Without political decentralization to the local level, no country can realise democratization, good governance and citizen engagement; and it should involve a suitable combination of representative and participatory democracy.

b. Participation through inclusiveness and empowerment of citizens shall be an underlying principle in decision-making and implementation at the local level.

c. Local authorities should recognise the diversity of constituencies. And have the right to establish and develop partnerships with all actors of civil society, particularly non-governmental Organizations and community-based organizations, and with the private sector and other interested stakeholders.

d. Local authorities should be entitled to define appropriate forms of popular participation and civic engagement in decision-making and in fulfilment of their function of community leadership. This may include special provisions for the representation of the socially and economically weaker sections of society, ethnic and gender groups and other minorities.

e. The principle of non-discrimination should apply to all partners and to the collaboration between national and regional governments, local authorities and civil society organizations.

f. Participation of citizens in the policy-making process should be reinforced in status, at all stages, wherever practicable.

g. Local authorities should strive to adopt, in accordance with the nature of community, new forms of participation such as neighbourhood councils, community councils, e-democracy, participatory budgeting, civil initiatives and referendums.

h. The participation of women and the consideration of their needs should be a cardinal principle embedded in all local initiatives.

i. The participation of young people should be encouraged in all local initiatives.

I a.   Basics of decentralization

▪ Political and administrative autonomy to local bodies.

▪ Devolution of revenues to local bodies and empowering them to levy taxes to fund part of their expenditure.

▪ Periodic local body elections.

▪ Reservation of seats on local bodies for weaker social sections.

▪ Local database on administration.

▪ Local voluntary and private sector organizations collaborate with local governments in addressing development issues.

▪ Build local human capacities through improved access to health care, education and productive assets to ensure that decentralization empowers the poor.

I b.   Types of decentralization

Political – provides citizens or their elected representatives at the local level with more power in decision making and supports democratization by giving them more influence in the formulation and implementation of policies. The process is known as 'devolution' and is inherently tied with local autonomy.

Administrative – redistribution of executive powers which covers authority, responsibility and financial resources among different levels of government.

This includes: De-concentration – transfer of power, authority, responsibility or the discretion to plan, decide and manage.

Delegation – creation of autonomous units with a great deal of discretion in decision making.

Financial – Fiscal delegation is enhances the role of decentralisation because it is a way for financial independency. It includes taxation powers, authority to levy fines and fees etc.

I c. Leading forces behind decentralization
a.   Democratization process.
b.   Structural adjustments and disengagement of the state.
c.   Emergence of civil society organizations and new stakeholders.
d.   Growth of local and regional forces in search of their own socio-political identities.
e.   To motivate and mobilize people to participate in local development;
f.   To strengthen capability for participatory local development;
g.   To strengthen institutional capabilities for training of local decision-makers for their varied and demanding tasks; and
h.   To enhance sharing in knowledge and understanding of good practices in local development.
i.
II.   Decentralisation and grass roots level democracy in India

Decentralization exercises taken up by national governments in various parts of the world differ from each other due to particular historical reasons and different stages of development. In developing countries like India local government is regarded as the first step towards self-rule and autonomy from higher levels of governments. Although, local institutions were established even during the colonial period, but they definitely could not be regarded as representative institutions – in consonance with the spirit of true local self government – as their powers and functions were neither well defined nor were they provided opportunities to initiate policies, plans and programmes. They functioned more or less as subordinate administrative agencies of the respective national government.

The Royal Commission on Decentralisation said in 1907 that "it is most desirable, alike in the interests of decentralisation and in order to associate the people with the local tasks of administration that an attempt should be made to constitute and develop village Panchayats for the administration of local village affairs". The Montague-Chelmsford reforms, 1919 introduced dyarchy – a form of dual government with provincial and transferred subjects in local administration. The Government of India Act, 1935 replace diarchy with provincial autonomy by introducing popularly elected governments in the provinces.

There were differences of opinion on the constitution of village panchyats in independent India. Mahatma Gandhi expressed his full faith in the simplicity of village life and favoured establishment of Grama Swaraj and declared "The future of India lies in its villages". The architect of Indian constitution Dr. Ambedkar viewed villages and love towards it as *"The love of the intellectual Indian for the village community is of course infinite, if not pathetic….What is a village but a sink of localism, a den of ignorance, narrow mindedness and communalism?"*. The constitution of India when it is adopted on 26th November 1949 placed the Panchayats and their organisation in Article 40, a compromise and a directive to the state governments to introduce it, if possible.

Local government, be it urban or rural, is essentially a manifestation of popular participation in the process of governance at the grass-root level. This definitely assumes that the existence of democratic institutions at the national level. India could be said to be a path-setter among the developing countries, as role model in this context. The Constitution of India did not initially recognize local government as an essential layer of governance. The Article 40 in the Constitution as a part of the Directive Principles of State policy, made a reference to the organization of village panchayats at the village level. Till the passing of 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments, organisation of village panchayats and local self governing bodies were mere optional or choice of respective state governments.

The preamble of Indian constitution declares that the constitution is intended to create socio economic and political justice in India. It was evident that grassroots level transformation could not be achieved without democratic participation. The government launched Community Development Programme and the National Extension service in 1952. These were the first steps to address the demand of community while taking decision for national planning. The second five year plan document says that; "Unless there is a comprehensive village planning which takes into account the needs of the entire community, weaker sections like tenant-cultivators, landless workers and artisans may not benefit sufficiently from assistance provided by the Government,"

The Balwantrai Mehta Study Team, appointed in January 1957 to assess the Community Development and National Extension Service programmes, observed: 'Development cannot progress without responsibility and power. Community Development can be real only when the community understands its problems; realizes its responsibilities; exercises the necessary powers through its chosen representatives and maintains a constant

and intelligent vigilance on local administration. 'In 1957, the Balawant Rai Mehta Committee recommended for the introduction of three-tier Panchayati Raj System in India.

Different state governments of that time decided to introduce the recommendations of the Mehta committee report. The committee recommended for the three-tire Panchayati Raj system in India. These three-tires are

- the Gram-Panchayats at the village level or at the bottom,
- the Panchayat Samiti at the block level or in the middle and
- the Zilla Parishad at the district level.

The Belwant Rai Mehtha Commission report envisaged a three tire system of administration in village level. Its aim is to use the panchayat as the means or medium for proper imple- mentation of the governmental policies and programme. However, in course of time, the Panchayati Raj system lost much of its popularity and popular participation in it also became insignificant.

The Team's recommendation for statutory elective local bodies with the necessary resources, powers and authority led to the enactment of a three tier Panchayati Raj system in different states in 1959 with two basic objectives viz.,

a. democratic decentralization and
b. local participation in planned programmes.

The three tiers of the system consisted of the Zilla Parishad (district council) at the apex district level, the Block Samiti (council) at the intermediate level and village panchayat (council) at the grassroots level. The States of Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh were the first to adopt the system. By 1959, most states had Panchayat Acts and by the year 1960 Panchayati Raj institutions had been set up in all parts of the country. The introduction of Panchayati Raj signified the beginning of a new era of participatory development and laid the foundation of 'democratic decentralization' to:

- promote people's participation in rural development programmes;
- provide an institutional framework for popular administration;
- act as a medium of social and political change;
- facilitate local mobilization; and
- prepare and assist in the implementation of development plans.

In December 1977, the Janata Government appointed a committee on Panchayati Raj institutions under the chairmanship of Ashok Mehta. The year 1977 marks the beginning of the revival of decentralization efforts in the country, when the Asoka Mehta Committee identified these factors for the decline of Panchayati Raj:

✓ dissociation of development programmes from Panchayati Raj;
✓ bureaucratic inability to involve panchayats in implementation of development programmes;
✓ internal deficiencies within the panchayat institutions;and
✓ lack of clarity about the concept itself.

The Mehta Committee recommended a two-tier system with the Zilla Parishad at the district level as the first point of decentralization. At the second level, a conclave of villages would form Mandal (block) Panchayats to provide a better link between higher and local government levels.

The committee submitted its report in August 1978 and made 132 recommendations to revive and strengthen the declining Panchayati Raj system in the country. As a result of this report, the Indian states of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, and West Bengal passed new legislation. However, the flow of politics at the state level did not allow the institutions to develop their own political dynamics.

In 1986 the L.M. Singhvi Committee suggested that constitutional recognition along with a new chapter in the constitution of India would be inevitable for the successful working of participatory democracy in village level. The committee, after thorough study on the working of panchayats expressed their opinion that institutions of self governance as a necessity for participation of people in the process of planning and development.

Government convened five workshops of district magistrates between December 1987 and June 1988, at different places in the country on "Responsive Administration" as a central government initiative in which Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi participated. These workshops recommended that a democratic framework at the local level was indispensible for responsive administration. These were followed by drafting and moving the 64th Constitutional Amendment for reviving, and mandating Panchayati Raj Institutions in the country.

The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments were introduced in parliament in September 1991 by the government of Prime Minister Narasimha Rao of the Congress(l) Party in the form of two separate bills: the 73nd Amendment Bill for rural local bodies (also known as Panchayats) and the 74rd Amendment Bill for municipalities.

The President gave his assent on April 20 1993. The amendments were then officially enacted through the issuance of government notifications the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act 1992 (commonly referred to as the Panchayati Raj Act) went into effect on April 24 1993 and the Constitution (74th Amendment) Act 1992 (the Nagarpalika Act) on June 1 1993. With local governments being a state subject in Schedule Seven of the constitution any legislation reforming the structure of local government has to; ultimately be enacted at the state level. The first task of the states was therefore to pass conformity acts which either introduced new legislation or amended existing legislation to bring the state laws into line with the provisions of the amendment. Under the amendments states had a year from the date the amendment went into effect to do so. Because the amendments contain both mandatory and discretionary provisions, the degree of flexibility afforded the states in this task varied with the provision in question. The distinction between mandatory and discretionary provisions is embodied in the specific language adopted in the Acts and carried over into the newly inserted articles of the Constitution .The mandatory provisions were those that contain the word "shall" in referring to the steps that individual states needed to take. In the discretionary provision son the other hand the word "may" figures prominently.

The mandatory provisions are:

The establishment in every state (except those with populations below 2 million) of rural local bodies (panchayats) at the village, intermediate and district levels (Article 243B)

1. Direct elections to all seats in the panchayats at all levels

2. Compulsory elections to panchayats every five years with the elections being held before the end of the term of the incumbent panchayat in the event that a panchayat is dissolved prematurely, elections must be held within six months, with the newly elected members serving out the remainder of the five year term.

3. Mandatory reservation of seats in all panchayats at all levels for Davits and Advises in proportion to their share of the panchayat population.

4. Mandatory reservation of fifty percent of all seats in all panchayats at all levels for women, with the reservation for women applying to the seats reserved for Dalits and Advises as well.

5. Indirect elections to the position of panchayat chairperson at the intermediate and district levels.

6. Mandatory reservation of the position of panchayat chairperson at all levels for Davits and Advises in proportion to their share in the state population.

7. Mandatory reservation of one-third of the positions of panchayat chairperson at all three levels for women.

8. In addition, the act mandates the constitution of two state-level commissions:

▪ an independent election commission to supervise and manage elections to local bodies, much as the Election Commission of India manages state assembly and parliamentary elections; and

▪ a state finance commission, established every five years, to review the financial position of local bodies and recommend the principles that should govern the allocation of funds and taxation authority to local bodies

The Constitution of India directs state governments to endow panchayats with the powers and authority necessary for their functioning as institutions of self-governance with the key responsibility of preparing and implementing plans for economic development and social justice. Local bodies have been given direct responsibility for decentralized development planning with the introduction of Article 243 ZD in the Constitution. This establishes a District Planning Committee in every district "to consolidate the plans prepared by the panchayats and the Municipalities in the district and to prepare a draft development plan for the district as a whole".

III.   The Gram Sabha in the 73rd Amendment

The 73rd Amendment included the Gram Sabha or village assembly as a deliberative body to decentralised governance along with a three-tier structure of Panchayats from village to the district. Article 243(b) defines Gram Sabha as "a body consisting of persons registered in the electoral rolls relating to a village comprised within the area of the Panchayat at the village level" and in clause (g) village means a village specified by the Governor by public

notification to be a village for the purpose of "Part IX The Panchayats" and includes a group of villages so specified. The Gram Sabha is to enable each and every voter of the village to participate in decision- making at local level. It is a constitutional body consisting of all persons registered in the electoral rolls of a village Panchayat. It provides a political forum to people in the village to meet and discuss their common problems, and consequently, understand the needs and aspirations of the community. It also provides a forum to meet, discuss, debate and analyse the development and administrative actions of elected representatives and thereby ensure transparency and accountability in the functioning of the village Panchayat.

Thus Grama Sabha is expected to be an epitome of participatory and direct democracy, and is the only body, which should provide valuable inputs to Gram Panchayat to lead local government effectively. At the sometime, Gram Sabha is also to act as a watchdog in the interest of village communities by monitoring the functioning of the Gram Panchayat. Article 243A of the Constitution introduced by the 73 rdAmendment and which is concerned with this institution says that "A Gram Sabha may exercise such powers and perform such functions at the village level as the legislature of a state may, by law provide". The result is seen in entrusting of functions such as to endorse, to recommend, to suggest, to consider annual accounts and administrative reports and audit notes though not mandatory for the village panchayat to accept the recommendations.etc. to the Gram Sabha.

The Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act 1996 (PESA) provides special place and the following roles for Gram Sabha in Scheduled Areas

a. Establishment of a Gram Sabha for every village comprising of persons whose names figure in the electoral rolls.

b. Empowering the Gram Sabha to safeguard and preserve the traditions, customs and cultural identity of the people, community resources and to settle local disputes by customary methods.

c. Approval of plans, programmes and projects for social and economic development of the village Panchayat by the Gram Sabha.

d. The Gram Sabha should identify and select beneficiaries for poverty alleviation and other programmes.

e. Every village Panchayat must obtain a certificate of utilisation of funds from the Gram Sabha for the projects and programmes of social and economic development under the state poverty alleviation and other programmes.

f. The acquisition of land for development projects and rehabilitation or resettlement of persons affected by such projects in the Scheduled Area has to be done in consultation with either the Gram Sabha or the Panchayat at the appropriate level.

g. Planning and implementation of the projects will be coordinated at the state level.

Thus PESA has mandated provisions for empowerment of Gram Sabha,a forum for deliberative democracy and decision-making body by the people themselves.

IV.   The 74th constitutional amendment of 1992 and Urban Development

The 74 Constitutional Amendment Act was an initiative, which recognized urban local bodies as the third tier of urban government by assigning them specific civic functions. The 4th Amendment requires the state governments to amend their municipal laws in order to empower Urban Local Bodies "with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as institutions of self governance". The Constitution (74th Amendment) Act, 1992 provisions, provides a basis for the State Legislatures to guide the State Governments in the assignment of various responsibilities to municipalities and to strengthen municipal governance. Accordingly, several State Governments have amended their Municipal Acts/ Laws/ Legislations so as to bring these in conformity with the Constitutional provisions.

Implementation of 74th Constitutional Amendment is required for following reasons:

•   Urban Decentralisation needs to empower urban local bodies with many more powers and functions to operate as independent levels of government.

•   Such increased autonomy also needs to be complemented by appropriate accountability. This accountability needs to be directly to the citizens themselves, rather than to another level of government. Hence, formal mechanisms for such citizen-centric accountability need to be created, along with reforms in urban decentralisation.

•   From the citizens 'perspective, there need to be more opportunities to participate in

local governance at many levels: in budgeting, planning, land use and zoning issues, and so on. Creating this opportunity to participate also complements the accountability issue mentioned above.

•   A consistent mechanism for participation, planning and decentralisation across urban local governments will enables easier coordination at the regional planning level, through the District Planning Committees (DPC) and Metropolitan Planning Committees (MPC) that have been envisaged in the Constitution.

•   Strong accountability mechanisms are also required on financial and operational management of the ULBs: budgeting, audits, presentation of financial statements to the public, performance measurement indicators and so on. Here again, the primary focus of these instruments needs to be citizens and users of public services rather than other levels of government: i.e. accountability outward to citizens, rather than inward within government.

In this context, the Ministry of Urban Development prepared and circulated 'Model Municipal Law' with an objective to facilitate implementation of the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act provisions.

IV a. **Salient Features of Model Muncipal Laws** are:

Constitution and Government

    a.   Executive powers vested with Empowered Standing Committee.

    b.   Five-year term for Mayor/Chairman.

    c.   Provision for wards and ward committees.

    d.   Functions classified in terms of core, assigned by government, and Others.

    e.   Dissolution of elected council only after review by a committee.

    f.   Re-election of dissolved council within six months

Financial Management

    1.   State government to prepare municipal accounting manual.

    2.   Municipalities to prepare annual balance sheets.

    3.   Provision for appointment of a Municipal Accounts Committee.

    4.   Provision for appointmentof chartered accountants as auditors.

    5.   Capital and revenue heads to be separated out in municipal accounts.

    6.   Separate accounting heads proposed for water supply, roads, etc.

    7.   Annual subsidy and environmental status reports.

    8.   Annual inventory of municipal properties.

    9.   Comprehensive debt limitation policy by state government.

    10.   Enabling access to capital markets and financial institutions for capital

investments

Municipal Revenue Generation.

    a.   Property tax (PT) assessment system on area or capital value basis.

    b.   Provision for self-assessment system for Professional Tax.

    c.   Unique property numbering system.

    d.   Reference to implementation of state finance commission's recommendations

Urban Environmental Infrastructure and Services.

    a.   Participation of private sector, NGOs, and CBO (Community Based Organisations in delivery of services.

    b.   Service charges to reflect O&M and capital costs

    c.   Provision to meet the Hazardous and Bio-medical Waste Handling Rules of Ministery of Environment and Forest, Government of India.

    d.   Provision to meet the Solid Waste Handling Rules of Ministery of Environment and Forest, Government of India.

    e.   State-level regulatory commission on municipal services

Others

- Representation to municipalities on District/Metropolitan Planning Committees.

- Provision for implementation of development plans by Municipalities

- Easy planning approvals to small-sized buildings designed by architects

V.   **The mandatory aspects of 74ᵗʰ constitutional amendment with regard to the Urban Local Self Governments**.

Municipalities shall be constituted at three levels all over India, namely, Nagar Panchayats in areas in transition from rural areas to urban areas; Municipal Councils in smaller urban areas, and, Municipal Corporations in larger urban areas. The classification among the above mentioned categories shall be done having regard to -population of the area, density of the population therein, the revenue generated for local administration, the percentage of employment in non-agricultural activities and the economic importance, or such other factors as the Governor may deem fit. All the seats in a Municipality shall be filled by persons chosen by direct election, conducted the State Election Commission, constituted under article 243K both for Municipalities and Panchayats, from the wards into which each municipal area shall be divided. Seats in each Municipality and for Chairpersons thereof, shall be reserved for the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes and women, and may be reserved in favour of backward classes of citizens, as per the norms specified in the Act. A five year term for each municipality and dissolved earlier, elections will be held within six month from the date of dissolution.

The Finance Commission constituted under article 243-I shall also review the financial position of the Municipalities besides that of the Panchayats, and make recommendations to the Governor for the distribution between the State and the Municipalities of the net proceeds of the taxes, duties, tolls and fees leviable by the State as also the assignment of, or appropriation of taxes, duties, tolls and fees by the Municipalities, or of the grants-in-aid from the State and on the measures needed to improve the financial position of the Municipalities.

A Committee for District Planning in each District, and a Committee for Metropolitan Planning in every metropolitan area, shall be set up, subject to the conditions that :

(i)   in the case of a District Planning Committee not less than

four-fifths of the total number of members of such Committee shall be elected by, and from amongst, the elected members of the Panchayat at the district level and of the Municipalities in the district in proportion to the ratio between the population of

the rural areas and of the urban areas in the district

(ii)   in the case of a Committee for Metropolitan Planning, not less than two-thirds of the members of such Committee shall be elected by, and from amongst, the elected members of the Municipalities and Chairpersons of the Panchayats in the metropolitan area in proportion to the ratio between the population of the Municipalities and of the Panchayats in that area.

VI.   Innovations in Panchayati Raj in Kerala

Legislative framework for the establishment of Panchayati Raj in Kerala enacted the Panchayat Raj Act in 1994 in compliance with the 73rd Constitutional Amendment to set up a three-tier PRI structure of Gram (village), block and district level panchayats.

Local development planning, participation and resource mobilization

Panchayati Raj institutions came into prominence during the unique People's Planning movement launched by the state government in 1996. Initiated after a major devolution of power and resources to local government institutions, the Ninth Plan - people's plan campaign was an attempt to prepare and subsequently implement the ninth state plan with people's participation through these bodies. The programme involved five phases starting from identification of needs by the gram sabhas to implementation of the projects using local expertise and resources. Nearly 40 percent of the state's annual plan outlay was set aside for local bodies, ensuring a liberal measure of autonomy to the PRIs to draw up development programmes.

Phases in the People's Planning Campaign – a Kerala model development initiative

First phase – Gram Sabhas were convened to identify local development priorities, with meetings held on holidays to ensure maximum participation. Volunteer squads visited households to explain the importance of participation while public meetings and different mass media were used to generate mass awareness. Group discussions were organized on12 identified development sectors. The most important outcome of the gram sabhas was development reports covering local development aspirations, information on natural resources, available statistics and problems.

It is estimated that about 2.7 million men and women took part in the Gram Sabhas. Twenty-seven per cent of the participants were women. About 650 resource persons at the state level, 12 000 at the district level and more than 100 000 at the local level, were trained for active participation in the Gram Sabhas.

Second phase – Local development seminars were organized to suggest action to address the identified development priorities. To facilitate the discussions, participants were given reports of the socio-economic status of the Gram Panchayat. The state of resources was assessed from existing government data, and survey of local geography and history. These exercises were guided by a group of trained local resource persons, elected PRI representatives, and government officials. This involved a massive programme to train resource persons from the state to local level.

The second phase produced an extensive local database, a comprehensive survey of the development status of the panchayat and a list of likely solutions to development problems. Task forces were set up to prepare development projects for each development sector.

Third phase – Sector-wise task forces prepared projects based on suggestions emerging from the development seminars. All the 12 development sectors had a task force of 10 to 15 members each and chaired by an elected representative with an officer from the relevant line department as the convenor.

As many as 12 000 task forces were functioning at the village level alone with a total participation of at least 120 000 persons. The task forces prepared about 100 000 projects for consideration by the panchayats. Special efforts were made to ensure the participation of officials and local level experts in the preparation of the projects. Guidelines were issued by the State Planning Board to ensure uniformity in the project reports.

Fourth phase – Projects prepared by the task forces prioritized for incorporation into the fiveyear plans of the panchayats.

Fifth phase – Plans are vetted by a panel of experts for their technical viability and conformity with the mandatory government guidelines on planning and costing, before they are forwarded to the District Planning Committee (DPC).

Final phase – The DPC gives formal approval to the plans. It is to be noted that even the DPC cannot change the PRI priority, but only ensure compliance with government guidelines. The final development plan for each district in Kerala thus reflects people's needs and aspirations.

Peoples planning in Kerala was an experiment with the truth of the viability of people's participation in development projects. Lack of technical expertise among local populations affected its working and increased populising marred the working of peoples planning in Kerala and the project came to an end without achieving its objective. But popularity and further strengthening of the system cannot be rejected.