* Urban Transport and Vehicular Environment in Ludhiana Metropolis - Issues & Strategies
* Role of Municipal Bodies in Empowering Street Vendors
* Urban Poverty Alleviation Programmes with special reference to Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana - A Study of Hyderabad district in Telangana State
* Women Empowerment Through Local Government: A Study With Reference to ULBs in Tamil Nadu
* Suffocating Local Governments to Under Develop Grassroots and Rural Communities in Nigeria
* Health Indicators, Programmes and Administration: A Case study of Karimnagar District in Andhra Pradesh
* Governance of Nirmal Bharath Abhiyan (NBA) The Case of Mysore District in the State of Karnataka
* Empowering Gram Sabhas: A Not
* Population and Family Planning in Solapur Municipal Corporation Area
* Climate Change Update
ABOUT THE INSTITUTE

All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG), established in 1926 has been actively working in the field of urban development management and is an active partner in promoting the cause of local government in India and overseas.

The Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES) of All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG), Mumbai is actively involved in building capabilities of municipal officials, staff and elected members from the States of Goa, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and the Union Territories of Diu, Daman, Dadra & Nagar Haveli by upgrading their knowledge and skills required for effective administration and implementation of various urban development programmes. The research and training activities of the RCUES of AIILSG are supported by Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India, New Delhi.

The Institute organises several tailor-made training / orientation programmes for various countries in South Asia, viz, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka and other countries, viz, South Africa, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Malaysia, China, etc. The organisation of World Mayor’s Conference at Jaipur, Rajasthan in 1998 was a unique event of remembrance in the field of local self government. The Institute participates in various national and international forums and is the oldest member of the International Union of Local Authorities (IULAI), the Netherlands. Director General is one of the members of the Executive Committee of the IULA. The Institute is an active member of International Council of Local Environment Initiative (ICLEI) and the President of the Institute Dr. Jatin V. Modi is Vice President of IULA-ASPAC and Director-General Shri R.S. Chavan is Executive Member of CITYNET. The Institute has close work-ties with UNCHS (Habitat), UNDP, UNICEF, WHO, DFID, CITYNET, CLGF, US-AEP, Ford Foundation, etc. and is the anchor institution for Urban Management Programme (UMP – UNCHS – Habitat) for South Asia.

The Institute has also set up a Fire Academy at Vadodara, Gujarat which imparts regular and specialised training in fire services management. Environment Protection and Research Centre (EPRC) of the Institute at Vadodara in collaboration with ICLEI Japan organises experience sharing visits in environmental management for government and municipal officials.

The Institute is working in close collaboration with Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India, several State Governments, Development Authorities, Research and Training Institutions, international and national agencies. The Institute has its well developed regional centres in Ahmedabad, Bangalore, Belgaum, Bhopal, Panaji, Mumbai, New Delhi, Thiruvanthapuram and Vadodara.

The present President of the Institute is Dr. Jatin V. Modi. The Institute was nursed by the late Mr. C. D. Barfiwala who was also its first Director-General. Mr. R. S. Chavan, who is now at the helm of affairs of the Institute is the present Director-General.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Editorial</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Transport and Vehicular Environment</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Ludhiana Metropolis - Issues &amp; Strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rahul Singla</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of Municipal Bodies in Empowering Street Vendors</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. K. Kataria</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Poverty Alleviation Programmes with special reference to Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana - A Study of Hyderabad district in Telangana State</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Pardha Saradhi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women Empowerment Through Local Government:</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Study With Reference to ULBs in Tamil Nadu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Mathaiyan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffocating Local Governments to Under Develop Grassroots and Rural Communities in Nigeria</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samson Obamwonyi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stanley Aibieyi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Indicators, Programmes and Administration:</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Case study of Karimnagar District in Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramaiah Bheenaveni</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance of Nirmal Bharath Abhiyan (NBA):</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Case of Mysore District in the State of Karnataka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jos Chathukulam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowering Gram Sabhas: A Note</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vijaykumar N Torgal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population and Family Planning in Solapur Municipal Corporation Area</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. S. Apte</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate Change Update</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. B. Khan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book Review</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Contributors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Two thirds of the world’s illiterate adults are female and over 65 per cent of its poorest people are women and girls. Gender equality and status of women vis-à-vis parameters of quality of life are among key global concerns and hold special significance in the context of developing countries. Women’s empowerment and gender equality has close association with their health & nutritional outcomes. It is well known that reproductive health problems constitute a major cause of maternal mortality and morbidity in developing countries. This is amply reflected in the Millennium Development Goal 5 which aims to improve maternal health by achieving universal access to reproductive health services, among other things.

Though, India’s National Population Policy 2000 has ‘empowering women for health and nutrition’ as one of its cross-cutting strategic themes, the health status of women in India is extremely low. This is also highlighted in the Global Gender Gap Report 2013 by World Economic Forum that ranks India precariously low at 135 on health & survival status of women out of 136 countries analyzed.

The progress on improving the health status of women can be accelerated if Men imbibe and practice gender equality in all facets of life, overcoming the gender stereotypes of women’s primary role as reproduction & care giving and men’s role as providers. Health is one crucial domain of life which can enable men to make a direct impact on the gender dimension. One of the key strategies to accelerate the progress on gender issues is enabling Men to take up greater responsibilities towards Women’s Health.

The real progress on health outcomes can be achieved only with gender equality vis-à-vis reproductive rights. This is also closely linked to preventing child marriages and consequently early child bearing, sexual violence, HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases. Men’s engagement holds greater significance as men being involved in women’s health through their multiple roles as husbands, fathers, family and household members, community leaders and gate keepers to health information and services.
While in India traditionally the society expects a great deal more from women, it is vital for men to come forward and understand women’s health and reproductive health issues. It is increasingly important for men to take more responsibility as many women in the country have precarious health status further signified by the high proportion of anemia among women which leads to complications in pregnancy and childbirth etc. The acceptance of permanent family planning methods is poor in India. Most of the users are females e.g., undergoing tubectomy, taking oral contraception pills or opting for IUD while the male sterilization is the least used method. Only 1 per cent married men have opted for male sterilization. There is lack of knowledge among the people and negative attitude towards Non Scalpel Vasectomy. Male participation in contraceptive use is negligible. 87 per cent of women with unmet need stated that decision to use contraceptives rests with the husband. In most of the cases the men make decisions that affect women’s health especially reproductive health.

There is diverse range of opportunities for men to own up responsibilities for women’s health, right from undergoing attitudinal and behavioral changes to opt for contraception such as Non-Scalpel Vasectomy. The other crucial areas for engaging men are — shared decision making on family size and spacing, participation in contraceptive use, no gender based sex selection vis-à-vis preference of male child, men’s involvement in maternal care — ante-natal care, care during delivery and postpartum care, men participating in rearing and caring of the child, responsible and safe sexual and reproductive health behavior, partner treatment for Reproductive Tract Infections /Sexually Transmitted Diseases, support for empowerment of women by considering them as equal partners and men’s active role in preventing gender based violence.

AIILSG’s pioneering efforts in the direction include the recently launched movement ‘Men for Women’s Health’. The endeavor is to create opportunities to enable Men to own up responsibilities vis-à-vis Women’s Health. This movement aims to create sensitization and awareness generation about contraception by men, promotion of Non-Scalpel Vasectomy, acting against gender based violence, discourage gender based sex selection, awareness about reproductive health and reproductive rights etc. ‘Youth’ is a key focus of this movement. A fundamental step towards realizing the gender equality is enabling Men to render themselves more responsible and accountable for Women’s Health, implying a paradigm enrichment of ‘Women for Women’s Health’ with ‘We Men for Women’s Health’!

✦ ✦ ✦
The beautiful slogan of the Indian Government, “Go Green Go Clean” has become a distant reality at grassroot level, which is far from satisfaction. There are mainly two factors, increasing urbanization and poor transportation system which are directly responsible for the deterioration of attractive slogan in urban areas. Now, urban areas are growing in blind manner which disturb the environmental conditions day by day.

So, this paper is an attempt to examine how the rapid growth of vehicular movement on roads and poor transportation system affects the quality of environment in the first metropolis city of Punjab i.e., Ludhiana. As a result, the concentration of pollutants in the city has exceeded the permissible limits given by Punjab Pollution Control Board and the situation is going beyond redemption.

Objectives of the Study

i) To identify the extent of vehicular pollution on the roads of Ludhiana City.

ii) To suggest measures and guidelines to improve the environmental level of the City.

Methodology

The research work is based on primary as well as secondary data. The primary data was collected through the traffic volume survey at different stretches as well as land-use surveys. Three cordon points were selected for traffic volume counts i.e., Jalandhar Bye-pass to Samrala Chowk, Bharat Nagar Chowk to Ferozepur Road, Gill Chowk to Malerkotla Road. For the collection of this data, a questionnaire was prepared and subsequently traffic count was converted to Passenger Car Unit (PCU) as per standards given by Indian Road Congress. Then, Volume capacity ratios of different stretches were calculated. The secondary data has been collected from different government offices such as Punjab Pollution Control Board, District Transport Office, District Town Planner in the form of various reports like Action Plan for abatement of pollution in critically polluted
areas, Master Plan (2007-2021), City Development Plan of Ludhiana and also from various relevant Journals and books.

**Population scenario of Ludhiana**

Ludhiana is one of the richest cities in the growth of population due to its dominance in the industrial sector and has evolved as the financial capital of Punjab. The city has the major share in total population of class I cities as well as total urban population of the state. As per census 2011, population of city has crossed the figure of 16 Lacs within an area of 159.37 sq. km. Previously, the urban area was confined to the south of Buddah Nallah but due to rapid urbanization, the city has expanded with a boom. As a result the low lying area between Buddah Nallah and River Satluj has now become an integral part of the urban area (Singla. R, 2012).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Urban Population of Punjab</th>
<th>Population of Ludhiana, M.C</th>
<th>Decadal Growth Rate of Urban Population of Punjab (percentage)</th>
<th>Decadal Growth Rate of Population of Ludhiana City (percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>19,89,267</td>
<td>1,53,795</td>
<td>20.02</td>
<td>37.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>25,67,306</td>
<td>2,44,032</td>
<td>29.06</td>
<td>58.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>32,16,179</td>
<td>4,01,176</td>
<td>25.27</td>
<td>64.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>46,47,757</td>
<td>6,07,052</td>
<td>44.51</td>
<td>51.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>59,93,220</td>
<td>10,42,740</td>
<td>28.95</td>
<td>71.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>82,45,566</td>
<td>13,95,053</td>
<td>37.58</td>
<td>34.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>103,99,146</td>
<td>16,13,878</td>
<td>26.11</td>
<td>15.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source*—Census of India

The given table clearly shows the scenario that the population of Ludhiana city is increasing at a very fast pace from the last decades. Every fifth (19.86 per cent) urban dweller in Punjab resides in Ludhiana. In the metropolis; the basic causes for the population growth include the dominancy of industrialization, commercialization, facilities and services, etc.

**Transportation Scenario in Ludhiana Metropolis**

The quality of living in each and every city is based on its efficient transport system. As per Le Corbusier, “Roads act
as respiratory system for the urban areas”. All the objectives of urban planning i.e., safety, convenience, accessibility are directly based on the quality and affordability of urban transportation system. But the current state of Ludhiana metropolis in terms of sustainable transportation and mobility is far below standards. This fact is strengthened from the land-use distribution of Ludhiana city. The existing road network of city is spread over an area of 12.72 sq. km. So this figure contributes only 8 per cent of total city area which is very less comparative to norms and standards of UDPFI Guidelines. According to the guidelines, the metro area requires 20-25 per cent of total land-use under circulation pattern. As per a study conducted by the Punjab Pollution Control Board in 2010, the number of vehicles entering into the city on a single day was observed to be 72,491 out of which 2604 buses, 4499 trucks, 23137 cars, 14703 auto-rickshaws and 936 were four wheelers. So Ludhiana is a good example of a city for poor transportation environment.

In the above context, the study and analysis of the complex transportation environment provides ample scope for future development of Ludhiana metropolis. The multifaceted reasons for this deteriorated transportation environment pertains to increasing vehicular ownership, traffic congestion (High Volume Capacity ratio), lack of integration between land-use and transportation sector etc.

**Increasing Vehicular Ownership**

Urbanization, growth and increasing income and affordability are major factors which directly influence the growth of vehicular ownership and travel demand. The vehicles ratio is increasing day by day at a rampant pace. In 1995, 291384 numbers of registered vehicles were recorded whereas in 2013, the figure has crossed to four fold i.e., app. 13 Lac.

![Graph showing increasing number of vehicles](image)
As per available records, 65-70 per cent registered vehicles are under the category of two wheelers. So, this vehicular growth has direct influence on the quality of air through vehicular emissions. The level of vehicular emissions in the city, including unburnt carbon particles, suspended particles, Carbon Monoxide, carbon dioxide, lead and other toxic particles is also the highest in the state.

Study Area

For the study of transportation environment in city, three study areas were selected- Jalandhar Bye-pass to Samrala Chowk, Bharat Nagar Chowk to Ferozepur Road, Gill Chowk to Malerkotla Road. The selection of these areas were on the basis of primary observation i.e., traffic conditions, mismatch between land-use and transportation etc.

Jalandhar By-pass to Samrala Chowk

The length of this stretch is approximately 8-9 K.M. This is a direct access point from two primate cities of Punjab i.e., Jalandhar and Amritsar. Due to major connectivity with other major urban centers, huge volume of buses frequently causes traffic congestion over this stretch. This fact is strengthened by the data collected from traffic volume survey. It is also observed that the abutting land-use of this area is totally mismatched with the saturation level of road which is against the principles of transportation planning. Along the stretch, there is
continuous growth of large industries, religious places, highly commercial activities *i.e.*, Vegetable Market, Wholesale market which invites a mixed vehicular movement *i.e.*, auto rickshaws, buses, two wheelers, loading vehicles *etc.*

The end of the stretch *i.e.*, Samrala Chowk also remains blocked during peak hours every day due to its location. It is a crucial entry-exit point to the city from different urban centers. Major part of this road is encroached by informal sector and unplanned parking. Due to litigation, the pending flyover is also one of the major factors leading to reduction of the road width of this study area and resulting traffic congestion over the past one year.

Due to the above mentioned reasons, traffic volume survey has been conducted during peak hour. During this peak hour 11787 PCU were recorded which is very high comparative to the carrying capacity *i.e.*, access on basis of road width. As per Master plan of Ludhiana (2007-25) according to width, the capacity of road is 4800 PCU. So the Volume capacity ratio of road is 2.45 which reflect the traffic conditions of this particular stretch. Due to mixing of slow and fast vehicle movement, the speed of vehicles is reduced thus creating traffic jams. This concentration of vehicles in certain areas over a longer time period leads to deteriorating quality of air due to higher pollution levels (As per studies of Punjab Pollution Control Board on Samrala Chowk, the concentration of particles are 319 microgram/m³ respectively against the prescribed standards limit *i.e.*, 100 μg/m³).

**Bharat Nagar Chowk to Ferozepur Road**

This part of the city was once known for its cleanliness and noise free environment. But, today nobody can experience or recall it. Due to huge changes in the land-use pattern, now this area has become a major traffic bottleneck (Singh. D, 2010). The length of this stretch is app.8-9 K.M. It is the central part of city and is located between the bus stand and Ferozepur Road. Hence, huge volume of buses heading to Moga, Fardikot, Ferozepur cross this Chowk. But today, this area is a hub of administration (District Courts) and highly commercial activities (Park plaza, Ansal, Aarti Cinema, Western Mall *etc.*) which invites larger amount of vehicles and heavy movement from the surrounding areas.

But, as per primary observations, this movement is higher than the saturation capacity. According to the conducted traffic Volume survey 11,168 PCU was recorded in the peak hours out of which, maximum contribution is from cars *i.e.*, 5900 PCU. But as per standards the carrying capacity of this stretch is 6000 PCU. So the Volume capacity ratio of this stretch is 1.9. Due to direct access from the bus stand, administrative and commercial land-use, this area remains choked in peak hours from mixed type of vehicles. Direct access from bus stand to this chowk is also responsible for the higher frequency of buses and autos. District Courts on this road also attract two wheelers and cars on the stretch. Due to this congestion, Punjab Pollution Control
Board fitted an air monitoring station in this Chowk. As per recorded data in the air monitoring station, the figure of air pollutants is 276 micrograms/m³ which is much higher compared to the standard limit of 100 μg/m³.

**Gill Chowk to Malerkotla Road**

This area contains the entrance point from the urban centres like Malerkotla and Sangrur. The land-use pattern along this road is prominently commercial as well as industrial. But this commercial development poses a serious threat to the road users as the loading and unloading of passengers and goods create bottlenecks and increases the risk of accidents (Singh. J, 2013).

As per Master plan of city, the capacity of this road is 6000 PCU/hour. But, through traffic volume survey (in peak hour), 9536 PCU were recorded which generates the congestion in peak hours. As a result, the Volume capacity ratio of road is 1.5. Loading vehicles also contributes in good ratio of VC due to direct access from Malerkotla town, which is the hub of agricultural products. Due to the above mentioned conditions, 200 micrograms/m³ air pollutants were recorded which is very high compared to norms and standards *i.e.*, 100 μg/m³.

**Strategies**

It is clear from the above analysis that the situation is aggravated in all the study stretches of Ludhiana metropolis. The concentration of pollution is relatively higher from the given standards due to increasing vehicular ownership, lack of integration between land-use and circulation, mixed traffic *etc*. The solution requires a participatory approach by town planning departments, PWD, Municipalities, Policy makers and even road users also. So there are different strategies to reduce the level of vehicular pollutants in the Ludhiana city.

The travel trips should be reduced for the sustainable transportation system. It can achieved through urban planners with the integration of land-uses and circulation pattern.

Society should be encouraged to use the Public Transportation system like City bus service started under JNNURM and discourage their private vehicles.

Town planners should decentralize the different activities as per requirements of traffic demand like Bus stand of Ludhiana is centrally located which attracts large volume of buses in the center of city. So, it should be decentralized as per routes of buses.

Traffic management measures should be used on the Samrala Chowk, Jodhewal Basti and Jalandhar Bye-pass to reduce the traffic jams in peak time.

The proper organized parking spaces should be proposed as per the requirements along with the study stretches.

**References**


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The Times of India, April 21, 2009

UDPFI Guidelines (1996), Prepared by ITPI under Ministry of Urban Affairs and Employment

An Invitation

The Local Government Quarterly invites contributions in the form of articles and research papers from its readers and well wishers.

Contributions may be sent in the manuscript form though we would prefer to have a digital copy e-mailed to us.

Articles should normally be between 3000 and 4000 words, though we do not wish to limit the size.

Contributors may mail their articles to the Executive Editor, Local Government Quarterly.

All India Institute of Local Self - Government

M. N. Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No. 6; ‘F’ Block,
TPS Road No. 12, Bandra (East), Mumbai - 400 051, India.
Tel: 0091-22-2657 1713 / 2657 1714 / 2657 1715
Email: ailsg@bom3.vsnl.net.in / dg@ailsg.org
Fax: 0091-22-2657 2115


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Role of Municipal Bodies in Empowering Street Vendors

S. K. Kataria

Street vending is a universal and informal-unorganized method of livelihood of poor people. This activity is more popular and prevalent in urban areas due to many reasons which are mainly influenced by the process of industrialization. Street vendors are also known as ‘Hawkers’, ‘Peddlers’, ‘Squatters’ and ‘Street-traders’. In local languages they are known as pheriwale, thelawale, rehadiwale and khomchawale etc. Street vendors are often those who are unable to get regular jobs in the remunerative formal sector on account of their low level of education and skills. They try to solve their livelihood issues through their own meagre financial resources and sweat equity. Most of the street vendors come from remote or nearby villages and being related with backward and poor families they settle down in a slum. Henceforth, the myriad of problems of livelihood of these people and management issues of street vending, for municipal bodies start. At the outset the issues and challenges encircled to street vending look petty in nature but these are very crucial.

In India, street vendors represent about 3 per cent of total non-agricultural employment. According to official statistics, this translates to more than 3.1 million street vendors country-wide (Unni 2011). Unofficial estimates suggest they are closer to 10 million (Bhowmik 2010). Mumbai accounting for 25 million, Delhi has 2 million, Kolkata 15 million and Ahmadabad is having 1 million street vendors. Most of them are immigrants or laid-off workers and they work for an average 10-12 hours a day and remain impoverished. Though, the Licence-Quota-Permit Raj in Indian administrative system has been ended for most of the economic and commercial activities, in last two and half decades of new economic order (NEO), yet it continues in the petty trades of street vendors. Inappropriate licence ceiling in most cities, like Mumbai which has a ceiling 14,000 licences, means more vendors hawk their goods illegally, which also makes their prone to the bribery and extortion culture, under local police and municipal authorities, besides harassment, heavy fines and sudden evictions.
As per the studies mentioned in the ‘Report on Conditions of Work and Promotion of Livelihoods in the Unorganized Sector, 2007’ of the National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganized Sector (NCEUS), street vendor’s earning are very low, although, they vary from trade to trade and from location to location. The men’s average daily income is around Rs. 70 in most of the cities excepting Patna, where it is slightly lower. Women earn considerably less - Rs. 40 per day. The monetary problem is compounded by the fact that vendors have scarce resources for their trade and they need to obtain credit by borrowing. Most of the street vendors report having borrowed from money-lenders who charge exorbitant interest rates. In Bhubaneswar the credit is obtained from the wholesalers in the form of advances to be paid back at the end of the day at the rates up to 110 per cent.

Being illiterate or with low level of education, less awareness and poor, street vendors started getting united very late. In last few decades, nearly 715 street vendors’ organizations, trade unions and voluntary agencies working for street vendors came in existence and now these are united at one platform known as ‘NASVI’ (National Association of Street Vendors of India).

Legal Efforts for Street Vending

Although, ‘street vending’ is not a separate subject entry in any list of the Seventh Schedule (Article-246) of the Constitution of India, the entry number 52 (taxes on the entry of goods in to a local area for consumption, use or sale therein) and entry number 60 (taxes on professions, trades, callings and employments) of State list are somehow cover various activities of street vending and both the entries are mainly controlled by the municipal government. Bombay Police Act, 1951, Bombay Province Municipal Act, 1949 and Railway Act, 1819 etc., are some examples of legislative control over activities of hawkers or street vendors.

National Policy on Urban Street Vendors, 2009 accepts that the public authorities often regard street vendors as a nuisance and as encroachers of sidewalks and pavements and do not appreciate the valuable services that street vendors render to the common man. In 1989 the Supreme Court, in its verdict (Sodan Singh and others V/s New Delhi Municipal Council) said —”......if properly regulated, according to the exigency of the circumstances, the small traders on the sidewalks can considerably add to the comfort and convenience of the general public, by making available ordinary articles everyday use for a comparatively lesser price. An ordinary person, not very affluent, while hurrying towards his home after a day’s work, can pick up these articles without going out of his way to find a regular market. The right to carry on trade or business mentioned in Article - 19 (1) g of the Constitution, on street pavements; if properly regulated, cannot be denied on the grounds that the streets are meant
exclusively for passing or re-passing and no other use.”

‘The Street Vendors Policy, 2004’ and ‘National Policy on Urban Street Vendors’ 2009 formulated by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation are known as revolutionary governmental efforts to address various problems of street vendors. The latter policy ultimately converted into a law. Initially, it was circulated as a draft bill entitled “Model Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Bill, 2009” to the State governments and Union territories for creation of state specific legislation, however, it had no legal bindings, thus few governments made any progress in this regard. Eventually, in 2010, the Supreme Court recognized street vending as a source of livelihood and directed the concerned ministry to work out on a central legislation, so a draft of the same was released to the public on November 11, 2011. The key provisions of the draft bill were, protection legitimate street vendors from harassment by police and civic authorities and demarcation of ‘vending zones’ on the basis of ‘traditional natural markets’, proper representation of vendors and women in decision making bodies, and establishment of effective grievances redressal and dispute resolution mechanism.

New Legislation for Street Vendors

After receiving feedback and modifications from public and civil society like NASVI, the union cabinet approved the bill on August 17, 2012 and the same was introduced in the Lok Sabha on September 6, 2012 by the then Union Minister for Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation Kumari Selja. After one year, the bill was passed by Lok Sabha on September 6, 2013 and by Rajya Sabha on February 19, 2014 and it got President’s assent on March 4, 2014. It came into force from May 01, 2014.

This legislation is aimed to protect the rights of urban street vendors and to regulate street vending activities. This Act is applicable to whole of India except the State of Jammu and Kashmir and it shall not apply to any land, premises and trains owned and controlled by the Railways under the Railways Act, 1989.

Major provisions of the ‘Street Vendors (Protection of Livelihood and Regulation of Street Vending) Act, 2014’ are followings-

1. The Act defines ‘street vendor’ as a person engaged in vending of articles, goods, wares, food items or merchandise of everyday use or offering services to the general public, in a street, lane, sidewalk, footpath, pavements, public park or any other public place or private area, from a temporary built up structure or by moving from place to place and include hawker, peddler, squatter and all other synonymous terms which may be local region specific; and words ‘street vending’ with their grammatical variations and cognate expressions, shall be construed accordingly.
2. Municipal Corporation or a Municipal Council or a Nagar Panchayat, by whatever name called, or the Cantonment Board, or as the case may be, a civil area committee appointed under section - 47 of the Cantonment Act, 2006 or such other body entitled to function as a local authority in any city or town to provide civic services and regulate street vending and includes the ‘planning authority’ which regulates the land use in that city or town; are considered as ‘local authority’ in this Act.

3. The Act makes the provision of a ‘Town Vending Committee’ (TVC) to carry out the survey of street vendors at least once in every five years.

4. Section 3 (2) of the Act says that the TVC shall ensure that all existing street vendors, identified in the survey, are accommodated in the vending zones subject to a norm conforming to 2.5 (two and half) per cent, of the population of the ward or zone or town or city, as the case may be, in accordance with the plan for street vending and holding capacity of the vending zones.

5. Every street vendor, identified under the survey carried out by the TVC, who has completed the age of 14 years or such age as may be prescribed by the appropriate government, shall be issued a certificate of vending by the TVC subject to the terms and conditions specified in the scheme including the restrictions specified in the plan for street vending.

6. Every street vendor shall give an undertaking to the TVC prior to the issue of a certificate of vending, that he shall carry on the business of street vending himself or through any of his family member; he has no other means of livelihood; and he shall not transfer in any manner whatsoever, including rent, the certificate of vending or the place specified therein to any other person.

7. The certificate of vending shall be issued under any of following categories namely-
   - a stationary vendor;
   - a mobile vendor;
   - any other category as may be specified in the scheme.

8. The criteria to be followed by the TVC for issuing certificate of vending to a street vendor shall be as specified in the scheme, which may, apart from other things, provide for preference to the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Classes, Women, Persons with Disabilities, Minorities, or such other categories as may be specified in the scheme.

9. Every street vendor who has been issued certificate of vending shall pay such vending fee, and certificate shall be renewable for such period, in such manner; and on payment of such fee, as may be specified in the scheme.
10. On the breach of any of the conditions or any other term and conditions; by the street vendor, the TVC shall cancel or suspend the certificate of vending after the opportunity of hearing to the street vendor.

11. The aggrieved street vendor may file an appeal to the local authority and no appeal shall be disposed of by the local authority unless the appellant has been given an opportunity of hearing.

12. Section 12-13 of the said legislation ensures the rights of street vendors to carry on the business of street vending and entitlement of new site or area on relocation.

13. Every street vendor has been given a duty of removing his goods and wares every day at the end of the time-sharing period allowed to him and he shall maintain cleanliness and public hygiene in the vending zone and the adjoining areas. Every street vendor shall maintain civic amenities and public property in the vending zone in good condition and not damage or destroy or cause any damage or destruction to the same (Section 13-15).

14. Every street vendor shall pay such periodic maintenance charges for the civic amenities and facilities provided in the vending zones as may be determined by the local authority.

15. The local authority may, on the recommendations of the TVC, declare a zone or part of it to be a no. Vending zone or any public purpose and; relocate and evict the street vendors.

16. The appropriate government may constitute one or more committees consisting of a Chairperson who has been a civil judge or a judicial magistrate and two other professionals having such experience as prescribed; for deciding the applications of grievances and disputes of street vendors.

17. Every local authority shall, in consultation with the planning authority and on the recommendations of the TVC, once in every five years, prepare a plan to promote the vocation of street vendors.

18. Each TVC shall consist of a Municipal Commissioner or Chief Executive Officer, as the case may be, the Chairperson; and such other members as may be prescribed by, to be nominated by the appropriate government, representing the local authority, medical officer of the local authority, the planning authority, traffic, police, association of street vendors, market associations, traders associations, non-government organizations, community based organizations, resident welfare associations, banks and such other interested as it deems proper. The number of members nominated to represent the NGOs and CBOs shall not be less than 10 per cent. The
number of members representing the street vendors shall not be less than 40 per cent, who shall be elected by the street vendors themselves. Further, provided that one-third members representing the street vendors shall be from amongst women vendors.

19. Every TVC shall publish the street vendor’s charter and also carry out social audit of its activities.

20. Notwithstanding anything contained in any other law for the time being in force, no street vendor who carries on the street vending activities in accordance with terms and conditions of his certificate of vending shall be prevented from exercising such rights by any person or police or any other authority powers under any other law for the time being in force.

21. Section 28 of the law makes the provision of penalty of Rs. 2000 by the local authority, if any street vendor - indulges in vending activities without a certificate of vending; contravenes the terms and conditions.

22. The appropriate government may, in consultation with TVC, local authority, planning authority and street vendors associations or unions, undertake promotional measures of making available credit, insurance and other welfare schemes of social security for the street vendors.

There are few other provisions in the said legislation e.g., research, training and awareness activities are to be undertaken. Union and State governments are supposed to prepare rules and regulations as well as the scheme to implement the Act in letter and spirit.

Challenges ahead for local authorities

Undoubtedly, the said legislation is going to be a milestone in the history and efforts for betterment of urban street vendors. Almost 90 per cent provisions of the legislation for street vending are directly concerned with municipal bodies. The existing structure and organizational work culture of urban local bodies is not in favour of empowerment of poor. The bureaucratic functioning is so sluggish and unaccountable that it hardly can organize a holistic survey of street vendors within a time bound manner. Moreover, the possibility of the ‘nominated members’ is that they will be nominated by the state government on political backgrounds. The present Indian politico-administrative system is not in accordance to good governance rather it is following the ‘spoil system’ where socio-political malice plays a crucial and decisive role. The members chosen from market association and traders’ association will take every decision according to their own interests. The traditional exploitation and harassment of street vendors, whether it is ‘hafta’ in Mumbai or ‘rangdaari’ in Patna, it will not disappear overnight. It will take time and persistence shown by the vendors will be pivotal factor.

The ‘master plans’ of various cities prepared during last decade do not have
the details of vending, semi-vending and no-vending zones. Hence, the municipal bodies require more exercise during the survey of street vendors under their jurisdiction. Since, most of the street vendors hail from village background and reside in urban slums; they do not follow the instructions of cleanliness and hygienic habits and do not care for civic amenities. Hence, every municipal government needs a multi-dimensional and well designed training-cum-awareness programme for street vendors with police constables and local shopkeepers.

Construction of footpath, convenience and civic facilities in every identified ‘vending zone’ is the first requirement for both public and street vendors. The fact is that, at present, only 27 per cent congested and main markets of Indian cities and towns have these facilities and only 10 per cent areas has dust bins. Covering the drainage lines, potholes and nallas as well as making the pavements and sidewalk area walkable is a big challenge for every local authority. Supply of electricity and drinking water in each vending zone is still a dream. Convergence of all urban poverty alleviation programmes and schemes has become a dire need of the hour.

The most appropriate strategy to implement this Act in the field is to create a separate cell in the municipal body with a separate staff and budget so as to empower street vendors. Best option is to recruit a purely new, permanent, professional and sensitive staff squad. If we entrust on existing corrupt and insensitive employees it will be suicidal attempt.

References


India has 1.2 billion population that’s expected to reach 1.48 billion by 2030. India will be the largest contributor to the global workforce, with working-age population (15-59) likely to swell from 749 million to 962 million over 2010 to 2030. By 2020, the average age in India will be only 29 years, compared with 37 in China and the United States, 45 in Western Europe, and 48 in Japan. Thus, it doesn’t come as a surprise that a young and dynamic workforce will steer India’s economic growth in the next decade.

While a young workforce is an immense advantage to the country, the professional realm continues to struggle in its quest to find skilled and efficient talent. According to different industry reports, as much as 40 per cent of vacancies at the entry level don’t get filled due to paucity of skilled manpower. Industry sectors across the board are facing shortage of skilled talent leading to a stark gap in demand and supply.

Non-wage, informal employment is a dominant characteristic of the urban poor households

In 2004-05 between 72 and 82 per cent of the usually employed male urban poor and between 78 and 80 per cent of the usually employed female urban poor were reported to be either self-employed or casually employed. Wage employment among them is limited to just about 20 per cent compared to an All-India average of about 40 per cent. It is this fact that imparts a high degree of instability to the income profile of the urban poor, and restricts their access to any form of institutional and market finance.
Government of India have launched a rationalised poverty alleviation scheme Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana replacing three schemes, viz., Nehru Rozgar Yojana (NRY), Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP), and Prime Minister’s Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMI UPEP).

Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) scheme made an attempt to increase the employability quotient of the rural poor. This is an endeavor to elevate them above the poverty line by empowering them through various these skill training programmes which will further provide employability.

The issues of urban poverty and livelihoods are complex and require a multipronged approach with focus on multiple stakeholders’ partnerships and convergence of policies and programmes.

The problems of urban poverty are likely to assume critical proportions as the level of urbanization escalates. It is, thus, essential that States / UTs develop appropriate policy frameworks for the planned development of economically productive, environmentally sustainable, financially vibrant, socially just and inclusive cities. In this regard the States / UTs may embark upon a Mission mode approach for the alleviation / reduction / eradication of urban poverty by launching State / UT-wide Mission and providing adequate funds for implementing the same.

The scheme attempts to provide profitable jobs to the urban jobless and underemployed deprived, by cheering and starting the self-employment schemes by the urban deprived living under the poverty contour.

Swarna Jayanthi Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) shall look for providing profitable services to the urban jobless or underemployed deprived by encouraging self-employment plans or prerequisite of pay service. This plan will depend on the setting of suitable society organizations on the UBSP outline and release of inputs in this scheme shall be using the way of urban home bodies and such society organizations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Poverty Gap, Urban and Rural</th>
<th>Gini Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993-94</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Planning Commission*
Urban Poverty Alleviation Programmes are designed with a view to improve the living conditions of the urban poor, an urban poverty alleviation programme named as Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) is being implemented, in Hyderabad, with effect from 1.12.1997. The scheme strives to provide gainful employment to the urban unemployed and under-employed poor, through encouraging the setting up of self employment ventures by the urban poor living below the poverty line, skills training and also through providing wage employment by utilizing their labour for construction of socially and economically useful public assets. ‘Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rojgar Yojana’, a scheme under which all the young and aspiring beneficiaries can be enrolled for professional and career oriented training programmes.

The scheme of Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) has been comprehensively revamped with effect from 2009-2010.

The revamped SJSRY has following five components

(i) Urban Self Employment Programme (USEP) - targets individual urban poor for setting up of micro-enterprises,

(ii) Urban Women Self-help Programme (UWSP) - targets urban poor women self-help groups for setting up of group-enterprises and providing them assistance through a revolving fund for thrift & credit activities.

(iii) Skill Training for Employment Promotion amongst Urban Poor (STEP-UP) - targets urban poor for imparting quality training so as to enhance their employability for self-employment or better salaried employment.

(iv) Urban Wage Employment Programme (UWEP) - seeks to assist urban poor by utilizing their labour for the construction of socially and economically useful public assets, in towns having population less than 5 lakhs as per 1991 census, and

(v) Urban Community Development Network (UCDN)- seeks to assist the urban poor in organizing themselves in self-managed community structures so as to gain collective strength to address the issues of poverty facing them and participate in the effective implementation of urban poverty alleviation programmes.

The projects to be taken up under SJSRY are decided at the States / Urban Local Body level. The Government of India releases Central share as per Scheme guidelines. Monitoring at project level is undertaken by the respective State Authorities/Urban Local Bodies.

The number of beneficiaries assisted under the Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) during the financial years is as follows:-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Urban poor beneficiaries assisted for setting up individual/group enterprises</th>
<th>No. of beneficiaries provided skill training</th>
<th>No. of mandays of work generated (In lakhs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007-08</td>
<td>181050</td>
<td>248264</td>
<td>45.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-09</td>
<td>184736</td>
<td>303418</td>
<td>57.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>151060</td>
<td>187644</td>
<td>50.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source - Ministry of Urban Development

Scope of the study

The Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) covers all the Below Poverty Line (BPL) families living in the urban areas within the jurisdiction of Hyderabad Urban Local Bodies (ULBs). Capability Building, Women’s Group for small enterprises, Women’s Thrift-cum-Credit Societies.

Salient Features

Under SJSRY, initiatives for the development of the urban poor are carried out. The initiatives include different kinds of Skill Training (STEP-UP), Loan and Subsidy through Bank (USEP), Women Self-Help Group to enhance development through Loan and Subsidy and Revolving Fund (UWSP) and wage employment for the poor (UWEP).

A house-to-house survey for identification of genuine beneficiaries will be done. Non-economic parameters will also be applied to identify the urban poor in addition to the economic criteria of the urban poverty line.

The Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana shall rest on a foundation of community empowerment, rather than relying on the traditional method of top down implementation. This programme shall rely on establishing and promoting community organisations and structures to provide supporting and facilitating mechanism for local development. Towards this end community organisations like neighbourhood groups (nhgs), neighbourhood committees (nhcs), and community development societies (cdss) shall be set up in the target areas based on the ubsp pattern the cdss shall be the focal point for the purposes of identification of beneficiaries, preparation of applications, monitoring of recovery, and generally providing whatever other support is necessary to the programme.

The percentage of women beneficiaries under the SJSRY Scheme shall not be less than 30 per cent. SCs/STs must be benefited to the extent of the proportion of their strength in the local population. A special provision of 3 per cent shall be made for the disabled under the scheme.
Priority Sector Status

The loans granted under the scheme should be treated as advances under priority sector and accordingly the loan applications should be disposed of expeditiously within the time schedule prescribed in this regard i.e., applications for loans up to Rs. 25,000/- within a fortnight and those for credit limits above Rs. 25,000/-, within 8 to 9 weeks.

Financial component of the SJSRY

The SJSRY scheme is being implemented on a cost-sharing basis between the Centre and the States in the ratio of 75:25. Given the low allocations for the scheme, only about 2 lakh urban poor under skill development and 50,000 under self-employment are being benefitted under SJSRY annually.

Under the Urban Self Employment Programme (USEP) component of Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY), loan of Rs. 2,00,000/- is permissible for setting up of individual micro-enterprises with 25 per cent central subsidy subject to maximum of Rs. 50,000/-. Under the Urban Women Self-help Programme (UWSP) component of SJSRY for setting up of group micro-enterprises, the group shall be entitled to a subsidy of Rs. 3,00,000/- or 35 per cent of the cost of project or Rs. 60,000/- per Member of the Group, whichever is less.

Target Groups

The programme shall target the urban poor. Special attention will be given to women, persons belonging to Scheduled Castes/ Tribes, disabled person and other such categories as may indicated by the Government from time to time.

A house-to-house survey for identification of genuine beneficiaries will be done. Non-economic parameters will also be applied to identify the urban poor in addition to the economic criteria of the urban poverty line. Lists of beneficiaries finalised will be displayed at the Urban Local Body Office as also in the concerned local areas.

All other conditions being equal, women beneficiaries belonging to women headed households shall be ranked higher in priority than other beneficiaries. For the purposes of this section, women headed households shall mean households, which are headed by widows, divorcees, single women, or even households where women are the sole earners.

This scheme is distinguished by the special incentive extended to urban poor women who decide to set up self-employment ventures in a group as opposed to individual effort. Groups of urban poor women may take up an economic activity suited to their skill, training, aptitude, and local conditions. Besides, generation of income, this group strategy will strive to empower the urban poor women by making them independent as also providing a facilitating atmosphere for self-employment.
Objectives

The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To examine, to which extent Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) actually contributes in improving the economic status (livelihood) and social status of poor urban women.

2. To assess the effectiveness of the training programme and its contribution in starting a new Business venture and improving labour productivity.

4. To study the impact of SJSRY programme on savings, household decision-making and social status in the Hyderabad district.

Methodology

The study was restricted to Hyderabad and the random sample for the research study was drawn from women who have associated themselves with SJSRY programme to generate gainful employment opportunities through the establishments of micro enterprises. The community workers of the Hyderabad Municipal Corporation associated with the Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana (SJSRY) programme working in the different wards of the city of Hyderabad were asked to list out the beneficiaries of the programme in the recent past and identify 10 to 12 families.

At the next stage, the impact of the programme on the social and economic lives of the women was thought to be studied through primary data collected using a structured interview schedule. 200 women belonging to Below Poverty Line (BPL) category who are beneficiaries of the programme and are employed in gainful activities were selected from the different wards in Hyderabad. Care was taken to include also those who had not started any gainful activity but were a part of the programme.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Other backward classes</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schedule tribe</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schedule caste</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General class</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As per the above sample the majority of beneficiaries belong to backward classes. Very few are from other categories.
Table 2
Age distribution of sample population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Number of beneficiaries of the sample population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 25</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-55</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 55</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Majority of the sample population is above 25 years. Population above 55 years are trained under SJSRY unable to start a enterprise due to their age related problems.

Table 3
Distribution of sample according to household’s income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household income per month</th>
<th>Number of beneficiaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 7000</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7000-15000</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15000 and above</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Majority of the respondent’s house hold income is above 7000.

Table 4
Distribution of population according to education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Number of beneficiaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary education up to V standard</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education up to X standard</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher secondary education up to XII standard</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most (60 per cent) of the women in the sample were in the age group 25-55 years having completed at least primary education defined as up to Standard V while 10 per cent were illiterate. The sample also had women who had completed secondary education up to X (60 per cent), higher secondary education as defined as up to standard XII (15 per cent).
Table 5
Distribution of population according to income generated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Additional income generated per month</th>
<th>Sample beneficiaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 2000</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-3000</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000-4000</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4000-5000</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5000</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As per the above table 5 on an average every household of the sample is benefitted by 1000 rupees. Some people are able to earn more than 5000 rupees. The programme helped to improve economic well being.

Table 6
Women contribution to household income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Share of the beneficiary in household income</th>
<th>Number of beneficiaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-45%</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-70%</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-100%</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Data Not Available</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above table 6 it can be pointed out that women contribution to the household income increased, due to programme intervention. The availability of cheap loans under SJSRY helped them to fight the poverty.
### Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S No</th>
<th>Types of Trainings (under the SJSRY programme)</th>
<th>Number of beneficiaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Beauty parlour</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Literacy/Computer training</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Jewellery and Bag Making</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Making of Perfume/Candles/Incense Sticks</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tailoring</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ironing, Gardening, Printing, Photography</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Trade/Sales training</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>No training</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Training the sample beneficiaries is the important component of the SJSRY programme. The important objective of the training is to set up their own business. The above table 7 concludes the fields under which women are trained. The training under-taken by women are in general like Beauty parlour, Jewellery and Bag Making, Tailoring and Ironing, Gardening, Printing, Photography. Majority of the respondents are interested in jewellery and bag making.

Skill training under this programme makes them to improve already existing skills, targets the urban poor for imparting quality training so as to enhance their employability for self-employment or better salaried employment. The target under skill development of the urban poor is very small considering that the number of urban poor was estimated at 81 million in 2004-05 and that nationally a target of 500 million persons to be skill-trained by 2022 has been fixed by the National Council on Skill Development.

The Skill Training of the Urban poor component has been restructured and quality skill training will be provided to the urban poor linking it with certification, imparted preferably on Public-Private Partnership (PPP) mode, with the involvement of reputed institutions like IITs, NITs, Poly-techniques. The average expenditure ceiling per trainee has been enhanced from Rs. 2,600 to Rs. 10,000.
Majority of respondents who have chosen to take training in Catering, Perfume/Candles and Tailoring under the scheme come from low education background. The respondents who have opted for computer course, have had higher secondary education background.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Trainings (under the SJSRY programme)</th>
<th>Less than 2000</th>
<th>2000-3000</th>
<th>3000-4000</th>
<th>4000-5000</th>
<th>Above 5000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Beauty parlour</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Literacy/Computer training</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Jewellery and Bag Making</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Making of Perfume/Candles/Incense Sticks</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Tailoring</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Ironing, Gardening, Printing, Photography</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Trade/Sales training</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 No training</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Number of respondents income wise</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Total</td>
<td><strong>200</strong>= 10 + 59 + 47 + 54 + 30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Being uneducated and having no skills, the urban poor are particularly vulnerable as they are forced to work as maids, cooks, guards or in sweat shops where they toil in poor working conditions, often being denied minimum wages. The framers of the SJSRY have decided to give them an opportunity to learn new skills so that they can command a better salary or set up self-employed ventures. The success of the programme depends on the contribution of SJSRY training income to the regular income. Some of the women did not start the business due to non sanctioning of loan or diverting the loan amount for some other purpose like daughter marriage. From the above table 8 it can be described most of the women who are trained under SJSRY are able to start the business and their income level improved after they under gone training. 15 people have no training under the programme and have no business. Apart from this training most of the respondents depend upon self employment for their regular income.
Monitoring and Review

Monthly progress reports under the scheme may be furnished to RBI within 30 days from the close of the month to which it relates. The scheme will be monitored by the District Level Consultative Committee and the State Level Bankers’ Committee at the time of periodical meetings.

Findings

Socio-economic status has been improved due to programme intervention. The SJSRY programme has contributed women take charge of their lives and their dependents. Skill development has been neglected in the past and needs much faster expansion. Over 90 per cent of our labour force at present has received no formal training prior to employment and skills are typically acquired only on the job.

The governmental system monitors scheme performance based on fund utilization and physical targeting of beneficiaries. This does not indicate the success of the scheme in terms of its impact on urban poverty. For example, under SJSRY, the number of beneficiaries targeted vs. the number of beneficiaries actually trained is measured. Questions of whether targeting exercises actually identified those BPL, or whether beneficiaries trained were able to find and retain jobs/establish and maintain micro-enterprises remain unanswered. It is therefore, necessary to work towards monitoring of outputs and plugging in the feedback from such exercises into a dynamic revision of the schemes wherever necessary. Wherever possible, measurement of outputs against benchmarks should be encouraged.

Observations

SJSRY’s strengths lie in three key areas. First, the scheme has been implemented for the last 14 years, including the 2 years since it has been revamped. There is a wealth of learning to be accessed when considering any scheme on urban livelihoods. Second, although top heavy, a successful precedent has been set for the strong involvement of communities as an integral part of a scheme for urban livelihoods. This needs to be strengthened in subsequent reviews. Third, the strong reliance on the identification of beneficiaries using the BPL lists under schemes such as SJSRY has been one of the reasons for the constitution of the Expert Group to recommend the detailed methodology for identification of families living below poverty line in urban areas by the Planning Commission.

Conclusion

The scheme Swarna Jayanti Shahari Rozgar Yojana in the 12th Plan was restructured as the National Urban Livelihoods Mission (NULM). The NULM aims at reducing poverty of urban poor households by offering them avenues for self-employment and skilled wage employment opportunities. It will also provide shelter equipped with essential services to the urban homeless in a phased manner. It is designed to address the
livelihood concerns of urban street vendors by earmarking suitable spaces, institutional credit, social security and skills to them.

Under the programme, City Livelihood Centres (CLCs) will be established in mission cities to provide a platform to the urban poor to market their services and access information on self-employment, skill training and other benefits. Through the Self-Employment Programme (SEP), NULM will provide financial assistance to individuals and groups of urban poor to set up gainful self-employment, micro-enterprise ventures.

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5. CGG (2007), Reading material for RTP under JNNURM : Centre for Good Governance, Hyderabad.


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Women Empowerment Through Local Government: A Study with Reference to ULBs in Tamil Nadu

R. Mathaiyan

India is the largest democracy in the world where the women constitute almost half of the population. The constitution of India provides political rights to women by legitimizing their roles for participation in public life, within a formal and legal framework. Despite this, relatively a few women have been able to reach top executive posts or decision making positions in legislature and local governments. Indian women’s record as political office holders is bleak and well below what their numerical strength warranted.

Women empowerment is also very important for achieving gender equality. By gender equality, we mean equal rights and opportunities for the both women and men in a society that respects individuals, regardless of their gender. In other words, gender equality refers to everyone, male or female, having uniform and equal access to socio-economic resources, political power, legal redress and decision making processes both within and outside their immediate family. Women’s empowerment has to be a core part of any development plan of a country.

A Brief Profile of Tamil Nadu

The total population of Tamil Nadu is 7,21,38,958. The total rural population is 3,71,89,229 and the total urban population is 3,49,49,729. The total male population of Tamil Nadu is 3,61,58,871. The total female population of Tamil Nadu is 3,59,80,087. The total sex ratio of Tamil Nadu is 995. The total rural sex ratio of Tamil Nadu is 993 and the total urban sex ratio of Tamil Nadu is 998.

The total area of Tamil Nadu is 130058.00 square kilometers. The total rural area of Tamil Nadu is 117532.75 square kilometers and the total urban area of Tamil Nadu is 12525.25 square kilometers. The total density of population of Tamil Nadu is 479.83. The total rural density of population of Tamil Nadu is 297.12 and the total urban density of population of Tamil Nadu is 2194.29. There are 32 Districts, 215 Taluks, 1098 Towns, 721 Statutory Towns, 561 Town Panchayats, 148 Municipalities, 12 Municipal Corporations, two Cantonment Boards, 376 Non-Statutory Towns, 374 Census Towns, two Townships and 385 Blocks.
What is Empowerment?

The term “empowerment” denotes that there is a class de-powered in the society, which needs sensitization and empowerment. Thus, empowerment has three basic contents control, freedom and enabling. Freedom refers to freedom from subjugation, deprivation and oppression, perpetuated through institutionalized methods. The women have been prey or victims of these centuries old, maladies perpetuated by patriarchal norms not only in India, but also in almost all societies. Empowerment requires their freedom. Freedom alone cannot empower them rather they should be enabled to participate in social, economic, political and cultural spheres of life. The women have been victim of all these kinds of shackles from centuries. In other words, they would have to be incapacitated to face the social domain, enjoy the economic independence and roles in political spheres, i.e., political participation, may it be of any degree.

Process and Levels of Empowerment

Empowerment may be viewed as a multidimensional social process that helps people to gain control over their own lives. The process of empowerment can occur at two levels:

- **Individual Level**
  Empowerment can occur through personality development. Such individuals take independent decisions, own responsibility and executive with a concern for others.

- **Collective level**
  This can occur through collective transformation changing attitudes, beliefs for a better social setup. It includes the formation of self-help groups. Discussing issues related to them and asserting their rights. There are several cases in this country that can be taken as models of collective empowerment of women. Women in Gujarat formed a cooperative, called Shri Mahila Griha Udyog, and started making and marketing a simple product papad. This cooperative is completely managed by women for their own benefit and is one of the biggest producers of papad in the country. The product is called Lijjat. A sweetmeat shop in a major metropolitan city in south India, which has been operational for more than three decades and has a name and reputation for its products, is completely managed by women, from production to distribution.

Meaning of Women Empowerment

The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) was established in January 2011. It includes the following factors in its definition of women’s empowerment:

- Acquiring knowledge and understanding gender relations and the ways which these relations may be changed
- Developing a sense of self-worth, that is, a belief in one’s ability to make desired changes and the rights to control one’s life
• Gaining the ability to exercise choices and bargaining power
• Developing the ability to organize and influence the direction of social change, to create a more just social and economic order.

Political Empowerment

Empowerment is a process that enables women to gain access to and control of, material, intellectual and human resources. Empowerment is the redistribution of power that challenges patriarchal ideology and male dominance. Political empowerment of women is part of the overall empowerment process. Political participation is a major path to women empowerment, and participation in the decision-making process or increased decision-making power will lead to women empowerment in the true sense of the term.

In other words, increased decision-making power gives greater ability to influence matters that affect our lives in the community and the society at large. In a broad sense participation in politics goes far beyond electoral politics: voting and election to public office. When it comes to decision-making or ministerial position within legislative bodies, women are distinct minority. Indeed, their role in public life is limited to casting vote during elections. They were denied opportunities to participate in the decision making process. Even, when the decisions are to affect their well being they are only passive observers. The primary challenge facing women today, therefore, is the increase in their participation in that get hold of the situation and become actively involved in the process of decision-making.

The political status of women in a nation is reflected by the extent of freedom granted to women to participate in political activity. Article 15 of the constitution of India guarantees political equality through the institution of universal adult franchise, a revolutionary departure from the socio-cultural norms of tradition-bound Indian society and a major step towards political evolution. However, the right to vote for women can, at best, be a starting point in the struggle for their political equality.

Participation of women in the political activity of the country has improved in consonance with rights conferred by the constitution. Though, the number of women reaching the highest levels is not very high, their capacity and capability in administrative and organizational matters have been recognized and accepted. Since 1952, women have become ministers in the central government and even held the prime ministership. There has been a women vice-chairman of the Rajya Sabha, Speaker of the Lok Sabha and they have also been governors, chief ministers of states (Tamil Nadu, West Bengal and Gujarat). In proportion to their overall number in the legislatures, the number of women holding high political office has been commendably high. Generally speaking, women legislatures have done exceedingly well compared to their male counterparts. Not, only in the legislative assembly but also in local body institutions. Even, their approach to resolving the basic
problem of women’s inequality shows sharp contradictions.

**Present Scenario in Tamil Nadu Urban Local Body**

The Tamil Nadu Panchayats Act, 1994, which came into force on 22.04.1994. The 1994 Act brought in a number of changes in the Tamil Nadu Panchayat Raj structure: Three tier systems came into existence in Tamil Nadu. “Panchayat” was a generic term for all three tiers and the Town Panchayats were brought under Nagarpalika Act. Members of three tiers of urban local body’s viz., Corporation Mayor, Municipal Council Chairpersons and Town Panchayat Presidents were directly elected. The following table explains the number of elected representatives of Tamil Nadu urban local bodies.

### Number of Elected Representatives (ULB’s) in Tamil Nadu-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl.No.</th>
<th>Name of the ULB’s</th>
<th>No. of the ULB’s</th>
<th>No. of Elected Chairpersons of ULB’s</th>
<th>No. of Elected Ward Councillors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Municipal Corporations</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Mayors</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Municipal Councils</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>Chairpersons</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Town Panchayats</td>
<td>529</td>
<td>Presidents</td>
<td>529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>664</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>664</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Empowerment is a process of awareness and capacity building, leading to greater participation, to great decision-making power and control, and to transformative action which enable individuals or groups to change balances of power in social, economic and political relation in society. The political empowerment of women in India is very complex one and highly debatable, since, the introduction of the Women’s Reservation Bill in Lok Sabha. Although, women constitute half of the India’s populations, their participation in political life has been gradually increased in local self government. The 73rd and 74th CAA guaranteed 33.3 per cent seats for women representation in Local Self-Government institutions.
The above table indicates that the gender wise Mayors and Councillors of Municipal Corporations in Tamil Nadu. Further, the table shows that the elected women councillors of Municipal Corporation are more than 33.3 per cent reservation of 74th CAA. Recently, the Government of Tamil Nadu have been upgraded two Municipal Corporations. i.e., Thanjavur and Dindugul. At present there are 12 Municipal Corporations in Tamil Nadu.

**Women’s Participation in Local Government**

The 74th amendment to the Indian Constitution, 1992, has served as a major breakthrough towards ensuring woman’s equal access and increased participation in local government. The act aims at constitutional guarantees to safeguard the interest of urban local self-government to enable them to function as effective democratic and self-governing institutions at the grassroots level. The amendment provides for reservation of 33.3 per cent of elected seats for women at the local government level in urban and rural areas. There is also a one-third reservation for women of posts of chairpersons of these local bodies. A very active role for women in local governance is envisaged as compared to governance at the state and national levels in India. These provisions have provided great opportunities and challenges to women in India, particularly in the local government field. This is of great significance, since the grassroots level participation has considerably broadened the base of women participation in politics at city level.
## District and Gender Wise Chairpersons and Councillors of Municipal Councils in Tamil Nadu - 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl.No</th>
<th>Name of the Districts</th>
<th>Chairpersons</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>No. of Councillors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ariyalur</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Chennai</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Coimbatore</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Cuddalore</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Dharmapuri</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Dindigul</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Erode</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Kancheepuram</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Kanniakumari</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Karur</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Krishnagiri</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Madurai</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Nagapattinam</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Namakkal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Perambalur</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Pudukkottai</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Ramanathapuram</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Salem</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Sivagangai</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Thanjavur</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Theni</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>The Nilgiris</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Thoothukudi</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Tiruchirappalli</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Tirunelveli</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Tiruppur</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Tiruvallur</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table explains the district and gender wise Chairpersons and councillors of Municipalities in Tamil Nadu.

In the fast changing political scenario most of the countries are beginning to realize the crucial role played by women in parliamentary and local self-government institutions achieving development goals. Today, not less than 10 lakh women have been elected to our local government institutions. However, under the representation of women in high level political decision making structure is universal phenomenon and therefore, their inclusion is considered as essential.

General observation

The 33 per cent of women in urban local bodies has brought into focus the fact that there is a need to bring more number of women into the political parties. But, the problem is that many women are often not equipped to become members of the political parties, as the party expects a certain level of consciousness for membership but not everybody become a member. Also, women have difficulties in attending party meetings, study circles or demonstrations because of their timings and the pressure of house work. Most of the parties have not yet developed any special tailor-made programme to meet the special requirements of women in urban areas.

Conclusion

Political empowerment is the only ultimate empowerment of women. Because, even the men also find very tough to sustain in political uncertainty in such a way if women got political empowerment which may be the ultimate. Political participation is the major pathway to women empowerment in number of ways like decision-making, policy making, social service, relationship with public and power. These will lead to women empowerment in the true sense of the term.

In other words, increased decision-making power gives greater ability to influence matters that affect our lives in the community and the society at large. In a broad sense participation in politics goes far beyond electoral politics: voting and election to public office. When it comes to decision making or ministerial position within legislative bodies, women are distinct minority. Indeed; their role in public life is limited to casting vote during elections. They denied opportunities to participate in the decision-making process.
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Local government, sometimes regarded or referred to as local administration or the government at the grassroots, is the third-tier of government in a federal system. It is often referred to as government at the grassroots because it is believed to be the government that is closest to the people in the country side, that is, people or populace at the rural areas where the regional or central governments are far away from. There are many reasons why government at the local level is created. Among the prominent reasons is the development of the rural communities, particularly in developing countries like Nigeria. Local governments are created so as to spur development in the hinterlands of any country.

The importance of local government is more pronounced and relevance in developing countries than in developed nations like those in the western world. The reason being that local government would help to quickly provide the much needed developmental facilities in human and material resources so as to enable the people at the grassroots feel the presence and existence of government in order to have a sense of belonging. It also helps the people participate in civic responsibilities like adult universal suffrage, participation in local and grassroots self-government. That is, local government administration helps the people at the local level participate in their self-development in all fields of human endeavours - that is, socially, economically and politically. Politically, this induces democracy at the local or grassroots level; hence Laski (1961), asserts that “we cannot realise the full benefit of democratic government unless we begin by the admission that all problems in their incidence require decision at the place, and by the persons by whom the incidence is most deeply felt.”

However, over five decades of the existence of local government in Nigeria, the people, especially those in the rural areas of the country, have not felt the existence of local governments or local self-administration. The much-needed development in terms of human and material resources are not present in rural communities. This is in spite of the
financial resources given to those elected to pilot the affairs of local government.

Most local governments cannot execute tangible projects which can impact positively on the lives of the people at the grassroots. Where, any projects are executed at all, such projects cannot stand the test of time because of poor execution which are the consequences of corruption and drastic reduction in local government statutory allocations by state governors. This has impacted negatively on the lives of the rural communities in the country.

**Concepts of Local Government**

Local government is sometimes referred to as government at the grassroots, or local self-government. There are many concepts or definitions of local government. According to Clark (1948), “local government appears to be that part of the government of a nation or state which deals with such matters as concern the inhabitants of particular district or place.” Rao (1965), asserts that local government is part of government that deals specifically with local affairs, that is, administered by authorities which are subordinated to the state government but elected independently of the state authority by qualified residents. A local self-government is that government which is of a specified locality by the local people through the representatives elected by them (Gokhale, 1972).

According to the United Nations office for public administration, a local government is “a political subdivision of a nation or state, which is constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs, including the powers to impose taxes or to exact labour for prescribed purposes. The governing body of such an entity is elected or otherwise locally selected.” Local government is a tier of government created to improve the living standards of people at the grassroots (Aibieyi, 2011).

**Brief history of local government in Nigeria**

Local government or local authority existed in Nigeria long before independence in 1960. Before, the indirect rule system was introduced by the colonial masters, there were some form of administration by the local people and the local administration performed some of the functions which present day local governments also perform.

The philosophy of indirect rule system was in practice everywhere in the country before 1950 when the local government system in Nigeria was beginning to take shape due mainly to the policy of colonial government. The first earlier and serious attempt aimed at imparting the traditional system was in 1945 when the District and Village Councils were introduced. It was aimed at encouraging interest in development. At the beginning when the District Councils system were in operation, their establishment was meant at decentralising the functions and powers of Native Authorities without substantially reducing the authority of the Emirs and Chiefs. In the 1950s and local governments in northern Nigeria had a wider range of functions than it had during the 1940s.
Systems of local government in both the former eastern and western Nigeria evolved along similar patterns. However, they did so along different historical and cultural patterns. Local government was later introduced in the eastern region under the 1950 ordinance after due consultation with the people’s representatives.

In the Western Region, the Western Region local government Law of 1952, local administration was organised by the Native Authority which comprised either Chiefs in Council or Chiefs and Council. The Local Government Law of 1952 introduced democratically elected councils with a minimum of three-quarters of members being elected by universal adult suffrage, while the one-quarter comprised traditional office holders. The 1952 law empowered the councils with a variety of functions like maternity centres, agriculture, veterinary and so on.

When the Midwestern region (later state) was created certain structural changes took place in local government in the region. It was discovered that the Joint Boards set up in place of Divisional Councils were not functioning as they ought to be which was mainly due to either lack of funds or poor management. As a result they were abolished in 1966/1967 (Orewa and Adewumin, 1983).

The pendulum of local government changed during the military era. Based on the national conference which was held between April and May 1969, the future of local government in Nigeria became the main focus. On the basis of various papers presented at the conference by experts, the following recommendations, amongst others, were made: that

(a) a comprehensive list of local government functions was to be drawn up which would attract qualified leadership and generate adequate resources necessary for improved standard of services. State governments were to assist the local governments to build up the necessary human and financial resources to achieve this objective.

(b) there should be flexibility in determining the optimum sizes of local governments. In the urban and geographically compact areas, one-tier local government councils was ideal, but in others multi-tier units might be desirable. Councillors should be paid sitting allowances and not salaries.

(c) for purpose of viability, local governments should have independent tax revenues as well as receive regular and reasonable government grants.

(d) selection of councillors in the rural areas should be through improved electoral college system, and in urban areas by direct election (Orewa, 1991).

Since, the localities differ across the diverse country, the peculiarities come to the fore through the sheer performance of those critical functions dictated by local interest. In this respect, therefore, five important factors cannot be ignored or compromised. These factors are that:
Characteristics of local government

From the various concepts provided, it could be inferred that local government, or local self-government, or government at the grassroots, or government of the local people possess the following characteristics:

1. It is a subdivision of a nation or country.
2. It can impose taxes and incur expenses.
3. It exists within a defined territory. A local government, like other governments (central or state) has to operate or function in a geographical area. The geographical area, by the nature of local government, has to be small, that is, a village, a town or city or a group of communities in the rural areas.
4. It is autonomous and a legal entity. A local government enjoys a statutory status because it is a creation of law or statute. In Nigeria, local governments, from the 1950s till date has been a creation of law. In the present dispensation, the 1999 constitution recognises the status and functions of local governments in the country. Similarly, the autonomy of local governments is a natural fall-out of the legal status that creates it. As a legal entity, the powers, functions and relationship with both central (federal) and state (regional) governments are stated.
5. It comprised elected members who operate it. This is equally known as local participation of the people at the grassroots. It is important for the people or inhabitants of the local area to be involved with the functions of the local government. Proper participation and involvement of the local people in decision-making and administration of the local authority is necessary as this gives it the much needed character of self-government.
6. Accountability: Another characteristic of a local government is accountability. Local government must be accountable to the local people which elected the people that represent them. Since, the people at the local level control the local government, it will be compelled to serve the local people better. Proper accountability ensures effective and efficient performance.

In Nigeria, local governments exist at the mercy of state governments. This is as a result of the lope-sidedness of the statutory social, economic and political situations/positions on which local governments are placed in the country. Due to the statutory allocations given to local governments by the central government through the state governments, the local governments are not independent with the interference of state governments in the affairs of local governments in the country. Politically, the state governments determine who are elected into elective positions in local governments.
Local Government and Rural Community Development

One of the cardinal reasons of creating local government is the development of communities especially those in rural areas. The people in the rural communities are the local people whose well-being ought to be upper most in the plans of local government authorities. This is because the rural communities are characterised by poverty-related problems compared to those in urban areas of the country. The characteristics of urban and rural areas in Nigeria are as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Rural Areas</th>
<th>Urban Areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Wealth: Poorer and sometimes extreme poverty</td>
<td>Richer in wealth or show greater affluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Industry: Agriculture based on land</td>
<td>Factories and various kinds of industries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Water supply: Stream water where it exists; otherwise virtually non</td>
<td>More abundant good sources of water supply for homes and streets (although some of the taps in existing ones stinks due to pollution)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Employment opportunity: Farming, mason, tapping of palm wine, petty trading, tailoring, etc.</td>
<td>Abundant jobs in industries, ministries, firms, private businesses, etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Sanitation and sewage system: Inadequate sanitation and sewage system 3</td>
<td>Better sanitation and sewage system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Electricity: virtually non existence</td>
<td>Elaborate electrification system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Communication and Transportation: Inadequate system of transportation mainly bicycles, motorcycles, rejected buses and foot. Non - telephone, where they exist, difficult to get dialling tones.</td>
<td>Adequate system of transportation ranging from good buses, planes, trains (in some areas with rail lines, taxis bicycle motorcycle and many posh private cars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Educational institutions: poor schools with inadequate facilities and unqualified teachers mainly primary and secondary schools. There are no secondary schools in some areas.</td>
<td>Richer, better-equipped schools. Have many primary and secondary schools and other higher even universities and institutions of learning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Social amenities:
   i) access roads: Poor and dilapidated roads
   ii) recreational facilities: virtually non-existent. No centres like stadium, standard hotels, clubs and cinema. Where these exist, they will be few in number and ill-equipped.

   i) First class tarred and clean roads but sometimes (and in fact most times now) not maintained.
   ii) Abundant entertainment centres of first class standard.


Reasons for rural communities Development

Local government, as the government at the grassroots and closest to the local people, should focus on the development of rural communities due to the following factors:

1. Poverty reduction: This is the main reason why local governments exist. The elimination and reduction of poverty is the main concern of local government. In Nigeria, over 70 per cent of the people live in rural communities, and their living standard is very poor compared to their counterparts in urban areas. They have very low education, bad roads, inadequate savings which leads to lack of investment opportunities, inequality, lack of access to health facilities, and so forth.

2. Unemployment: There is lack of employment opportunities in rural areas. Where there is employment opportunities, the people are underemployed. This is partly responsible for rural-urban migration whereby those in rural areas migrate to urban areas to seek greener pastures and this indirectly lead to over population and high rate of crime in urban areas.

3. Reduction and elimination of rural-urban migration: The rate at which people in rural areas migrate to urban areas in the country is alarming. The reasons for this are that there is lack of economic opportunities in rural areas. There is also lack of social amenities which make life more meaningful to the people in rural communities. Local governments need to address these issues to reduce the migration.
4. **Participation of rural people in their development**: It is part of the responsibilities of local government to encourage the people in rural communities to take part in their own affairs, especially as it concerns their development affairs. The involvement of the people at the grassroots in their development will eliminate failure of government policies and programmes in rural areas (Obodoechi, 2006).

**Why Local Governments are not developing the Local Areas in Nigeria**

For over 50 years, local government have existed in the country as one of the tiers of government not much has been achieved in terms of development of the grassroots. This is in spite of the enormous financial resources that have been pumped or allocated to this tier of government. Besides, numerous nomenclatures which have been given to local governments in the country; like rural governments, urban councils, local authorities, district councils, town councils, local government municipal councils or local council development areas. The nomenclatures did not stop the maltreatment and relegation of local government to the background till the present time. The reasons local government cannot perform are legion. These include:

(a) **Relegation**: Local governments have been relegated to the background all this time, whether military or civilian regimes. It has been an appendage of state governments.

(b) **Lopsided federation**: Local government councils, under the First Republic, faced many problems as regards growth when regionalism was in vogue. However, the problems of local governments increased many folds under military rule. The numerous reforms that were introduced by different administrations notwithstanding, the constitution does not specifically indicate if local government is a third tier of government unlike what obtains in a federal system like India and other federations. In Nigeria, local councils are like agencies of state government (Oladesu, 2014).

(c) **Revenue Allocation and State governments**: At present, money is allocated to local governments from the federation account. The state governments do not like it because they are vested with the power to create or dissolve the local government council under the constitution.

(d) **Politics of allocation**: The channels of disbursing money to local governments have become a source of political acrimony. Whenever, money is allocated to councils, the money does not go directly to them. The money is deposited in a joint account owned by state and local governments of which the local government is junior tier of government where the state governors hold sway and direct how the money is spent.
(e) **Diversion of fund by governors:** Often times, state governors have been accused of diverting local government funds through controversial deductions. In this regard, local governments are always at the mercy of state governors. Many state governors dictate how local government funds are utilised.

(f) **Ambition of governors:** Almost, half of the 774 local governments in the country are administered by caretaker committees appointed by state governors. Any time election is conducted into local government councils the second term ambition of state governors always play prominent role as this shapes the council polls as any one elected as chairmen and councillors are lackeys who would coordinate governor’s battle for second term at the grassroots.

(g) **Under funding:** Many local governments are underfunded from the statutory federal allocations to local governments. Majority of them have no financial wherewithal to function to the glory of the people at the grassroots. This is because most of them are not economically viable.

(h) **Corruption:** Like other sectors of the socio-economic and political landscape of the country, local governments are not immune to corruptive tendencies. Corruption in local governments in the country seem worse off as their officials corner whatever would have been left to develop and promote the growth of the inhabitants of the grassroots. Many times, finances that would have been accrued to the councils’ purse are embezzled by both the carrier civil servants in the councils and elected officials. As bastions of corruption, councils have many times disappointed the people by their sheer ineptitude and lack of initiative. Chairmen of local governments are usually overwhelmed by the resources at their disposal if they are development conscious. The love for money rather than urge or desire to serve, has been the motivating factor for jostling for chairmanship and councillorship seats at the local governments.

(i) **Godfatherism/stooges:** Since, democracy came on board in the country, the democratic foundations of local governments have been doubtful. Local governments, which are piloted by political appointees and democratically elected officials headed by chairmen and councillors, these officials have become working tools in the hands of ambitious political leaders. As far as chairmanship and councillorship candidates run on the platforms of competing political parties for elections, there is every tendency to impose these political office holders on the local governments. Those elected are the candidates of political barons and godfathers not necessarily the candidates and
choice of the people at the grassroots and local level. Some of the godfathers and sponsors of chairmanship and councillorship candidates are placed on the pay roll of local governments by the chairman. Where they are not on the pay roll, special allowances and emoluments are given to them on monthly basis. These allowances are in addition to periodic and seasonal largesse to the sponsors and godfathers. This largesse includes lavish Christmas/end-of-year gifts, sponsorship of birthday parties and burial ceremonies, sponsorship of religious pilgrimages to holy lands, and so forth. The financial resources expended on the godfathers are enough to execute projects that can impact meaningfully on the lives of the people at the grassroots and rural communities. The governors do this to enable them have every access to the finances of local government councils. The idea is that by influencing the choice of local government chairmen, it would be easier for the governors to manipulate and have say on how local government money is deployed.

(j) **Inadequate Finance**: Finances at the disposal of local governments are not adequate, compare to the functions assigned to them statutorily. This is the reason local governments are unable to execute projects to satisfy the yearnings of the rural communities and other grassroots citizens in the metropolitan areas of the country. Statutorily, local governments in the country have a monthly revenue allocation of 20 per cent from the federation account. But this allocation, compared to the tasks before local governments are not commensurate with it.

(k) The main glaring factor negating the performance of local governments in the country is the issue of state governors working against the interests of local governments in their states to the detriment of development in their local governments. The state governors either misappropriate the funds of local governments or reduce them to perform other functions meant for the state government. For example, in November 2009, a total of N1.7 billion was allocated to 20 local governments in Ogun state, but only N700 million was released to them by the state governor and the amount was less than half of their financial requirement. In Ebonyi state, it was alleged that about N15 billion was removed from the Joint account of the state and local government between 2003 and 2006 the state governor (Akaeze, 2012). In the various states, the governors deduct primary school emoluments from the allocations to local governments. This ought not to be so. Some state governors deduct money in excess of primary school teachers and non-teaching staff salaries. The manner the constitution made local governments as appendages of state governments is partly responsible for the bizarre treatment.
Many state governors withhold local government statutory allocations before they are released to the councils. Often times the full allocations are not released to local governments to perform their statutory functions to the detriment of the local communities. This has led to many controversies between state and local governments. Sometimes, in order not to accuse state governments of tampering with or embezzling local government funds, the state governors would deliberately give to them huge responsibilities which are outside the purview of local governments such that local government funds are then deployed to finance the projects. When such happens, the core functions or projects of local governments are left unattended to; where attempts are made to execute projects, the projects would be poorly executed.

Besides, primary school teachers' salaries which are deducted by the governors from local government funds, other deductions that are made include funds for joint state and local government projects, funds for provision of infrastructural facilities, or collaborative projects that can give room for the mishandling of local government funds. The aftermath of such deductions would result meagre funds which will then be handed over to local governments to execute their mandatory policies and programmes.

(l) **Political interference:** Politically, state governors deliberately create problems for local governments so that they can under perform in their statutory functions. Often times, many state governors plant or sponsor their stooges to become local government chairmen. This is similar to political godfathers who sponsor local government chairmen and councillors.

However, where state governors are unable to sponsor candidates to the positions of local government chairmen, some state governors would deliberately refuse to conduct local government elections in their states. Consequent on this, the state governor would resort to the appointment of caretaker committees or caretaker chairmen to administer the affairs of the local governments in their states. The caretaker chairmen owe total allegiance to their godfather-governors rather than the people at the local areas and grassroots for whom local governments were established. By this political development, the serious work of governance at the local councils would become “job for the boys.” A good example is Anambra state in the south east of the country where the 21 local governments operated without democratically elected officials because the governors refused to conduct local government elections into the councils for over ten years. The governors, of different administrations in the state, used caretaker committees to pilot the affairs of the local governments.

A similar scenario played out itself in Imo State where the governor, Rochas
Okorocha, dissolved all the 27 local government administration on 6th June, 2011 (Ugborgu, 2012). The major influence of the dissolution was for political reasons as the governor and the 27 local government chairmen and councillors belong to different political parties. This action is too typical of Nigeria politics. In spite of the order of the Court of Appeal which directed the governor to reinstate the local government chairmen and councillors the governor disobeyed the ruling as the local government chairmen met empty premises when they wanted to return to their offices; because the governor declared three-day public holiday to frustrate the chairmen and councillors. These types of scenarios are partly responsible for the poor performance of local governments in the country hence local governments are hardly considered to be model of good administration.

(n) **Lack of amenities**: In addition to the paucity of funds and frequent interference of state governors in the affairs of local governments, many of the local government areas lack basic amenities like health centres, potable water supply, electricity, and good sanitary conditions that would make living in such areas tolerable.

(o) **Distance administration**: Local government administration in the country is facing serious setback partly due to the elected local government chairmen and councillors who are elected to administer local governments in rural communities, safe for those in urbanised and metropolitan local government areas, administered their councils from the state capitals. Even the carrier civil servants who head the various departments in the councils live and reside in the state capitals. This is where they administer or oversee and direct the affairs of local governments. Some of the elected chairmen of the local governments in rural areas do not show up in their offices up to three times in a week. The elected councillors are also quite guilty of this as they hardly sit up to ten times in a month to legislate on the affairs of their local governments.
As a result, these officials do not have the feeling of the local people at heart hence they do not care about the creation of the enabling environment for the people to live in. Due to the absence of social amenities in the local government areas the people for whom the government at the local level was created would not feel comfortable to live in the rural areas, instead, would prefer to migrate to the city centres or urban areas to look for greener pastures.

In Nigeria, local governments have been encouraging rural decline as it is in many African countries. Due to rural development failure, urbanisation is increasing by the day in the country to the detriment of the social facilities in the cities. On the other hand, urbanisation, which is increasingly becoming a rapid phenomenon, does not arise from growth and productive tendencies, but a result of failure of government partly championed by the failure of our local government chairmen and councillors. Put succinctly by Mihyo (2004), “in Asia and Latin America, urbanisation is mainly due to industrialisation, but in Africa, early trends were linked to industrialisation efforts; recent trends and due more to rural neglect, environmental degradation, decline of employment opportunities, collapsed of primary commodity prices, corruption and so forth”. Due to the neglect to improve on social and economic facilities in the local areas, there arose total decline in rural services which have been persistent and have become worse.

**Conclusion**

Local government is the nearest government to the grassroots and rural communities. But the manner state governors and some local government chairmen handle the affairs of local councils as regards fleecing their funds with impunity does not augur well for the development of rural communities who are at the receiving end of the lack of social amenities and other provisions that would give live proper meaning to people at the grassroots in the country. If local government chairmen and state governors give opportunity to the people at the grassroots and rural communities the atmosphere to have say in their own affairs, particularly in policy execution and implementation and as training grounds for leadership, the people would feel the existence of government.

**Recommendations**

To ensure that local governments in the country no longer become drain pipes for state governments, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. State governors should be barred, statutorily, from dipping their hands in the local and state government joint account without the consents of local government chairmen.

2. Special accounts should be created for lodgement of primary school teachers’ salaries, while the balance should be left for local government chairmen to carry out projects that would impact meaningfully in the lives of the rural communities.
3. There should be a provision in the country’s constitution that caretaker committees be made a misnomer in local government administration.

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India is the second most populous country of the world and has changing socio-political-demographic and morbidity patterns that have been drawing global attention in recent years. Despite several growth-orientated policies adopted by the government, the widening economic, regional and gender disparities are posing challenges for the health sector. About 75 per cent of health infrastructure, medical manpower and other health resources are concentrated in urban areas where 27 per cent of the population lives (Krishanan-1999). Contagious, infectious and waterborne diseases such as diarrhoea, amoebiasis, typhoid, infectious hepatitis, worm infestations, measles, malaria, tuberculosis, whooping cough, respiratory infections, pneumonia and reproductive tract infections dominate the morbidity pattern, especially in rural areas (Walia - 2013). However, non-communicable diseases such as cancer, blindness, mental illness, hypertension, diabetes, HIV/AIDS, accidents and injuries are also on the rise (Park-2000, Mukhopadhyay-2001, Deodhar-2001, Ghaflar, A., Reddy, K. S., & Singhi, M. - 2004, Miranda-2008).

The health status of Indians, is still a cause for grave concern, especially that of the rural population. This is reflected in the life expectancy (63 years), infant mortality rate (80/1000 live births), maternal mortality rate (438/100 000 live births); however, over a period of time some progress has been made (Siriginidi-2009). To improve the prevailing situation, the problem of rural health is to be addressed both at macro (national and state) and micro (district and regional) levels. This is done in an holistic way, with a genuine effort to bring the poorest of the population to the centre of the fiscal policies (Patil et al -2002). A paradigm shift from the current ‘biomedical model’ to a ‘socio-cultural model’, which should bridge the gaps and improve quality of rural life, is the current need. Integration of various health and family welfare programmes result in economy and allocation of resources as per needs of the districts (Bhat-1995). Decentralized planning with the involvement of Panchayati Raj Institutions is likely to make health as people’s programme (Isaac & Franke-2002). Converging water supply, sanitation,
hygiene and nutrition with health planning is a logical step (Qadeer-2008). The proposal to strengthen institutions of primary health care and Community Health Centers as functional Rural Hospitals along with introduction of Indian Public Health Standards and accountability of public health institutions to the public is likely to revolutionise the status of health care in rural India (Kameshwararao-2009).

It is designed to galvanize the various components of primary health system, like preventive, promotive and curative care, human resource management, diagnostic services, logistics management, disease management and surveillance, and data management systems etc., for improved service delivery.

This is envisioned to be achieved by putting in place an enabling institutional mechanism at various levels, community participation, decentralized planning, building capacities and linking health with its wider determinants. It also aims to expedite achievements of policy goals by facilitating enhanced access and utilization of quality health services, with an emphasis on addressing equity and gender dimension. As the district has migrants, industrial and pilgrimage culture there is prevalence of specific health problems (HIV, AIDS) along with other types of communicable diseases. The per capita income of this district is 11219 (in the year 2002); the poverty ratio is 52.26 per cent. The health indicators like Child Immunization, TFR, IMR, MMR, along with other socio-economic indicators are shown in the health indicator chart as follows.

**Chart 1**

**Various Health Indicators**

![Chart Image]

*Source: Report of Rural Health Mission on Karimnagar, New Delhi (2008)*
The above chart denotes the various health indicators of the Karimnagar district. Official figures report that the average sex ratio is 998 per 1000 males. Interestingly, the sex ratio in rural areas is 1006 per 1000 persons while it is 964 in urban areas. The crude birth rate (CBR) is defined as the ratio of live births in a population in a year. The crude birth rate (CBR) is one of the most basic fertility measurements (Singh-1986). The CBR of the Karimnagar district is as low as 20.2 compared to India’s average CBR which is 23.8 per 1000 persons (FAOSTAT - 2009). TFR is total fertility rate and fertility is the major component of population dynamics. The fitness, survival, growth and the adaptation of a population to its environment depend to a large extent on its fertility (Singh -1986). The child-woman ratio is a commonly used measure of fertility of a population. The child-woman ratio for Karimnagar district is 2.2 which is significantly lower than that in the high altitude of India i.e., 2.7 (FAOSTAT -2009).

The socio economic determinants of child health are complex and numerous. However, the two most important determinants of child mortality, predictably, are poverty and gender with all their consequences on nutrition, access to health care, environment and education. Other social determinants like caste, religion, and culture also play a significant role (Avasarala K.A.- 2009).

All child mortality indices are showing clear stagnation over the last many years. In decade 1971-81 IMR had declined by 29 points and in 1981-91 the IMR fall was by 30 per 1000. But in the years of the so-called structural adjustment and reforms from 1991 to 2001 this rate of decline plummeted to less than half - only 14 per 1000. Thus, infant and child mortality, malnutrition rates etc., illuminate the situation of poverty and inequity in a way that rising figures cannot compensate for (Sugathan et al - 2001). Mortality rates among children aged less than five years in developing countries have declined over the past years consequent to improving socio-economic conditions and child-survival programmes.
Antenatal care is the strongest predictor of institutional delivery and also referred to as ‘prenatal care’, and plays a decisive role in the overall well-being of the expectant mother and her child. The Antenatal care begins with planning a safe pregnancy, and gradually spreads to child-birth and post-natal care. Antenatal care helps prevent or identify and treat conditions that may threaten the health of the fetus/newborn and/or the mother and also helps in educating and informing the expectant mother about pregnancy-related issues. The above chart clearly clarifies that antenatal care was taken by 99.10 per cent of rural dwellers. This may be due to promotion of institutional delivery by promoting antenatal check-ups and associated counseling to the pregnant women so that antenatal checkup at three times is also comparatively good as it is 96 per cent.

Immunization is the process by which an individual’s immune system becomes fortified against an agent. Active immunization entails the introduction of a foreign molecule into the body, which causes the body itself to generate immunity against the target. In this context it is observed that the Karimnagar district accounts for as high as over 90 per cent of immunization. It is higher than national immunization index i.e., 75 per cent (Datar et al - 2007:31-48).
The national nutritional anemia control programme (NNACP) was initiated in 1970. Under this programme iron and folic acid tablets (IFA) were given to pregnant, lactating mothers and preschool children at least 100 days in a year. The data shows that over 100 per cent of rural people are availing IFA tablets. Rate of IFA tablets is also more than Andhra Pradesh state i.e., 87.9 per cent (Singh and Yadav-2009). The reason for this success is that whenever rural people feel ill they used its approach PHC where the staff used to circulate IFA tablets. During filed study a girl revealed the following:

“I feel very energetic and I am able to concentrate better on my studies after I started taking the red iron tablets being given in my school. My health is good now and I am not getting any drowsiness and irritation”

- a student from Manthani

An ANM at ZP High School revealed her unique strategy to motivate the girls to take the IFA tablets. First, she gave a motivating talk on the benefits and necessity of consuming iron tablets and then herself ate the IFA tablets during the school assembly for two days. This had an immense impact on the girls and they started taking IFA tablets willingly. Girls’ students of that High School say,

“We used to feel weak and giddy and unhealthy. Now I take IFA tablets and feel stronger. My food intake has increased and I sleep better too.”

As the data shows, a substantial number of rural women (75.09 per cent) getting institutional delivery. It is pertinent to quote Sugathan (2001:7-11) “antenatal care is hypothesized to have a positive effect on the likelihood of institutional delivery so that as much as women receiving antenatal care come in contact with health-care providers who are likely to encourage them to give birth in a medical facility”. Here, the data once again proved the positive relationship between antenatal care and institutional delivery.

However, counselling and educating mothers about the importance of giving birth in medical institutions under the supervision of trained professionals is needed because a much higher proportion of institutional deliveries take place in private-sector facilities than in public-sector facilities in remote mandals so that efforts should also be made to strengthen private-sector health facilities to make them more accessible to rural mothers, in terms of cost and quality of services. During the field study an ANM opined that half or more of deliveries in all remote villages still occur at home. These deliveries are conducted under the supervision of trained traditional birth attendants, since availability of trained midwives has increased.

Post-natal care and infant and child health care are similarly affected by the culture, with the result that women often do not avail themselves of preventive and curative medical services intended to safeguard their own and their children’s health and well-being. The lay-health culture presumably has substantial effects on utilization of maternal health services.
in regions of the country where poverty and illiteracy are widespread. This culture is difficult to measure directly, but it is possible to include socio-economic factors that are correlated with it when analyzing utilization of maternal health services. In this context, the data show that 71.33 per cent of rural folk capitulated for postnatal care. Interestingly, it is quite different from the findings of earlier studies as a multivariate analysis of utilization of maternal and child health services in India and four major northern states concluded that “utilization of maternal and child health services in rural areas is driven primarily by socioeconomic factors, such as education, media exposure, and standard of living, that create a demand for services and much less so by physical access to and availability of health and family welfare services” (Das et al. 2001) as a viable number of people (71 per cent) have received postnatal care in this district.

Chart 3
Health care Staff available in Karimnagar District

It is evident from above chart that majority of the employees are female Multipurpose Health Attendants (MPHA-F) while the next set of employees are staff nurses. There are 309,227 and 165 employees are male Multipurpose Health Attendants (MPHA-M), Doctors and male Multipurpose Health Staff (MPHS-M) respectively. Almost an equal number of them that is 106 and 105 are pharmacists and lab technicians. On the whole, only 78 employees are working as female Multipurpose Health Staff (MPHS-F). However, it can be concluded that government has not provided sufficient employees to take care of the health of the people, particularly the rural masses. The doctor’s ratio is very less comparatively with urban areas due to the unwillingness of trained doctors in rural areas. Majority of government hospitals are running by the trained and senior staff nurses but not by the skilled doctors who gets more remuneration for their services in private sectors.

Various Health Programmes

In the district of Karimnagar various health programmes are implemented through national health programmes and policies, to meet the health needs of the people and to overcome the different diseases effecting the population. The following health programmes are implemented at the district level.

1. **Tuberculosis Programme**

   The prime objective of this programme is curing 85 per cent of the sputum positive TB patients and detecting at least 70 per cent of such patients. To achieve the above said objective the following aspects are taken into consideration.

   - Habitation Level Data collection
   - Pre-Medical care
   - Post-Medical care
   - Awareness Building camps
   - Training/Capacity building

2. **Malaria**

   The prime objective of this programme is to prevent the deaths due to disease of malaria and reduction of morbidity. To achieve the said objectives the following aspects have to be taken into the consideration.

   - Cause-consequence prioritization
   - Mediation – access to the Health providers
   - Area wise planning with drive
   - Awareness building/Training/C.B.

3. **Leprosy**

   This programme is made to achieve the elimination of goal of P.R below 1 for 10,000 populations. It covers the following aspects

   - Identification of Leprosy intensive area
   - Organizing awareness camps
   - Medication
   - Training / L. B.

4. **HIV/AIDS**

   Now a day, HIV/AIDS become major threat to the health of society,
Local Government Quarterly

October - December 2014

hence, government started a programme to stop the spread of HIV/AIDS.

- Identification of intensive Areas
- Counseling Centers – access to the people
- Awareness
- Training
- Preventive Measures.

District Level Health Administration

The following data explains the structure and functions of the health care administrators who are rendering their services in Karimnagar district of Andhra Pradesh.

1. District Medical & Health Officer (DM & HO)

The DM & HO at the district level is the Chief Programme Manager in respect of all public health and family welfare programmes, including the RCH-I project. She / He has the primary responsibility for programme implementation, coordination and monitoring, reporting and MIS in respect of various components under the RCH project. The DM&HO is assisted in the RCH project implementation, by the Additional DM&HO, District Immunization Officer, Dy. DM&HOs, and Medical Officers of PHCs.

2. Additional DM & HO

The additional DM & HO is the second-in-command at the district level; provides support to the DM&HO in implementation of Family Welfare and Reproductive Child Health programmes.

3. District Immunization Officer (DIO)

The District Immunization Officer (DIO) is responsible for implementation of universal immunization programme, cold-chain maintenance and other child health programmes.

4. Project Officer, District Training Team (PO-DTT)

The Project Officer, District Training Team (PO-DTT) is responsible for organization, management and conducting of in-service training programmes for Para-medical functionaries working in the district.

5. District Educational & Media Officer (DEMO)

The District Educational & Media Officer (DEMO) is responsible for planning, implementation and evaluation of the activities, and is also responsible for IEC activities of various programmes.

6. District Public Health Nursing Officer (DPHNO)

The District Public Health Nursing Officer (DPHNO) is the chief technical officer for the field level female paramedical personnel including MPHAs (F) and MPHSs (F). She supervises and guides the female health supervisors and assistants in delivering quality health and family welfare services to the people.
7. **Statistical Officer**

The Statistical Officer is responsible for monitoring and evaluation of Family Welfare activities and RCH programmes.

**Health Administration at PHC Level**

At the PHC level, the management structure indicates the medical officer as the prime officer, who is assisted by the MPHEO/CHO, MPHs, ANMs MPHs (Male & Female) of the PHC.

The following table reveals that the government hospitals had a small portion of employees and the shortage of higher ordered medical officers and gynaecologist is much more prevalent in the Karimnagar district. It is similar with

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No</th>
<th>Category of Staff</th>
<th>Sanctioned (Number)</th>
<th>In Position (Number)</th>
<th>Vacant (Number)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Medical Officer</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>Anesthetist</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>Gynaecologist</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>Pediatrician</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>Pathologist</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>Dental Surgeon</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f)</td>
<td>General Surgeon</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Staff Nurses / Nurse Midwife</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pharmacist/Compounder</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Lab-Tech / Lab- Attender</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Radiographer</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Driver</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Para-Medical Supervisors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHO</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPHEO</td>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHN</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
case of paramedical supervisors and multipurpose health workers who has great demand in private sector so that they are not interested to admit into the government hospitals.

The data clears that a considerable shortage of health professional in Karimnagar district of Andhra Pradesh hindering the stakeholders in accessing the quality health care facilities within their localities. However, the economic costs of staff attrition are largely unknown, and the cost-effectiveness of different trainings for expertized doctors, paramedical staff and nurses and deployment of different skill mixes have not been assessed. It is also noteworthy to find-out one prominent gap in the evidence-base is evaluations of human resources interventions to address shortages and maldistribution, and interventions to maintain accessibility and quality of health care in this context. Without such evidence, civil society, professional organizations, union and state governments and development partner face difficulties in advocating effectively for the required responses.

The previous studies found that ‘health care personnel work at a constant pace and under pressure’ (Wyss-2004, Buchan and Calman-2004). Shortages of health professionals reduce the number of facilities equipped to offer emergency obstetric care 24 hours a day, and are significantly related to quality of care and maternal mortality rate (Padmanaban et al-2006). The existing workforce may experience increased workloads and job dissatisfaction, and may have to undertake tasks for which they are not trained. If governments and development partners are serious about reaching the Millennium Development Goal on over all health, substantial numbers of professionals with skills will be needed (Miranda & Patel-2005). The shortage of staff may be reflected in dissatisfaction with the organization and management, even though the employee is satisfied with her/his own work (Rao, M et al-2011). A severe medical staff shortage may actually inculcate a sense of community cohesion and bring the staff together to work more closely to get the work done (Pestonjee et al-1999). Beyond staffing level, studies have indicated that some resident

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MPHS (M)</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPHS (F)</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>631</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1783</td>
<td>1580</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

characteristics and behaviors also influence staff care practices and may even make the resident more susceptible to mistreatment. These include cognitive impairment, physical dependency, mood, and behavioral disturbance (Bates-Jensen et al. 2004). Many countries have decentralized responsibilities for staff recruitment to lower levels of the health system, but the necessary management capacity needs time and resources to be developed.

Conclusion

Alma Declaration ‘Health for all in the year 2000AD’ is a phrase frequently repeated in medical circles. Countless studies and academic conferences have debated how to achieve this objective. One of the main problems has been how to translate this broader objective into programmes targeted at responding effectively to local health care needs. The announcement of the National Rural Health Mission and the commitment in the recent budget to increase allocations for health are necessary steps in the right direction to correct India’s shockingly poor health record. As national and state level strategies unfold over the coming months, a vigorous and informed public discussion is needed to create a national consensus for dramatically increasing investments in health with concurrent improvements in accountability and management of the health care system. Equally important is induction of a cadre of village-based health activists, all women, who will link communities to an upgraded public health system. These women should emerge as the missionaries dedicated to advancing health in India. Money, medicines and medical facilities will be meaningless without these missionaries. Finally, flexibility, innovation, focus, inclusion and openness must become essential features of the functioning of the National Rural Health Mission in its endeavour to provide good quality health care for all.

For the amelioration of rural health care systems the following initiatives to be undertaken:

1. The health policy must include rural areas by making requisite investment.
2. The posts of doctors and paramedical staff be created in terms of the standard requirements of the rural health hospitals.
3. The rural health institutions be made functional by posting adequate staff, ensuring their presence during the working hours, making available the essential medicines, cotton, beds and other infrastructural requirements.
4. Emergency services in the rural hospitals must be started without any delay by putting doctors on rotation duty and ensuring ambulance services and transport facilities to the employees. Of course, Government of Andhra Pradesh has started 108 emergency ambulance services but doctors must be available throughout the clock in the hospitals.
5. Safe drinking water to be provided. Government must create awareness on personal hygiene, environmental sanitation and waste disposal.
6. The spill over of sewerage and waste of the urban areas to the rural areas be stopped henceforth and necessary treatment plants be established in the vicinity of the towns and cities, cost of which must be borne by the users of these services.

7. At the end, to improve the health services in the rural areas, the village community (through Panchayati Raj Institutions) needs to be participated and involved in the supervision and functioning of the whole system to make it accountable to the user.

References


Governance of Nirmal Bharath Abhiyan (NBA) :
The Case of Mysore District in the State of Karnataka

Jos Chathukulam

Part I : Introduction

Nirmal Bharath Abhiyan (NBA) one of the flagship programmes of the Government of India has now earned reputation as people centered demand driven programme. The State of Karnataka has made significant progress in terms of coverage, outcomes and accomplishments. Significant achievements are visible in spheres of household, school and Anganwadi sanitation. With increasing focus on rural areas, the number of households being provided with toilets has increased rapidly. As the Total Sanitation Campaign has positively transformed from its evolutionary stages to a new and broader perspective, it asks for a review on the coverage patterns. The Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation thus planned a special monitoring of NBA in Mysore District of Karnataka. The scheme is monitored in terms of certain indicators like implementation, structure, performance, IEC, Capacity Building, coverage of Individual Household Latrines, Institutional Coverage, Solid and Liquid Waste Management, NGP, Bottlenecks etc. The purpose of the report is to synthesize the major findings, gaps and requirements in the total sanitation scenario and NBA scheme as a whole based on the situation analysis from 6 selected Gram Panchayats of Mysore District. The sample size was worked out based on the consultations with the Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation, Government of India, and Mysore District Administration. The selected Panchayats include Chikkereyur, Kyathanahalli and Naganahalli in Heggadadevankotte Block and Bogadi, Koorgalli and Nagawala in Mysore Block. These Gram Panchayats are distributed uniformly across the different physiographic regions of the District. Individual households, schools, and Anganwadis were randomly selected to assess the effectiveness of the programme and requirements for future.

Design of the Study

The report has nine Parts including in the Introduction. Part II deals with implementation mechanism, administrative
structure and flow of funds in the District. Performance and status of NBA is presented in Part III. Aspects of human resource development, capacity building and information, education and communication (IEC) efforts on sanitation and hygiene and their impact in the district have been discussed in Part IV. Status and coverage of individual household latrines (IHHLs) are narrated in Part V. The coverage under schools & Anganwadis and sanitary complexes are presented in Part VI. There is a separate part which deals with solid and liquid waste management in the district and it is covered under Part VII. Out of the six villages, as it is mentioned earlier one NGP village was selected purposefully and the status of NGP is discussed in Part VIII. Problems issues and bottlenecks of the scheme implementation have been mentioned in Part IX. The suggestions and conclusion are included in Part X. A few case studies have been illustrated in Part XI.

**Part II: NBA Implementation Mechanism, Administrative Structure and Flow of Funds in the District**

**The District Water and Sanitation Mission (DWSM)**

As per the guidelines from the Government of Karnataka, the DWSM had been constituted in the district. The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the Zilla Panchayat is the Chairperson of the DWSM whereas the Executive Engineer from the Panchayati Raj Engineering department is the member secretary. The district head of the health, women and child, information, education, engineering wing of Panchayati Raj are the ex-officio members of the DWSM. No elected representative is in the committee. The district officials of the NBA (APO-1 and APO-2) are not even aware of the composition of the DWSM. It is interested to note that one responsible person who is in charge of the NBA in the district has wrongly reported that the Chairperson of the DWSM is the Adhyaksha of the ZP. This gives an impression that the DWSM is not a visible and influential institution in the district. There is other evidence to validate the above impression. The discussion with the Chief Planning Office (CPO) of the Zilla Panchayat who is the nodal officer of NBA in the district, it is felt that the DWSM is not active in the frequency of meeting, agenda setting, attendance of meetings, the discussions and deliberations of meetings. The issue of sanitation has not been properly placed in the agenda of the DWSM. Moreover, DWSM is not widely known among the members and officials of the Zilla Panchayat and the line departments in the district. Sanitation seems to be a ‘dry subject’ for many of them as one official comments. In short, the DWSM by and large has failed to perform the assigned duties and responsibilities in the case of sanitation and the district officials who are in charge of NBA also hold the view.

**The Block Resource Centres (BRCs)**

At the Block, as in the case of Karnataka, in the Taluk Panchayat (TP) there is no resource centre as such. In Mysore taluk, there is one Nirmati Kendra
which produces and markets sanitary items in a limited scale. In the Taluk Panchayat, there is one Block Coordinator (he/she is also known as trainer of trainers) who is in deputation either from health or from education department. Out of the seven TPs, in three relatively big taluks (Hunsur Krishnarajanagara and Piriyapatna) there are two Coordinators for each taluk whereas in all other taluks there is only one Coordinator each. The deputation of the coordinator to Piriyapatna Taluk Panchayat has been cancelled and new person has not been posted. Among the seven taluks, the Nanjangud has been declared as Fast Track Taluk where the sanitation targets are fixed at a higher level. The motivators (Swachhata Doot) are appointed only in this taluk. The Coordinators are directed to report at the respective Executive Officers (EO) of the Taluk Panchayat (TP). The coordinators are assigned to collect physical and financial progress report from all the Gram Panchayats of the Taluk and submit to the concerned EO of the TP. The concerned EO of the TP has to consolidate all the reports from the GPs and submit it to the district level. The interaction with the coordinators of two selected taluks, it is felt that they need to be incentivized and capacitated to perform the assigned duties and responsibilities at the taluk level.

Village Water and Sanitation Committee (VWSC)

The district officials themselves (the APO-I and APO-II, who are in charge of NBA) have admitted that only less than 50 per cent of the Village Water and Sanitation Committees (VWSC) are active in the district. In many cases, it is a nine member organization with four females and five males and it is headed by the Adhyaksha of the GP. The frequent changes of the Adhyakshas and frequent transfer PDOs/Secretaries of the GPs are mentioned as one of the reasons of the functional inactiveness of the VWSC in the district. The local leadership profile and the performance of the GP are also another set of factors which add the vibrancy of the committee. The roles, functions and assigned responsibilities of the VWSC are not properly communicated to the local functionaries as in the case of selected GPs except the one NGP Gram Panchayat. There are many VWSCs which never met as a committee. Our field observations suggest to conclude that the VWSCs are constituted in majority of GPs as per the directions from the government of Karnataka but it is not functional.

Staff Deployed at Various Levels, Specialists/Consultants

At the district level the Chief Planning Officer (CPO) of Zilla Panchayat is the Nodal officer. Since, the CPO is vested with planning responsibilities and who is also having an additional charge of council related issues of the Zilla Panchayat, the responsibilities of the being the nodal officer of NBA is sidelined, as he himself admits. There is a district coordinator who is in deputation from the health department and he is in charge of district office and administration. One
computer operator is also attached to the district office. There are two Assistant Project Officers (APOs) both of them are from deputation and one is a Project Engineer from renewable energy sources and the second one is a Block Level Health Education Officer from the health department. Among the two APOs no amount of work division has been done either on spatial or on subject specific. At the taluk (block) level there are coordinators and one for each taluk and they are also in deputation. Though, all the staff except one who are deployed at district and taluk levels are on deputation from health and education, they seemingly lack the core specific domain knowledge which is needed for the successful implementation of different components of NBA. An overall rapid assessment of existing staff at various levels gives an impression that the staff needs some degree of activism and professionalism which can be brought in to the system through capacity building exercise. It is reported that no service of consultants are employed in the district. An attitude against specialists and consultants are also noticed among the deployed staff under the NBA in the district.

**Involvement of the BDO Office**

There is no such BDO office in Karnataka. The BDO post also has been abolished in the State. However, at the block level there is Taluk Panchayat (TP). The Adhyaksha is the elected head of the TP whereas the Executive Officer (EO) is the administrative head. There is no resource centre at the taluk level. In one taluk, there is a *Nirmati Kendra* which produces and markets sanitary items. In every Taluk Panchayat, there is one Coordinator who is in deputation. Among the seven taluks, one has been declared as Fast Track Taluk. The motivators (*Swachhata Doots*) are appointed only in this taluk. The Coordinators are directed to report at the respective Executive Officers (EO) of the TP and are assigned to collect physical and financial progress report from all the Gram Panchayats of the Taluk and submit to the concerned TP. The EO of the TP has to consolidate the reports and submit it to the district. Since, there is direct transfer of the fund from the Zilla Panchayat to the GP, no role is assigned to TP in the case of allocation of resources. The TP has very negligible role in the overall governance of sanitation.

**Actual Approval Process**

The district target is fixed by the State in consultation with the Nodal Office of the district. Since, the district has a prior consultation and understanding on district target among the Nodal Officer, APOs and District coordinator of NBA, the process of fixing the target is based on ground realities as in many cases. Based on the district target, an action plan is worked out and it is informed to the GPS. In many cases, the GPs may inform the inability to achieve the target and there may be demands to cut down the size of the target fixed for the GPs. For example, last year the target had been fixed as 47,000 (average 200 IHHL units per GP) and finally the target had been cut down in to 30,000. Normally, there may be
opening balance (OB) in all the GPs and therefore the GPs are asked to utilize the OB. The allocation of funds to GPs are based on two criteria, one is the utilization rate of OP (the progress report based on OB) and second the estimation of the demand from community. The action plan of the GP has to approve by the Panchayat Committee and after the approval it has to submit to the EO of the TP for scrutiny. A coy of the action plan is finally submitted to the Zilla Panchayat. The actual approval process is consultative, democratic and criteria based. During the field work, no complaints have been registered on this ground.

Flow of Funds of NBA

The Zilla Panchayat distributes the fund to the respective the GPs as per the action plan. While distributing the funds, it directly goes to the GPs and by passing the TPs. As a result, there is no delay in the process of fund flow. Moreover, the electronic transfer of funds to GPs has added advantages as it is experienced in the district. While supporting the Anganwadis for sanitation the fund flow is from the district to the GPs whereas in the case of schools it is through the Block Education Officer (BEO) and the for implementation. BEO in turn releases the amount to the School Development and Monitoring Committees (SDMCs). As far as the fund flow is considered, high degree of satisfaction is noticed at the district and GP levels.

Convergence between NBA and MNREGA

In the district there is convergence between NBA and MNREGA. Convergence with MNREGA provides for 26 person days for the construction of a toilet, amounting to Rs. 4,500. The direct assistance from the Government is Rs. 4,700 (Rs.3,200 from the Government of India and Rs. 1,500 from the government of Karnataka). In addition as per the norm Rs. 800 is the beneficiary contribution. The district officials assert that 95 per cent of IHHLs are constructed under convergence model since this year onwards. The amount of the wage for 26 person days, that Rs 4,500 is released to the concerned MNREGA worker’s bank account through fund flow channel of MNREGA whereas the assistance from the NBA is released to the beneficiary through bank cheque as single instalment. It is asserted that though the share from MNREGA is equal to 26 person days, only the actual is estimated and released to the beneficiary. In the operational level, no convergences of project personnel is noticed at any level (Zilla Panchayat, Taluk Panchayat and Gram Panchayat). The same is the case with the action plan of MNREGA and NBA. The only convergence between NBA and MNREGA takes place either at the delivery point or at the beneficiary level. In the entire process more convergence is required at different stages of programme planning, preparation of action plans, implementation, data entry, review, monitoring, personnel management and administration.
Data Entry on NBA MIS

Data entry operations on NBA MIS are being done at district level. The Taluk level coordinators are assigned to collect physical and financial progress report from all the Gram Panchayats of the Taluk and submit to the concerned EO of the TP. The concerned EO of the TP has to consolidate all the reports from the GPs and submit it to the district level for data entry operations. In a few GPs the information on NBA is directly transmitted to Taluk Panchayat and Zilla Panchayat by e-mail. At the district level, there is one data entry operator and who is exclusively engaging in the operation and appointed by the CEO of the ZP. It is reported that the data entry operation is up-to-date.

Data Entry on MGNREGA MIS

Data entry operations on MGNREGA MIS are being done at different levels. At GP and TP there is one staff each for this purpose. Computer facilities are available at all the GPs. There are problems of net work connection and lack of expertise of the concerned staff and it may create impediments in the data entry operation at the GP level, in a few cases and in such cases it is managed at the TP level. At the district level, there is one data entry operator and who is exclusively engaging in the operation and appointed by the CEO of the ZP. It is reported that the data entry operation on MGNREGA is up-to-date in the district. As it is noticed earlier, there is no coordination in the data entry operation of both the schemes (NBA and MGNREGA) in the district under convergence.

Part III: Performance and Status of NBA in the District

The physical progress report for 2012-2013 shows that 17143 IHHL were constructed whereas nothing has been recorded in the case of the other components of NBA (school toilets, Anganwadi toilets, sanitary complexes and SLWM). As per the financial release and expenditure data the district had received an amount of Rs. 1,525.65 lakhs and utilized Rs. 441.60 lakhs. The financial progress is registered as only 28.95 per cent. Since, the opening balance was not available it has not been considered while calculating the financial progress. The lack of demand was reported as the major reason for the poor achievement rate in the district. However, the demand for toilets has increased due to additional financial support of the amount (Rs. 4,500) which is equal to the wage rate for 26 person days by the convergence between NBA and MENREGA. This has reflected the number of IHHL in 2013-2014 (up to January 31). During the reported period 24723 IHHL have been constructed by utilizing Rs 867.30 lakhs. There are vide variations among the GPs and the highest number of IHHL construction in a GP is 340 whereas the lowest number is 40. According to the projections made by the district officials of NBA the figure may cross 30,000 by the end of 31 March, 2014.

As per the district statistics there are 2622 Anganwadis are in operation under both government and private buildings. Out of 1763 Anganwadis which are functioning...
under government building, 1281 are having toilets and the remaining 482 are not having any toilet facilities. There are 859 Anganwadis under private building and it is surprise to note that majority of the them are not having toilet support. This issue has not properly reflected in the district plan since there is no policy package to support Anganwadis under private buildings. There are 2149 government schools in the district which are entitled to be supported by NBA. The official claim is that all the schools are having 100 per cent coverage and therefore no toilet support is needed. And this is not the field situations per our observation. According to the district officials of NBA, two components are required to be addressed in the schools, one is the issue of urinals and the second is the toilet support to the Pre University Colleges (PUC) in the rural of the district. It is reported that attempt has been started to address the first issue and 27 schools are supported to construct urinals by releasing Rs.9.45 lakhs (Rs. 35,000 per school) and only three schools had utilized the amount.

The District 100 per cent Baseline Survey in 2012

As per the official records, the district has conducted a Baseline Survey (BLS) on 28 February, 2013 and it is submitted to the Government of Karnataka on 19 April, 2013. The process and the methodology of the baseline survey in the GPs were discussed at length during the time of field work. Majority of the PDOs/Secretaries of selected GPs were failed to explain any details of the baseline survey. The survey format and the copy of the baseline survey were not available in all six selected the GPs. The result of the ‘baseline survey’ is not internalized by the functionaries of the GPs. Moreover, the GPs have not taken any amount of ownership with the findings of the ‘baseline survey’. A cross verification of the information at different levels reveals that a 100 per cent baseline survey was not carried and really the ‘baseline survey’ was a revision of the earlier TSC sanitation survey.

- Each district had a Project Implementation Plan for the past 8-10 years giving targets under various components - IHHL, Schools and Anganwadis. They should have prepared a revised PIP as per the new Baseline Survey. Have they done this?

Under TSC, the district had a Project Implementation Plan (PIP) for the past few years and the targets were fixed for IHHL, schools and Anganwadis. It is revised as per the new baseline survey and the district has prepared a Project Implementation Plan (PIP) and an Annual Implementation Plan (AIP) for 2012-2013 and 2013-2014. And the plans have fixed the targets for various components (IHHL, Schools and Anganwadis)

- The District should also have prepared an Annual Implementation Plan (AIP) for 2012-13 and 2013-14. What are the per cent achievements against the 2012-13
Governance of Nirmal Bharath Abhiyan (NBA)

and 2013-14 (till Jan 2014) targets - under various components - IHHL, Schools and Anganwadis and Solid Liquid Waste Management (SLWM).

Part IV: HRD, Capacity Building and Information, Education and Communication (IEC) efforts on Sanitation and Hygiene and their Impact in the District

Human Resource Development (HRD)

In the district, different training programmes on sanitation related issues had been arranged to the Panchayat functionaries (elected representatives at all levels, PDOs /Secretaries of GPs), officials from the line departments at the delivery points, grassroots social activists (ASHA workers, women SHG members, Anganwadi workers and helpers, ANMs and VWSC members), extension personnel (health workers and motivators) and school teachers. The APOs, the district coordinator, the data entry operator at the district office and taluk coordinators are given training and exposure visits within and outside the state. In 2012-2013, under HRD, 150 activities had proposed and major attention had given to the training of PRIs (62 activities) VWSCs (66 activities) and block officials (14 activities). The human resources available under different institutions such as NGOs, SHGs and youth clubs have to be assessed and utilized as a support structure for the implementation of the NBA in the district. It is noticed that human resource development is being addressed in an ephemeral style rather need based. A deficit in human resource development is reflected both at the district and taluk levels to address the sanitation challenges in the district. It is an area which needs more attention. It is better to have a systematic assessment of the existing human resource development and to frame a policy package based on the assessment.

Capacity Building

Training has been used as a strategy for capacity building under NBA in the district. The capability of two set of actors are important. One is the personnel deployed exclusively for the scheme and they are the two APOs, district coordinator, data entry operator at the district office and taluk coordinators. They need a separate strategy for capacity building in the managerial and administrative domain which is not reflected in the existing capacity building exercise in the district. Since, the scheme is being implemented by the GPs, the capacity of the functionaries (both elected and officials) of the local government also have a crucial role to play. Many of the GPs in the district have deficit in capability to motivate, generate demand and implement the scheme. However, the NSIRD Mysore has developed a training module which incorporated the guidelines of NBA and it is effective in building the capacity of the GPs and in turn it has some impact in the implementation of the scheme, as it is stated by a Adhyakshas. No doubt, the existing capacity of the GPs has to be strengthened for the implementation of the scheme.
Information, Education and Communication (IEC)

It is based on Sanitation and Hygiene Communication Strategy (SHACS), a district specific IEC plan has been prepared and incorporated as a component both in the PIP and AIP. A long list of 17 activities has been included as IEC activities and they are (1) song & drama (2) wall writings (3) street play (4) melas (5) hoardings & banners (6) picture frame (7) group meetings (8) participatory rural appraisal (9) exhibition (10) radio spots (11) TV Spots (12) audio visual publicity (13) school rally (14) awareness cum inaugural workshops (15) inter personal communication (16) distribution of IEC materials and (17) other training programmes. In 2012-2013, as per the data furnished from district shows that Rs.138.98 lakhs was incurred towards IEC activities. More than 66 per cent of the amount is spent for one single item (distribution of IEC materials). It is important to note that some powerful and effective tools such as interpersonal communication, radio & TV spots, audio visual publicity and participatory rural appraisal have not reflected in the expenditure items. In 2013-2014, the total number of proposed activities are 6580 and the proposed expenditure is Rs.356.12 lakhs. It is also important to note that all the 235 GPs in the district were given Rs.13,000 (Rs. 10,000, for wall writing and Rs.3,000 for conducting special Gram Sabha). In addition to, Rs. 7.00 lakhs had been issued to all the seven Taluks (Rs. 1.00 lakh for each taluk) for conducting street play. Another 14.00 lakhs is utilized for developing sanitation parks in the district. The major achievement in the area of IEC is the introduction of a sanitation vehicle (van) with all the facilities of visual presentation with the support of LCD projector and the vehicle moves every GP area for visual presentation based on an announced time frame. The estimated cost of the vehicle is worked out as Rs.6.50 lakhs. It is reported that during the time of festivals including Mysore Dasara is used as spot for sanitation exhibition and display. It is reported that last year Rs. 9.00 lakhs had been utilized under this head. It is noticed that every letter dispatched from the district sanitation office carries the sanitation logo. The visibility of the IEC materials are available in six selected the GPs. And it is observed during the field work, while the team could travel across the district to cover six GPs in two Blocks (taluks). As a result, the wall writings/paintings of different public institutions (Schools, Anganwadis and PHCs) with in the selected six GPs and other GPs are visible. All the walls are carrying some message on good sanitation practices and hygiene behavior. Hoardings and advertisements on sanitation are visible on high ways. However, level of awareness on sanitation & hygiene amongst the villagers, except the one which is awarded for NGP, are very limited. More IEC tools need to be developed as per the specific needs in the district. Extensive use of inter persona communication may be thought of. An assessment of the sufficiency and efficacy of the IEC tools in the district is
also made during the field work. Though, the district officials are fully aware of the importance of IEC, some degree of reluctance was noticed among the core functionaries of the NBA to plan and implement the IEC component. The general feeling is that it is difficult to assess and monitor the amount of money spent on IEC and induce its impact. And in turn, it may be subjected to harsh criticism from political leaders, media, audit and public. Therefore, the IEC component is being handled with fear and loathing. Generally, the demand is only for tangible assets which have visibility and political mileage, as commented by one of the APOs in the district. This is cited one of the reasons for the disinclination on IEC activities in the district by the officials of NBA.

**Part V: Status and Coverage of Individual Household Latrines (IHHLs)**

The poverty classification of the total 410734 households in the district shows that there are 257792 (62.76 per cent) BPLs and 152942 (37.24 per cent). Among the BPL households, 107487 (41.70 per cent) are having toilets and the remaining 150305 (58.30 per cent) not having. Among the APL households, 64402 (42.11 per cent) are with toilet facilities whereas the remaining 88540 (57.89 per cent) without toilet facilities. There are 77386 APL households without toilets and who are also eligible categories assistance (APL-SCs, APL-STs, APL-Small and Marginal Farmers, APL-Landless Labourers with homestead, APL-Physically Challenged and APL-Women Headed Households) under the NBA as per the new guidelines. The district officials reported that the above restricted APL categories were not assisted under the scheme as it has not approved by the concerned authorities. The physical progress report for 2012-2013 shows that 17143 IHHL were constructed and the physical progress is worked out as 24.70 per cent in the same year the district had received an amount of Rs.1525.65 lakhs and utilized Rs.441.60 lakhs (28.95 per cent). The lack of demand was reported as the major reason for the poor achievement rate in the district. However, the demand for toilets has increased due to additional financial support of the amount (Rs.4500) which is equal to the wage rate for 26 person days by the convergence between NBA and MGNREGA. This has reflected the number of IHHL construction in 2013-2014 (up to January 31) during the reported period 24723 IHHL have been constructed by utilizing Rs. 867.30 lakhs. There are vide variations among the GPs and the highest number of IHHL construction in a GP is 340 whereas the lowest number is 40.

The Zilla Panchayat distributes the fund to the respective the GPs as per the action plan. While distributing the funds, it directly goes to the GPs and bypassing the TPs. As a result, there is no delay in the process of fund flow. Moreover, the electronic transfer of funds to GPs has added advantages as it is experienced in the district. In the district there is convergence between NBA and MGNREGA. Convergence with MGNREGA has provided for 26 person days for the construction of a toilet,
amounting to Rs. 4,500. The direct assistance from the Government is Rs. 4,700 (Rs.3,200 from the Government of India and Rs. 1,500 from the Government of Karnataka) and in addition as per the norm Rs. 800 is the beneficiary contribution. The amount of the wage for 26 person days, that Rs 4,500 is released to the concerned MGNREGA worker’s bank account through fund flow channel of MGNREGA whereas the assistance from the NBA is released to the beneficiary through bank cheque as single installment. It is asserted that though the share from MGNREGA is equal to 26 person days, only the actual is estimated and released to the beneficiary.

The quality of construction is satisfactory as it is examined during field work. Majority cases, the type of toilet it is single pit and in a few cases twin pit is seen. In many cases, as the construction of toilets are being not completed, it is not in use. In other cases toilets are in use and there is water availability either by tap connection or by bucket water from the-public stand post. In many cases permanent walls, roof and door are seen. But in many cases, it seems that the actual construction cost is less than estimated cost of Rs.10,000 (Rs 4,700-assistance from the Government, Rs.4,500-support from MHNREGA convergence and Rs.800 - beneficiary contribution). Any rough engineering estimate of a toilet gives an impression that; the actual cost is only between Rs. 7,000 to Rs 8,000. The lack of demand for toilets was noticed in 2012-2013 whereas the demand for toilets has increased in 2013-2014 due to additional financial support of the amount (Rs.4,500) which is equal to the wage rate for 26 person days by the convergence between NBA and MENREGA.

Part VI: Institutional Coverage (Schools & Anganwadis) and Community Sanitary Complexes (SCCs)

School Sanitation

The major focus of the sanitation activities in the district is on schools hygiene. There are two reasons for giving attention to schools. The one is to build a younger generation with proper understanding and good sanitation practices and the second is to motivate the parents and other family members of the school going students. The district officials are certain that whatever the students are practicing and developing on good sanitation culture in the schools can be transmitted in the families. It is noticed that while preparing the PIP and AIP, the District officials has properly grafted the component of school sanitation. There are 2149 government schools in the district which are entitled to be supported by NBA. The official claim is that all the schools are having 100 per cent coverage and therefore no toilet support is needed in schools. According to the district officials of NBA, only two components are required to be addressed in the schools, one is the issue of urinals and the second is the toilet support to the Pre University Colleges (PUC) in the rural areas of the district. It is reported that attempt has been started to address the first issue and 27
schools are supported to construct urinals by releasing Rs.9.45 lakhs (Rs. 35,000 per school) and only three schools had utilized the amount. It is reported that financial support to the construction of toilets in PUCs is not eligible as per norms of the NBA. While supporting the schools for sanitation, the fund flow is from the district to the Block Education Officer (BEO) and the BEO in turn releases the amount to the School Development and Monitoring Committees (SDMCs) for implementation. It is observed that Mid Day Meals are being cooked in schools in an overall healthy environment. The cooking place, store room and cooking containers are clean. It is managed by the direct supervision of teachers and SDMCs. Schools are having hand wash facilities. It is observed that hand washing before eating is a regular practice in schools whereas hand washing with soap is seen as a rare behavior. The cooking personnel are not seen in uniform though it is compulsory and the uniform (cap and apron) is available in cooking premises. Toilet facilities are seen in schools and majority are in functional and clean. There are a few cases where the toilets are not clean and it is due to the lack of water availability. In many cases it is noticed that the number of toilets are not sufficient when the size of the student population are taken in to consideration. It is noticed that the toilets in girls schools or the toilets are being used by girls in co-education schools are relatively better managed and cleaned than that of the boys’.

**Anganwadi Sanitation**

As per the district statistics there are 2622 Anganwadis are in operation under both government and private buildings. Out of 1763 Anganwadis which are functioning under government building, 1281 are having toilets and the remaining 482 are not having any toilet facilities. There are 859 Anganwadis under private building and it is surprise to note that majority of them is not having toilet support. This issue has not properly reflected in the district plan since there is no policy package to support Anganwadis under private buildings. In Anganwadis meals are being cooked in an overall healthy environment. The cooking place, store room and cooking containers are clean. During the discussion with the workers and helpers of the Anganwadis it is revealed an average level of awareness among them on sanitation, hygiene and hand washing and it is being educated to the children.

**Community Sanitary Complexes (CSCs)**

As per the official statistics, there are total 10 Community Sanitary Complexes in the district (CSCs) and only three are in functional. During the discussion with the officials it is felt that the performance of the three ‘functional CSCs’ are below average in terms of functionality, sufficiency, water supply and O&M. During the discussion with the officials it is reported that the local practice and culture which does not encourage the habit of using Community Sanitary Complexes (CSCs). And, therefore no demand from
the community for CSCs. Certain communal quarrels and clashes had been occurred in a few villages on the issues related to CSCs. Therefore, CSCs has not figured in the project proposal of NBA in the district.

Part VII: Solid and Liquid Waste Management (SLWM) Systems

The district has not made any detailed plan to address solid and liquid waste since it is not assessed as a top priority in the ‘sanitation agenda for the time being’. As per the official document, in the district as a whole, only four Gram Panchayats have developed solid and liquid waste management systems (SLWM) and it is by their own systems. The O&M is being addressed by the Panchayats themselves without collecting any user charges from the public. It is reported that this year 20 Gram Panchayats have prepared detailed plans for SLWM and the proposal is waiting for approval. Among the six selected Gram Panchayats none of them is having SLWM. The district level officials are aware of the availability of funding under NBA whereas the awareness is absent among the Panchayat functionaries. As SLWM has not been figured in the AIP, the structural and financial sustainability of the system has not thought of in the district.

Part VIII: Nirmal Gram Puraskar

In the district there are 20 NGP awarded Panchayats. Among the six selected Gram Panchayats, Bogadi is the only NGP Awarded and it is selected purposefully as per the direction during the field work. Commendable achievements in the area of sanitation are reflected in the Panchayat. Bogadi Gram Panchayat is located near the Corporation area and it is in the Kaveri River Basin and the Panchayat is blessed with water availability. Bogadi has developed its own water supply systems. It has a well developed under ground drainage system (UGD). All the houses have water connection and toilets and all toilets are in use. It is based on the evidence collected during the field work. By random, 10 houses have visited in the GP, conducted a focus group discussion and observed the overall scenario. The school have separate toilets for boys and girls. All the Anganwadis (both function in government and private building) have toilet support. The schools are facilitated with separate toilets for boys and girls with water supply systems, hand washing system, safe drinking water and solid waste disposal system (dust bin). The overall maintenance is satisfactory. The VWSC is active in the GP with 9 members (six female and three male). All the names of the members of the VWSC are demonstrated publicly in the Panchayat wall. The village is clean and one can distinguish the Bogadi Panchayat from other Panchayats in the district, thanks to NGP. Good sanitation practices are seen in the village life. The local community is aware of the award and there is an amount of pride and ownership on NGP. The village could succeed to keep the standard of NGP and it is sustainable. The GP has received Rs. 4.00 lakhs as NGP award money. The award money is utilized (i) for providing
assistants for IHHL to new houses, (ii) purchasing a tempo for waste management, (iii) assistance to institutional coverage, and (iii) purchases 25 dust bins. Being an NGP Panchayat, Bogadi has appointed personnel for solid waste collection. The Panchayat is known for the associational affiliation of Women SHGs and other social groups. The Bogadi Panchayat is a model in the district and has motivated other nearby Panchayats to aspire for the award. Koogalli village Panchayat (a nearby Panchayat of Bogadi) is being motivated by the NGP awarded Panchayat. No amount of slip back in the sanitation status achieved during the verification period of NGP is noticed in the Panchayat. Our field visit in the Panchayat gives an impression that major sections of the community in the Panchayat are aware of the NGP award by Bogadi and the positive impact is very much visible in the sanitation behavior of the local community.

Part IX: Problems, Issues and Bottle-necks in the implementation of NBA

Problems, issues and bottle-necks in the implementation of NBA

i. The District Water and Sanitation Mission (DWSM) is the implementing agency of NBA at the district level. In Mysore district, the DWSM is not visible, active and vibrant as it is expected to perform the assigned role and responsibility. Therefore, the first issue and concern is how an organization, which is structurally and functionally not strong can implement such a challenge project.

ii. Implementation of such a project needs synergy between political will/legitimacy/efficacy (hardware) and technical knowhow (software) both of which may be lack in the district. The issue of sanitation is a ‘dry domain’ which attracts poor attention of the political functionaries at the district level as it is reflected in the decision making forums at the district level. The profile of the personnel who manage the project at the district and taluk levels lack professional and technical competency.

iii. A careful reading and analysis of the project proposal gives an impression that visioning of sanitation issues and concerns in the district are not properly reflected. As a result, proper visioning of sanitation issues and concerns have not get into the project implementation plan (PIP), annual implementation plan (AIP) and district level IEC plans.

iv. It is revealed the baseline survey had not properly designed and administered in the district. As it is reported, the real field situations in many Gram Panchayats had not captured in the baseline survey. The evidence from the six selected Gram Panchayats suggests the above observation. A cross verification of the information at different levels reveals that a 100 per cent baseline survey was not carried and really the ‘baseline survey’ was a revision of the earlier TSC sanitation survey.
v. IEC is an important component in the NBA and as it is suggested that there should be district level IEC plan. Any amount of expenditure on IEC may be subjected to harsh criticism from political and civil society and therefore it is being handled with some degree of fear and loathing. As a result, disinclination towards IEC is clearly manifested in the district.

vi. At the grassroots level, the scheme (NBA) is being implemented by the Gram Panchayats which is in many cases have structural, functional and financial deficits. And the same is the case with Village Water and Sanitation Committee (VWSC). It is dysfunctional in majority of Gram Panchayats. The frequent changes of the Adhyakshas and frequent transfer PDOs/Secretaries of the GPs may be the reasons of the functional inactiveness of the VWSC in the district.

vii. In the district one third of the Anganwadis are functioning under private building and majority of them are not having toilet support. This issue has not properly reflected in the district plan since there is no policy package to support Anganwadis under private buildings. In this context the concern is how to build an younger generation with proper understanding and good sanitation practices.

viii. Though, the scheme is a demand driven, lack of genuine demand for toilets is noticed in the district. Some elements of supply side economic can be integrated in the policy frame work. The convergence with MGNREGA is an additional attraction to opt for toilets and it has increased the demand in the district. Here, there are two concerns. One is, how long the demand continues and the second, whether construction of toilets automatically lead to usage.

ix. The existing level of capacity in the managerial and administrative domain and the capacity building exercise is another concern. The poor quality of the reports (project proposal, progress reports, annual financial statements and MIS) reflects the capacity deficits of the project personnel (managerial, administrative and field extension).

x. Integrated plans at all levels are constitutional mandate of the respective local governments at all levels. The integrated plans are not yet prepared at any level in the district. The existing annual action plans of the NBA at the Gram Panchayats and Taluk Panchayats levels have to properly graft in to the integrated plans and finally it will lead to an integrated district plan. Sanitation needs to be addressed in a ‘political economy perspective’ rather than a narrow ‘action plan frame work’. The capability building for such a frame work is a serious concern.

xi. The Block Resource Centre (BRC) is not at all functional and it is one of
the major bottlenecks in the district. The BRCs have to play an important role as a link structure between DWSM and Gram Panchayats & Village Water and Sanitation Committee (VWSC).

xii. The proposal of the scheme needs a separate strategy for capacity building in the managerial and administrative domain which is not reflected in the existing capacity building exercise in the district.

Part X: Conclusion and Suggestions

The issue of open defecation is severe in India. A large proportion in rural India still defecates in the open areas. The existing facilities seem inadequate in many areas. The issues of open defecation, lack of sanitary awareness and low awareness of improved hygiene behavior still persists as major challenges in the health realm of rural India. For tackling the foresaid issues the Government of India launched the Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) in 1999 with the goal of achieving rural sanitation coverage by 2012. The campaign laid emphasis on Information, Education and Communication (IEC), capacity building and hygiene education activities with involvement of PRIs, NGOs and various CBOs. This was intended to increase the awareness among rural people to generate demand for toilets. A nominal subsidy amount was also provided. The responsibility of delivering the programme goals vested with the Panchayati Raj Institutions. Later, the Government introduced a fiscal incentive programme by the name Nirmal Gram Puraskar (NGP) to motivate the Gram Panchayats in achieving total sanitation.

The TSC has completed a decade of implementation and the NGP has completed more than five years of operation. TSC have now taken the shape of Nirmal Bharath Abhiyan. Karnataka with the help of NBA have attempted to ensure maximum coverage in toilet provision across its rural areas. Disparities could also be seen. This report assesses and evaluates the NBA outcomes in selected Panchayats of Mysore district of Karnataka and draws policy lessons from the stages of latrine construction towards addressing the first and second generation issues together and possible recommendations to be incorporated in the policy drafting stages of future operations. The report is based on field level monitoring.

There are positive as well as negative instances from the District to be portrayed. As per the guidelines from the Government of Karnataka, the DWSM had been constituted in the district. But, the DWSM by and large has failed to perform the assigned duties and responsibilities in the case of sanitation and the district officials who are in charge of NBA also hold the view. There is no block resource centre in Mysore. The district officials themselves (the APO-1 and APO-II, who are in charge of NBA) have admitted that only less than 50 per cent of the Village Water and Sanitation Committees (VWSC) are active in the district. The Zilla Panchayat distributes the
NBA fund to the respective the GPs as per the action plan. While distributing the funds, it directly goes to the GPs and bypassing the TPs. As a result, there is no delay in the process of fund flow. Moreover, the electronic transfer of funds to GPs has added advantages as it is experienced in the district. In the district there is convergence between NBA and MGNREGA and is quite effective at the delivery point or at the beneficiary level. In the entire process more convergence is required at different stages of programme planning, preparation of action plans, implementation, data entry, review, monitoring, personnel management and administration. The demand for toilets has increased due to additional financial support of the amount (Rs.4,500) which is equal to the wage rate for 26 person days by the convergence between NBA and MENREGA. This has also reflected the number of IHHL in 2013-2014. In the district, even though different training programmes on sanitation related issues had been arranged a deficit in human resource development is reflected both at the district and taluk levels to address the sanitation challenges in the district. However, the NSIRD, Mysore has developed a training module which incorporated the guidelines of NBA and it is effective in building the capacity of the GPs and in turn it has some impact in the implementation of the scheme. Even though IEC had been quite effective in the District there is a need to develop more IEC tools as per the specific needs in the district. The sanitation situation is relatively better in the schools and Anganwadis. Technologically improved sanitary latrines were found in individual households. It is also reported that the locally prevalent culture does not encourage the habit of using Community Sanitary Complexes (CSCs). The district has not made any detailed plan to address solid and liquid waste since it is not assessed as a top priority in the sanitation agenda. The NGP awarded Panchayat in the district has fared well. The award has also motivated other Gram Panchayats in advancing ahead in terms of sanitation.

A computerized database is much required in supporting the future planning operations. The study suggests that increased incentives and rewards can motivate Panchayats in addressing the first and second generation issues together. Carving out second generation issues especially that of the solid and liquid waste management (SLWM) seem to be the priority in some parts the District. The experiences from Mysore District reveal that effective convergence along with a holistic approach formed by various development components can result in 100 per cent sanitation achievement.

Suggestions

(i) Attempts may be made to revitalize the District Water and Sanitation Mission (DWSM). The guideline is very clear in its composition and functions. It should follow as it is, strictly. The composition of DWSM should be as prescribed in guidelines.
There should representation from the NGOs, as it is mentioned. The DWSM shall meet regularly at least once in a month though it is mentioned that the “Mission shall meet at least quarterly”. A body, if it meets once in a month then only it can perform the assigned responsibilities and functions. As far as the importance of the sanitation issues in the district are concerned the frequency of such meetings are necessary.

(ii) There should be a full time district level senior officer who is in charge of the Project, exclusively and who will be responsible to the Zilla Panchayats. Junior officials may not get the enough command and support for administering the scheme. The profile, seniority and key position in the hierarchy among the district level officials is essential to get the support from all the line departments, which may be essential to administer the scheme.

(iii) At the district level, a team of professional experts (area of communication, extension, social mobilization, gender and sanitation) say 3 to 4 personnel, should at the disposal of the DWSM.

(iv) Monthly and quarterly review of the progress of the scheme is essential and new formats for the purpose should be developed. MIS and other reporting formats should be designed and it should reflect the real field realities.

(v) District Level IEC plan should be formulated in accordance with the Sanitation and Hygiene Communication Strategy (SHACS). The consultancy service of the media and communication experts may be availed for the exercises.

(vi) The members of the DWSM and district officials need through and high quality capacity building exercises/training to internalize the operational guidelines of the scheme.

(vii) The Block Resource Centre (BRC) may be made in to functional. The BRCs have to play an important role as a link structure between DWSM and Gram Panchayats & Village Water and Sanitation Committee (VWSC).

(viii) The Village Water and Sanitation Committee (VWSC) should constitute in all the Gram Panchayats. The role of constituting and strengthening the VWSC may be given as the primary one to the BRCs. Proper training is essential to VWSC members.

(ix) Efforts may be made to revitalize the local governments (Panchayati Raj Institutions) in the district. As per the Karnataka Panchayat Raj Act, 1993 and the activity mapping, the subject and activity related to water and sanitation is vested with local governments. This matter has to be properly communicated to local governments and internalize the institutions to take up the challenge. Genuine and radical decentralization
of functions, finance and functionaries to local government is a must for the service delivery of public goods (especially, sanitation and water).

(x) The overall performance of the NGP awarded Panchayats in the district is commendable and it is asserted by the evidence from the one selected NGP awarded Panchayat during the field work. No amount of slip back is seen in the Gram Panchayat. This Panchayat can be a show case for good will model for replication. The experiences of the NGP Award Panchayats can be shared among other Non NGP award Panchayats and exposure visits to the NGP award Panchayats may be a tool for capacity building exercise.

Part XI: Success Stories/Case Studies

Case Study of the Prevalent Sanitation Scenario of Nagwala Gram Panchayat

The case study refers to the sanitation scenario of Nagwala Gram Panchayat in Mysore District. Nagwala is a region which has advanced ahead in terms of sanitation provision. Majority of the households in the Panchayat have toilet facilities, but still instances of open defecation could be seen in the Panchayat. Water supply is ensured to all the households. A proper solid waste management mechanism is followed in the Panchayat. The waste accumulated in the Panchayat is collected with the help of a tractor and a person for the same purpose is engaged by the Gram Panchayat. There are drainages for managing the liquid wastes and water. Composting mechanisms are available in many of the households. NBA scheme had been quite effective in the Panchayat. It could be proved that aspects of convenience, privacy and dignity were the chief factors that prompted the respondents to construct toilets. Subsidy also played a significant role in motivating people to construct toilet. Nearly 99 per cent of the total households purchased the construction material from the open market. It is to be noted that more than 80 per cent of the toilets are with superstructure and almost all the toilets in this category have brick wall and roof. All the surveyed households clean their toilets daily. Awareness level has risen when concerned with personal hygiene, thanks to the campaign by NBA. About 90 per cent of the respondents were of the opinion that the construction of the toilets has resulted in the eradication of water borne diseases, the rest believed that it has to a considerable extent saved their money spend on health aspects. The households believe that the information on sanitary awareness has helped in upgrading their standard of living.

Case Study of the Prevalent Sanitation Scenario of Koorgalli Gram Panchayat

The case study present here highlights the sanitation scenario of Koorgalli Gram Panchayat in Mysore District. The adoption rate of toilets in the Panchayat is almost 90 per cent. In the
case of majority of the households the toilets are located outside the house. The cleanliness condition of the toilets is by and large satisfactory. There is a proper solid waste management system practices in the Panchayat. The solid waste piled up in the Panchayat area is cleaned by means of a tractor and a person is assigned the job by the Panchayat. Underground Drainage System (UGDS) is deployed to manage the liquid waste. The Gram Panchayat has formed a Village Water and Sanitation Committee (VWSC). The committee covers 4 villages. NBA scheme had been effective in the Panchayat in terms of toilet provision as well as awareness generation. An IEC van, 9 Anganwadi workers, 2 Asha workers and 16 SHGs are deployed for creating awareness in the Panchayat. The sanitary condition of the schools and Anganwadis is remarkable. The sanitation scenario of the region seems to be changed after the construction of the toilets. Convenience, privacy and dignity were the chief factors that prompted the respondents to construct toilets. Total sanitation campaign is by and large familiar to the households. Second generation sanitation issues especially that solid waste had been met to a large extent. There is an increased awareness in sanitation in the Gram Panchayat. The concept of total sanitation becomes meaningful only when it is people friendly, eco friendly as well as affordable and acceptable to every situation. This is well reflected in the sanitation realm of the Gram Panchayat.

### Case Study of the Prevalent Sanitation Scenario of an Anganwadi in Koorgalli Gram Panchayat

There are five schools and nine Anganawadis in Koorgally Gram Panchayat. Koorgalli Gram Panchayat is located in Mysore District. All the schools and Anganwadis are running under co-education system. Toilet support to most of the schools and Anganawadis are provided by Gram Panchayat. The case study pertains to the sanitation status of an Anganwadi which is located near to the Gram Panchayat office. The Panchayat has provided the building and related infrastructure to the Anganwadi. There is one teacher, a helper and 25 students in the Anganwadi. The premises of the Anganwadi are kept clean. The Anganwadis have all basic facilities including space for recreation. The toilet facility in the Anganwadi is very good. The Gram Panchayat has taken the initiative in the construction of toilet in the Anganwadi. The toilet in the Anganwadi is baby friendly. The toilet of the Anganwadi is equipped with mug, bucket, soap and towel. The toilet is cleaned every day using harpic or phenoyl. The worker and helper clean the toilet. Awareness classes on health, hygiene and sanitation is provided by the teacher. The Anganwadi worker has also received classes on sanitation and hygiene from the Panchayat, health department and the ICDS. The Anganwadi has banned the use of plastic inside the compound. The teacher took special efforts to educate the children on the need of toilets and they
have let the students to educate their parents on this need. NBA scheme was effective in making the Panchayat understand the relevance of sanitation provision which in turn has reflected on the upgraded status of the Anganwadi.

**Case Study of the Prevalent Sanitation Scenario of a School in Bogadi Gram Panchayat**

The case study highlights the sanitation scenario in a school in Bogadi Gram Panchayat in Mysore District. The school is located near Bogadi Gram Panchayat building. The school has co-education system. This is an upper primary school and 189 students are enrolled. The school has a neat and clean environment and the students are bothered about the solid and liquid wastes in their premises. The school compound, environment and the class rooms are kept neat and clean. Separate toilet and urinal facilities are available for both the gender. The toilets in the school have basic facilities like bucket, mug and water. The toilets are kept clean. The toilets are cleaned every day. Materials like harpic, cleaning brushes and phenoyl is used for cleaning the toilets. The cleanliness level (when assessed with parameters like foul smell, stagnant water, mosquitoes and insects) is generally satisfactory. The school has purified drinking water facility. The school also has a separate kitchen for preparing food. The school has separate hand wash facility and students are using water and soaps for hand washing purpose. The teachers always take care of the children and motivate them to know the importance of using toilets. Health and hygiene education is a part of normal school curriculum. Additional classes or awareness programmes were reported to be conducted in the school. Diseases related to inadequate water, sanitation and hygiene are a huge burden in rural areas. Schools with poor water, sanitation and hygiene conditions turn out to be critical in child health. Children’s ability to learn may be affected by inadequate water, sanitation and hygiene conditions in several ways. The case of this school is an exception to this notion when considering the standard of sanitation provision and personal hygiene. NBA was quite effective in providing awareness on health and sanitation.

**Case Study of the Prevalent Sanitation Scenario of a Household in Bogadi Gram Panchayat**

This case study reflects on the sanitation situation of household in Bogadi Gram Panchayat in Mysore District. The name of the respondent is Bhagya. She is 45 years old and the household belongs to BPL category. Prior to the construction of toilet the members of the household resorted to open defecation. The family consists of two male and three female members. The household now have toilet facility and it was constructed very recently. The total cost of construction as Rs. 10,000. An amount of Rs. 800 was spent by the family and the rest was taken as NBA & MGNREGA support. The toilet has a single pit. The toilet and its premises are kept neat and clean. The toilet has basic facilities like water connection, mug,
water and soap. The walls, door and roof of the toilet is permanent. Twenty four hour water supply is available in household. The household clean the toilet daily using cleaners, harpic and phenoyl. The household uses composting technology for taking care of the animal fecal matter. This reflects on the family’s attitude towards sanitation, solid and liquid waste management. A key reason why some households do not own latrine is the lack of access to finance. The average cost of construction is estimated to be much higher than the actual cost involved. The difficult was bypassed with the help of NBA Grants with MGNREGA convergence. The household members opine that the construction of toilets have helped in maintaining privacy and creating self respect. The Scheme was effective in creating household level awareness on health, sanitation and personal hygiene.
Empowering Gram Sabhas: A Note

Vijaykumar N Torgal

Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs) are basic edifice of democracy in India. Panchayat Raj Institutions are rural local self-government units functioning at grass roots. These are steps towards realizing Mahatma Gandhi’s vision of “Gram Swaraj”. Gram Sabhas being grass root level units are true democratic institutions working as foundation of parliamentary democracy in India. The PRIs have been given Constitutional sanctity by 73rd Amendment to the Constitution thereby making them as third tier of Indian federation.

PRIs have chequered history. In the first phase during Community Development era, they provided forum for popular participation in rural development process. During late 1960’s and early 1970’s they started declining in view of number of target-oriented rural development programmes like Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA), MFAL, Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) and Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) bypassing these popular institutions. Again in 1980’s PRIs were revived as units of decentralization as a result of Ashok Mehta Committee recommendations. The 73rd Amendment to the constitution gave PRIs constitutional status and they started to play vibrant role in rural development and transformation.

Gram Sabhas

The Constitution of India vide Article 243A provides for Gram Sabhas. It says: “A Gram Sabha may exercise such powers and perform such functions at village level as the Legislature of State may provide”.

The Karnataka Panchayat Raj Act, 1993 in Section 2 (16) defines Gram Sabhas as a body consisting of persons who are registered voters of Gram Panchayat. Section 3A prescribes meeting of Gram Sabha for every six months. There is a provision to convene special meeting of Gram Sabha if 1/10 of
members of Gram Sabha request for a meeting. The quorum for Gram Sabha is 1/10 of the total member of Gram Sabha. There must be 30 per cent of women attendance in Gram Sabha meetings. The SC/ST people also should be present in Gram Sabha in proportionate to their population.

Section 3A (3) prescribes the following functions for Gram Sabha

1. Considering and approving annual plan prepared by Gram Panchayat.
2. Formulating and prioritising development proposals prepared by Gram Panchayat.
3. Selecting and finalizing beneficiary list for various development programmes based on guidelines issued from time to time.
4. Disseminating and publicizing development programmes implemented at Gram Panchayat level and assisting in implementation of development programmes.
5. Assisting Gram Panchayat in collecting and compiling statistics for various schemes/programmes and ensuring participation of people in various health and literacy campaigns.
6. Monitoring and implementation of various development programmes.
7. Providing and mobilizing voluntary labour and contributions in cash or kind for development work.
8. Persuading members to pay taxes to Gram Panchayat and repay loans.
9. To decide on the location of street lights, community water taps, public wells, public sanitation units, irrigation units etc.
10. Imparting awareness regarding sanitation and preservation of environment.
11. Assisting Gram Panchayat by way of voluntary service in the removal of garbage.
14. Promoting communal harmony among various groups in the Panchayat area.
15. Conserving and maintaining public properties like gomal, tanks, tank beds, ground water etc.
16. Preventing discrimination on the basis of caste, creed, religion, sex, etc.
17. Identifying and prohibiting the practice of child labour and rehabilitation of them.

Functions are wide ranging encompassing development and welfare programmes to maintain harmony in village communities. It is the responsibility of the public to maintain public properties. It acts as a custodian of the society in matters of prevention of child labour, prevention of epidemics, protection of environment and so on. Gram Sabha being the lowest unit of governance has an onerous responsibility of maintaining social cohesion. It reveals that functions of Gram
Sabha are listed with an aim to provide an active forum for citizens to participate in the affairs affecting their good life. It is presumed that an ideal village is created by providing opportunities for exercising ideal citizenry.

The functions and responsibilities of Gram Sabha are listed elaborately in the Act. Theoretically and structurally Gram Sabhas are powerful in providing good governance at grass roots. However, functionally it is not so, because of operational and societal constraints. Number of studies have documented the problems and functional disabilities in the performance of Gram Sabhas.¹

**Operational Problems**

1. Poor attendance of both members and officials.
2. Officers not well equipped/conversant with development programmes/schemes.
3. Many a times no Action Taken Report (ATR) on previous meetings is presented in meetings.
4. Meeting notices contain no agenda notes.
5. Lack of publicity.
6. Lack of cooperation and coordination among all departments concerned.
7. Lack of transparency in both conducting and recording meetings.
8. Many genuine problems are raised for which remedies have to come from top level administration, for instance supply of electricity, ration cards etc.
10. No serious deliberations.
11. Lack of quorum.

**Societal Problems**

Apart from above operational problems the Gram Sabhas do not reflect village community in the true spirit. It has not pervaded into the community due to lack of effective participation of people. People have not felt Gram Sabha as their own institution for their benefit. Gram Sabhas have been conducted to fulfill more of administrative formalities. People’s active participation in Gram Sabhas meeting is lacking. The participation of women, youth and weaker sections is much below the expected level. On the whole lack of active and assertive citizenship is a basic constraint.

In essence societal problems arise due to structural problems of the society. “A democratic conception presupposes an equal, intelligent and active citizenry”². This is more pertinent and expected in a direct democracy where entire village community participates. Whether Gram Sabha is being unit of direct democracy reflects this kind of imagination? The answer is no. This is because the social structure in rural India is determined by three critical sub-structures namely caste, class and political groups. These are not watertight compartments, whereas they are embedded in each thus forming a complex and complicated social structure. The caste and class have both functional and dysfunctional role. Functionally, it
helps in mobilizing people in democracy as a result case based identities and identity based politics is pronounced. Whereas, certain groups and communities face social and economic exclusion and political marginalization owing to their caste, class, gender and so on as a dysfunctionally. The ideology of caste legitimizes the socio-economic and cultural deprivation of not only the workers and primary producers who occupy the lower rungs of the caste ladder, but also women in general. Further system of patriarchy is highly gendered system in favour of the male. The social structure embedded in caste, class and political groups impairs the participation of voiceless people such as poor, women and in general weaker sections. It is believed that measures of direct democracy are likely to facilitate institutional arrangements for the upper castes/classes to entrench their interests in the guise of public interest.

The social structure allows only formal democracy at grass roots devoid of effective democracy. This has resulted in what Fred W. Riggs called “Formalism”. To overcome this phenomenon certain operational mechanism needs to be initiated apart from conscious and concerted efforts in the direction of diluting the ill effects of social structure embedded in caste, class and political group.

Inclusive Participation

In order to make Gram Sabha truly democratic the meetings should have a functional mechanism to include all sections of people. In view of rural social structure favouring dominant caste and class, people from backward and weaker sections do not attend actively and effectively. Even if they attend, it is a mere formality. Their positive/active participation many a time is prohibited by the dominance of socially and economically powerful castes and classes. To ensure attendance of weaker sections like agricultural labourers, SC/STs they may be given a day’s wage as a sitting fee. This can be funded through Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), for which the act must be suitably amended. The MPs, MLAs, MLCs and members of all local bodies are given sitting fee for attending sessions apart from salaries. The agricultural labourers, SC/ST and OBCs be given a daily wage as a sitting fee for attending Gram Sabha. This will ensure full participation numerically. Secondly, NGOs working in rural areas are to be identified and they have to be asked to ensure their participation formally and actively. Already, we have government appointed social workers working for rural sanitation programme. In the same fashion the inclusiveness has to be ensured through NGOs and social engineers appointed for this purpose. Inclusive participation of members in Gram Sabha will be truly meaningful and functional.

Enhancing Legitimacy

Rural people often feel that they will not be getting any positive benefit to village community by attending Gram Sabha. This is because many a time decisions
Local Government Quarterly

Local Government Quarterly

October - December 2014

taken in Gram Sabhas are not implemented to the benefit of the villages. Certain kind of non-performance illusion creates disbelief on the system. Enhancing legitimacy is another facet of strengthening Gram Sabhas. It is felt on many occasions that the Gram Sabha does not play positive role since decisions are hardly taken in meetings.

Even if the decisions are taken they are implemented many a time only to the benefit of ruling elite and powerful social caste and class. It should be mandatory that whatever decisions are taken they have to be implemented without fail. Even plans approved must be implemented in toto. If there is a modification in plans they need to be informed in the ensuing Gram Sabha. Performance/implementation of decisions taken is one way of enhancing legitimacy of Gram Sabha.

**Proper Conduct of Meetings**

Gram Sabhas are conducted regularly but proper conduct is not ensured. However, video graphing and photography of proceedings are now made mandatory by the government. Effective and wide publicity of Gram Sabha meetings be made so that all people are well informed in advance. As a result they can plan their attendance in meetings. The agenda notes for meeting be made available in public places such as Gram Panchayat Office, Public Libraries, Schools, Yuvak Mandals, SHG and other public associations and organisations. The agenda notes also contain the Action Taken Report (ATR) on previous meeting. If anyone requires information on a particular agenda it is to be provided by Gram Panchayat Secretary compulsorily.

**Micro Observers**

Election commission has evolved a system of micro-observer to oversee the election process on the day of poll. Each polling booth is observed as to the free and fair conduct of election as per the election procedures and norms. The central government officers/employees are appointed as micro-observers for each polling station. The same can be adopted here. In most of the rural areas banks are functioning. The staff of these banks can be utilized to oversee the proceedings of Gram Sabha as a micro-observer and they have to directly report to Regional Commissioner.

The micro observer report should contain details regarding:

a) Publicity of meeting notice.

b) Circulation of meeting agenda notes with ATR to all public places.

c) Attendance of members.

d) Attendance of officials.

e) Distribution of any benefits of developmental programme.

On the basis of the report of the micro observer the Regional Commissioner can take action to ensure proper and effective conduct of Gram Sabha.

**Attendance of officers**

It is often complained that good number of officers do not attend Gram
Sabha meetings and hence Gram Sabha meetings have become farce. In order to ensure strict attendance of officers, their attendance in Gram Sabha is to be recorded in Annual Performance Report (APR). Attendance of certain Revenue Officials like Thasildars, Assistant Commissioners, Additional Deputy Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner in Gram Sabha meetings should be made mandatory. The record of their attendance in Gram Sabha meetings is to be noted in the Annual Performance Reports (APR).

Incentives

In order to make Gram Sabha really effective by participation of all adults actively a system of incentives and penalties can be provided. On the day of the Gram Sabha issue of food grains through PDS or free health check-ups can be arranged. Distribution of benefits under various development programmes can be arranged on the day of the Gram Sabha. This has to be done after the Gram Sabha meeting. Distribution of RTCs and various certificates like in income, caste etc., can be arranged. Whatever incentives or distribution or benefits arranged they should be given after Gram Sabha meeting otherwise there is all probability of Gram Sabha meeting going astray.

Concluding observations

The transformation of social structure requires “fundamental alteration of production mechanism-industrialization”11. This is ensured through the development of industries, trade in rural areas. Recently former President APJ Abdul Kalam has developed a concept of “PURA” where in small towns and semi-urban areas are to be developed as centers of industries and trade thus facilitating rural people of all urban economic activities and services close to their villages. The culmination of this process results in a society wherein caste/class considerations are marginalized thereby direct democracy of equal citizenry can be made a possibility.

Notes and References

3. Caste hierarchies have lost importance and role but institution is potent in view of identity based politics. For details see Caste Matters, Seminar 633, May 2012, pp 12-22.
6. Ibid.

8. Fred W. Riggs describes the term “Formalism as the extent to which a discrepancy exists between the prescriptive and descriptive, between formal and effective power, between the impression given by the constitution, laws and regulation, organisational charts and statistics and actual practice of Government and Society. The greater the discrepancy between the formal and effective, the more formalistic is a system”. See Fred W. Riggs, The Ecology of Public Administration, Bombay: Asia Publishing House, 1961, pp.91-92.


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Population and Family Planning in Solapur Municipal Corporation Area

J. S. Apte

Solapur district has a historical significance. It was ruled in the past by five regimes. Andhrabhrutya, Chalukya, Rashtrakuta, Yadav and Bahamani. It came under the British administration in 1818. District is located in the south-east part of Maharashtra State. District is surrounded by Ahmednagar and Osmanabad districts in the north and east, Pune in the north west, Satara in the west and Sangli in the south west. Some part of Karnataka lies in the south.

Solapur District has a number of industries — jinning and pressing handloom, power-loom, iron and textile, sugar factories. The district has religious centers at Pandharpur, Mangalwedha and Akkalkot. Lakhs of people from all over the country throng at Pandharpur to pay their respects to the deity Vithal Rakhumai twice in a year — Ashad and Kartik months. It is a pilgrim centre of the Warkari sector of Maharashtra and outside the state.

According to 2011 census, Solapur is a town of about nine lakhs population and it has made a name and fame as a major textile centre in the country and internationally known as producer of Solapuri chaddars (bed sheets) and Turkish towels. The town progressed on the combined support of textile entrepreneurs Marwaries, Jains and Padmashalis, a weaver backward caste, and Muslim weavers, dahts two who came from different parts of our country. This little town then in 1852 got its Municipal Corporation.

During the pre independence era, Solapur played a due role in the freedom struggle. After 15 August 1947 town was active in the socio-economic change and voluntary activities in the filed of education, health and social welfare. Family Planning Association of India, a national level voluntary organization in the field of family planning started its Branch in Solapur in 1977.

During the last 36 years the Branch had conducted a number of activities and programmes in population education orientation and training of medical practitioners, paramedical staff and field workers.
During 2013 the Branch enlisted cooperation and assistance of its 98 members. These members are mostly from educational, medical, banking and engineering fields. Since 2007 the Branch has extended its outreach services in 40 villages of north and south Solaur talukas. The message of a small family norm has now reached to the nearby rural areas. The Branch operates in close cooperation with Solapur Municipal Corporation.

**Solapur Municipal Corporation performance during 2013-2014 is as follows (figures in per cent)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Sterilizations</th>
<th>100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Sterilizations after 1-2 children</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I.V.D.</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Oral Pill user</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ANC Registration</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ANC Registration less than 12 weeks</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Total deliveries</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Janani Suraksha Yojana</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Family Planning and Maternal Child Health Performance Solapur Branch FPAI—2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Service</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Sterilizations</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Vasectomy</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. IUD</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Oral Pills</td>
<td>689</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Condom users</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. M. T. Pregnancies</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Total polio dose</td>
<td>3611</td>
<td>3589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Total triple injection</td>
<td>3611</td>
<td>3589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. TT ANC</td>
<td>1560</td>
<td>864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. OP Department</td>
<td>2778</td>
<td>1893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Pulse Polio</td>
<td>7139</td>
<td>7137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Depo Provera</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Chicken Pox</td>
<td>1307</td>
<td>1372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. TT 10-16 Age</td>
<td>1286</td>
<td>1669</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Out Reach Services
(Rural Level)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Service</th>
<th>No. of Programmes</th>
<th>Attendance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Health check up camps</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>4997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Youth friendly clinics</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Safe MTP orientation camp</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. HIV / AIDS</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. HIV infection Co-ordinator</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Street play / Folk dance</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Poster exhibition</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Rangoli / well baby competition</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Women self employment orientation camp</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Rally</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>4850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Adolescent orientation</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Meetings teachers and village sarpanch</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Women’s orientation camp</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>3120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. HB Test camp</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>3237</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Target Achievement Percentages

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Couple Protection Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pregnant Women’s Immunizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Children’s Immunizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Female Literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Age at Marriage (Girls)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Infrant Mortality Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Birth Rate Per 1000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The outreach service section covers 16 villages from North Solapur and 24 villages from South Solapur talukas during 2013, 115 female sterilizations were conducted, 278 oral pills were given 82 women accepted IUCD, 13 women were given depo provera injection and 259 men accepted condom.

**Family Planning Performance in Solapur Municipal Corporation Area 2013 — 2014**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Type</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Sterilizations</td>
<td>5604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vasectomy</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sterilizations after 1-2 children</td>
<td>3264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUD</td>
<td>2697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OP Users</td>
<td>2084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCU Users</td>
<td>1507</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Maternal and Child Health Performance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage of Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANC registration</td>
<td>27416</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANC ref &lt; 12 weeks</td>
<td>7482</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANC with severe anemia treated</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total deliveries</td>
<td>21491</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Solapur District Basis Demographic Data (Census 2011)**

Total District

Population 4315527

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>32.40 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>67.60 per cent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sex Ratio 932 Females, per 1000 Males

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>966 Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>916 Females</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Decadal Growth (2001-2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>14.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>11.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Climate Change Update
India and Climate Change

F. B. Khan

As mentioned in this column in the earlier issues, Conference of Parties (COP) is the highest decision making body under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), which is held every year. Representatives of 195 countries gather together for about 10 days to discuss and deliberate on the decisions to be taken to save the planet from the challenge of climate change. The next COP is scheduled to be held during 1-12 December, 2014 in Lima, Peru. In this issue we present a brief write up of the efforts taken by India and the stand it has taken in these conferences.

India’s position vis-à-vis —global temperature rise

According to Census of India (2011), 833 million, i.e., 68.84 per cent of Indian population lives in rural areas. Indian peninsula has a large coastline of 7517 kms. About 800 million population of India is engaged in agriculture and allied activities — farming, cultivation, plantation, horticulture, animal husbandry, poultry, fisheries, forestry etc., which are climate sensitive sectors. According to the Ministry of Earth Sciences, Government of India. “Climate change will, in all likelihood, predispose India to enhanced threats from natural hazards linked to the atmosphere and oceans, besides stressing the availability of water and health of our key natural managed ecosystems”.1 Compared to the 0.74° C increase in the global average surface temperature between 1906-2005 (IPCC), an analysis of data done by the India Meteorological Department for the period 1901-2009 suggests that annual mean temperature for India, as a whole, has risen by 0.56°C during the said period.1

India’s action for combating climate change

India, being a developing country has not been given any binding target for emission reducing/ limitations under the Kyoto Protocol. Developing countries are supposed to do it on their own as a part of the general commitments under the UNFCCC.
GHG Emission Measurement: India’s first GHG emissions inventory was made in 2004 as a part of its National Communication. India has now proactively estimated its GHG inventory for the year 2007 in view of the need for GHG emission assessment to be made on a scientific and regular basis, the assessment for 2007 was carried out under the aegis of the Indian Network for Climate Change Assessment (INCCA). The GHG inventory has been prepared by scientists and experts drawn from a network of a diverse mix of institutions across the country having the capacity to generate information on the GHG emission inventories by sources and removals by sinks from Energy, Industry, Agriculture, Land use, Land-use Change and Forestry and Waste sectors on a regular basis.

GHG emissions in 2007: India’s GHG emissions are heavily influenced by the structure of its large and expanding economy, the limitations on its energy resources, as also its current status in terms of energy access. In 2007, India’s greenhouse gas (GHG) emission by sources and removal by sinks were 1727.71 million tons of CO2 equivalents (or 1904.73 million tones of CO2 equivalents without land use, land use change and forestry), with the largest shares from electricity generation (38 per cent), agriculture (18 per cent ) and other energy industries (12 per cent ).

The emissions from Indian agriculture are likely to increase significantly in future due to our need to increase food production. This, in a globally warm environment leads to increased emissions of nitrous oxides and other GHGs. Increased temperatures would lead to higher emissions even at the current level of fertilizer consumption. Despite this, the relative proportion of emissions from agriculture in India is likely to show considerable reduction in future because of larger emission growth in other sectors compared to agriculture.2

National Action Plan on Climate Change:

On 30th June, 2008 the then Prime Minister Manmohan Singh released India’s first National Action Plan on Climate Change outlining existing and future policies and programmes addressing climate change adaptation and mitigation. The Plan identifies eight core national missions-

1. National Solar Mission, which aims at increasing the share of solar energy in the total energy mix through development of new solar technologies, while attempting to expand the scope of other renewable and non fossil options.

2. National Mission for Enhanced Energy Efficiency which seeks to upscale efforts to create a market for energy efficiency which is estimated to be around Rs.74000 crores. As a result of implementation of this Mission it is estimated that by about 2015, about 23 million tonnes of oil-equivalent of fuel savings in coal, gas and petroleum products will be achieved every year.
3. **National Water Mission**, which aims at the conservation of water, minimizing wastage and ensuring more equitable distribution both across and with States.

4. **National Mission for Sustaining the Himalayan Eco-system**, which aims at evolving management measures for sustaining and safeguarding the Himalayan glacier and mountain eco-system.

5. **National Mission for Green India.** This Mission focuses on enhancing eco-system services and carbon sinks through afforestation on degraded forest land in line with the national policy of expanding the forest and tree cover to 33 per cent of the total land area of the country.

6. **National Mission of Sustainable Agriculture.** This Mission would develop strategies to make Indian agriculture more resilient to climate change, new varieties of thermal resistance mechanisms and improving productivity of rain-fed agriculture.

7. **National Mission on Strategic Knowledge on Climate Change**, which is intended to identify the challenges of and responses to climate change through research and technology development and ensure funding of high quality and focused research into various aspects of climate change.

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**India’s stand in Conference of Parties**

In 2008 in the COP 14, it was concluded that a commitment in the shape of an effective international response to climate change will be agreed at COP 15 in Copenhagen in December 2009. In view of these developments India had to take an official stand in the Conference of Parties (15) in Copenhagen held during 7-18 December, 2009. The Public Diplomacy Division of the Ministry of External Affairs, Government of India came up with a booklet “THE ROAD TO COPANHAGEN : India’s Position on Climate Change Issues” A few excerpts from the booklet are reproduced below to make the India’s stand clear:

“We expect that Copenhagen will result in an ambitious outcome, representing a cooperative global response to the challenge of climate change, but an outcome which is also fair and equitable. It must be in accordance with the principle of **common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities**, a principle that the entire international community has, by consensus, enshrined in the UNFCCC, concluded in 1992 at the historic Rio Summit.”

“Firstly, climate change is taking place not due to current level of GHG emissions, but as a result of the cumulative impact of accumulated GHGs in the planetary atmosphere. Current emissions are, of course, adding to the problem incrementally. Even if current emissions were, by some miracle reduced to zero...
tomorrow, climate change will continue to take place. The accumulated stock of GHGs in the atmosphere is mainly the result of carbon-based industrial activity in developed countries over the past two centuries and more. It is for this reason that the UNFCCC stipulates deep and significant cuts in the emissions of the industrialized countries as fulfillment of their historic responsibility.”

“Secondly, the UNFCCC itself does not require developing countries to take on any commitments on reducing their GHG emissions. This was also recognized in the subsequent Kyoto Protocol which only set targets for developed countries. It is inevitable that the pursuit of social and economic development by developing countries will result in an increase in their GHG emissions, for the foreseeable future. This is recognized in the UNFCCC, itself. Despite this, India has already declared that even as it pursues its social and economic development objectives, it will not allow its per capita GHG emissions to exceed the average per capital emissions of the developed countries. This effectively puts a cap on our emissions, which will be lower if our developed country partners choose to be more ambitious in reducing their own emissions.”

“Thirdly, India can, by no stretch of imagination, be described as a so-called “major emitter”. Our per capita CO₂ emissions are currently only 1.1 tones, when compared to over 20 tones for the US and in excess of 10 tones for most OECD countries. Furthermore, even if we are No. 3 in terms of total volume of emissions, the gap with the first and second ranking countries is very large. The US and China account for over 16 per cent each of the total global emissions, while India trails with just 4 per cent despite its very large population and its rapidly growing economy.”

“Fourthly, for developing countries like India, the focus of climate change action cannot just be current emissions. There is the equally important issue of Adaptation to Climate Change that has already taken place and will continue to take place in the foreseeable future even in the most favorable mitigation scenarios. India is already spending over 2 per cent of its GDP on Adaptation and this figure is likely to go up significantly. Therefore, the Copenhagen Package must include global action on Adaptation in addition to action to GHG abatement and reducing.”

At COP 16, at Cancun, on December 8, 2010 it was re-iterated by the then Environment Minister that-

“Firstly, we have announced that we will reduce emissions intensity of India’s GDP by 20-25 per cent by the year 2020 on a 2005 reference level.

“Secondly, we have taken firm steps to diversify our energy fuel mix. (Substantial increase in solar power capacity, doubling of nuclear power, expansion of natural gas in power production).

“Thirdly, we are pursuing aggressive strategies on forestry and coastal management “Fourthly, we have set up
an elaborate Indian Network for Comprehensive Climate Change Assessment, an Indian IPCC as it were.

At the COP 19 held at Warsaw in November, 2013, India, was represented by the then Minister of Environment Mrs. Jayanthi Natarajan who re-iterated India’s earlier stand namely, that-

1) India calls for: Common but Differentiated Responsibility.

2) We accept that UNFCCC Convention and the Kyoto Protocol are also applicable to all.

3) Developing countries should be provided the flexibility to choose their actions.

4) We’ve made “voluntary” commitment that we’ll reduce emissions intensity of our GDP by 20 to 25 per cent by 2020 (compared with 2005 level.)

5) We have also committed that our per capita emissions will not exceed those of the developed countries in future also.

6) We’re large country with a very small carbon footprint. Our per capita emission is only 1.7* tonnes per annum, despite our heavy dependence on oil import, we’re committed to follow the path of sustainable development.

(* Comparative position-USA- 17.6, Germany- 9.1, China -6.2, Canada-14.7, Singapore-5.0. Year 2009-2013. Source: data.woldbank.org/indictor/EN.ATM.CO@.PC)

References


Oxford University (like Cambridge University) has for long established its own publication division, an independent entity called Oxford University Press (OUP). It has earned a name for itself through its vast range of books from its dictionaries, books on grammar and idioms, atlases to the scholarly books on a wide range of subjects- fundamental sciences, arts, social sciences, humanities, literature, history, societal analysis, religion, culture, historical or major happenings in the world. Researchers, scholars, professionals, go through their bulky catalogue, updated from year to year, to look up for the titles of their interest. This is a way of sharing the deep learning and knowledge cultivated under its spires with the world at large. This is something the Indian universities to take a leaf out of Oxford University.

We are in jet age. There is a time crunch for the people. Whether one is in business, administration or any profession, one is required to prioritize the available time. For those hungry for knowledge or eager for information, find no time to go through tomes or dissertations. They want books that would take less of their time and give more of information. Perhaps, the Oxford University Press is the only publisher who has read pulse of the readers and recognized this fact. The credit for this innovation in book publishing goes to OUP, which is in the form of the books on wide range of subjects under the titles like ‘(Subject)-A very short/brief Introduction.’ Started in 1995 the series under such title has gone up to 200. The books in the series are in tablet size i.e., 6” x 4.5”. We have for review one such title, namely- GLOBALISATION-A Very Short Introduction.

Globalization means many things to many people. According to one author on the subject, David Held, “although in its simplistic sense globalization refers to the widening, deepening and speeding up of global interconnection,... Globalization can be located on a continuum with the local, national and regional. At one end of the continuum lie social and economic relations and networks which are organized on a local and/or national basis; at the other end lie social and economic relations and networks which crystallize on the wider scale of regional and global interactions.” Globalization, together with its sister processes of liberalization and privatization has brought a paradigm shift in the state of affairs on the planet. Worldwide, tomes are written on globalization. What we have for review is a book that looks small, but takes a holistic view of the subject whose horizons are expanding by the day.

Heading of the first chapter is: Globalization: a contested concept. To begin with, the author says that ‘globalization’ surfaced as the buzzword of the ‘Roaring Nineties’ because, according to him, it captured the increasingly interdependent nature of social life on our planet. The author cites the 9/11 attack on the twin towers of the World Trade Centres, use of sophisticated communication technology.
by Bin Laden from a remote village in the mountains of Afghanistan and worldwide telecast of Laden’s messages as an example of how “unhampered by national borders and geographical obstacles, cooperation of the sprawling networks had become so efficient that CNN acquired and broadcast a copy of the Bin Laden tape only a few hours after it had been delivered to the Al-Jazeera office in Kabul.

What is globalization? According to the author the labels given to globalization of it being a process, a condition, a system, a force and an age have very different meanings and their indiscriminate usage is often obscure and confusing. According to the author, the globalization comprises all these. He clears this confusion when he says: “The term globalization applies to a set of social processes that appear to transform our present social condition of weakening nationality into one of globality. At its core, then, globalization is about shifting forms of human conduct. Indeed, any affirmation of globalization implies three assertions: first, we are slowly leaving behind the condition of modern nationality that gradually unfolded from the eighteenth century onwards; second, that we are moving towards the new condition of postmodern globality; and, third, we have not yet reached it.” According to the author it is an ‘unfolding’ which always corresponds to the idea of change, therefore, denotes transformation. He cites the parable in which blind persons equate the elephant by touching it with the characteristics of its various parts. He says that the parable aptly applies to the term when, scholars of politics, culture, environment, economics religion and ideology are presenting their own versions, none of them covering the whole phenomenon. After citing five definitions of the term, the author summarizes the import of those definitions that:

- First, globalization involves the creation of new and the multiplication of existing, social networks and activities that cut across traditional, political, economic, cultural and geographical boundaries.
- Second, globalization is reflected in the expansion and the stretching of social relations, activities and interdependencies.
- Third, globalization involves the intensification and acceleration of social exchanges and activities.
- Fourth, globalization processes do not occur merely on an objective, material level but also involve the subjective plane of human consciousness. The compression of the world into a single place increasingly makes global the frame of reference for human thought and action.

In Chapter 2, the author takes the reader back in time to the phases in human history starting from the pre-historic period (10000 BCE to 3500 BCE) during which globalization was severely limited. It was only towards the end of this epoch that centrally administered forms of agriculture, religion, bureaucracy, and warfare slowly emerged as the key agents of intensifying modes of social exchange that would involve a growing number of societies in many regions of the world. According to the author, the pre-modern period (3500 BCE-1500 BCE) was marked by invention of writing in Mesopotamia, Egypt and central China, roughly coincided with the invention of wheel around 3000 BCE in South-West Asia. These monumental inventions amounted to one of those technological and social boosts that moved globalization to a new level. The pre-modern period was the age of empires-
the Egyptian Kingdoms, the Persian Empire, the Macedonian Empire, the Roman Empire, the Byzantine Empire, the Holy Roman Empire, the Islamic Caliphates, the African Empires of Ghana, Mali and Songhay, and the Ottoman Empire. All these empires fostered the multiplication and extension of long-distance communication and the exchange of culture, technology, commodities, and diseases. The Silk Road linked the Chinese and the Roman Empires. A multicultural group of Eurasian and African globetrotters including the famous Moroccan merchant Ibn Batuta and his Venetian counterparts in the Marco Polo family were all the historical agents behind the intensification of globalization. The author takes account of cultural clashes, religions with only local significance were transformed into the major ‘world religions’ known as Judaism, Christianity, Islam and Buddhism. Moving further, the author shows us how the two centuries between the Enlightenment and the Renaissance served as the primary catalyst for globalization. The commercial explorations of Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, France and England ultimately resulted in establishing colonial governments in foreign lands. The religious warfare within Europe ultimately led to the Westphalian states system, the sovereign, territorial nation-state. However, as the early modern period drew to a close, interdependencies among nation-states were multiplying as well as increasing in density. The modern period (1750-1970), as the author puts the limit, saw capitalism at its full play, the rise of communism, two World Wars. It also saw the rise of MNCs and evangelism. The author points out that the railways, mechanized shipping and the twentieth-century intercontinental air transport managed to overcome the last remaining geographical obstacles to the establishment of a genuine global infrastructure. The author comes to contemporary period — 1970 onwards, in which the dramatic creation, expansion and acceleration of worldwide interdependencies and global exchanges that occurred, represent yet another quantum leap in the history of globalization. The author takes a review of first two chapters when he says that “globalization is not a single process but a set of processes that operate simultaneously and unevenly on several levels and in various dimensions. He then proceeds to identify, explore, and assess patterns of globalization in each of its main domains- economic, political, cultural, ecological and ideological as these domains interact within the whole.

The third chapter of the book is on the economic dimension of globalization, which the author describes as ‘the intensification and stretching of economic interrelations across the globe’. The author traces the gradual emergence of new international economic order to the economic conference, which came to be known as Bretton Woods conference. The Conference paved the way for many salutary changes like reversal of the high tariffs on imported goods, arrived at a firm commitment to expand international trade, and resolved to create a more stable money exchange system in which each country’s currency was pegged to a fixed gold value of the US dollar. This was followed by setting up of three international economic organizations namely, the International Monetary Fund, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development- now the World Bank and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), whose present form is World Trade Organization (WTO). The decade of 1980s saw internationalization of trade which went hand in hand with liberalization of financial transactions.
The process of globalization received shot in the arm with the new satellite systems and fibre-optic cables, the nervous system of Internet-based technologies that further accelerated the globalization. The rise of transnational companies rivaled the nation-states in their economic power. Concluding this chapter, the author rightly points out that “the multidimensional nature of globalization demands that we flesh out in more detail the interaction between its political and economic aspects.”

In the fourth chapter the author describes political globalization as the intensification and expansion of political interrelations across the globe. As globalization tendencies grew stronger during and after 1970s, it became clear that the international society of separate states was rapidly turning into a global web of political interdependencies that challenged the sovereignty of nation-states. After mentioning the argument between hyperglobalizers, and their critics, the author feels that we ought to acknowledge the decline of nation-state as a sovereign entity and the ensuing devolution of state power to regional and local governments as to various super-national institutions, *viz.*, the UN, NATO, WTO, OECD and global civil society like Amnesty International, Greenpeace *etc.* While the author presents views of commentators for and against this debate, he does not take a final view.

Realizing that the thematic landscape traversed by scholars of cultural globalization is vast and the questions they raise are too numerous, in the fifth chapter, the author focuses on three important themes, *viz.*, the tension between sameness and difference in the emerging global culture, the crucial role of transnational media corporations in disseminating popular culture and the globalization of languages. McDonaldisation and the like are rivaling the local eating habits. The author rightly points out that hardly any society in the world today possesses an ‘authentic’ self-contained culture. As for rise of English language the author says that today more than 80 per cent of the content posted on the Internet is in English and half of the world’s growing population of foreign students is enrolled at institutions in Anglo-American countries.

The ecological impacts of globalization are increasingly recognized as the most significant and potentially life threatening for the world as we have inherited it from our ancestors, says the author in the beginning of the sixth chapter. Over consumption and population growth are fast depleting the resources of the mother earth. The author dwells on the climate change in good details and bemoans that human-made environmental degradation has emerged as both a powerful cause and effect of globalization.

Coming to the ideological dimension of globalization in the seventh chapter the author shows a distinction between globalization, which is a set of social process of intensifying global interdependencies and globalisms, which comprises ideologies that endow the concept of globalization with particular values and meanings. These are: Market globalism seeks to endow globalization with free-market norms and neoliberal meanings. Contesting market globalism from the political Left, justice globalism constructs an alternative vision of globalization based on egalitarian ideals of global solidarity and distributive justice. From the political Right, jihadist globalism struggles against both market globalism and justice globalism, as it seeks to mobilize the global umma (Muslim community
of believers) in defence of allegedly Islamic values and beliefs that are thought to be under severe attack by the forces secularism and consumerism.

Chapter 8 assesses future of globalization. To quote: “In the long run, the growth of global inequality and the persistence of social instability harbours the potential to unleash reactionary forces that dwarf even those responsible for the suffering of millions during the 1930s and 1940s. Indeed, as recent developments have shown, globalization’s very survival will depend on humanity’s ability to tackle the three major global issues confronting us in the twenty first century: global climate change, increasing income inequality, and escalating political and social violence. In order to prevent a further escalation of the violent confrontation between market globalism and its ideological opponents, world leaders must design and implement a comprehensive Global New Deal that builds and extends genuine networks of solidarity around the world.” The author strikes a chord with the reader and with any progressive looking and right thinking person, when he concludes that there is nothing wrong with greater manifestations of social interdependencies that emerge as a result of globalization. However, these transformative social processes must have a moral compass and an ethical polestar that guide our collective efforts; the building of a truly democratic and egalitarian global order that protects universal human rights without destroying the cultural diversity that is the lifeblood of human evolution.
Our Contributors

- Rahul Singla  
  Mr. Rahul Singla is Assistant Professor, Lovely Professional University, Phagwara.

- S. K. Kataria  
  Mr. S.K. Kataria is Professor, Department of Public Administration, UCSSH, Sukhadia University, Udaipur, Rajasthan.

- V. Pardha Saradhi  
  Dr. V. Pardha Saradhi is Assistant Professor, School of Management Studies, Sreenidhi Institute of Science and Technology, Yamnampet, Ghatkesar, Hyderabad, Telangana - 501301

- R. Mathaiyan  
  Dr. R. Mathaiyan is Associate Professor, Department of Public Administration, IDE, University of Madras, Chennai - 600 005, Tamil Nadu.

- Samson Obamwonyi  
  Mr. Samon Obamwonyi is Faculty of Law, Dean’s Office, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria.

- Stanley Aibieyi  
  Dr. Stanley Aibieyi, is Associate Professor, Institute of Public Administration and Extension Services, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria.

- Ramaiah Bheenaveni  
  Dr. Ramaiah Bheenaveni is Assistant Professor, Department of Sociology Osmania University, Hyderabad.

Contd...
Jos Chathukulam
Dr. Jos Chathukulam is Director, Centre for Rural Management, Perumpaikadu PO, Kottayam, Kerala - 686 028.

Vijaykumar N. Torgal
Dr. Vijaykumar N Torgal is Special Secretary to Governor, Governor's Secretariat, Raj Bhavan, Bangalore, Karnataka, placed at # C-104, 6th Cross, P.W.D. Quarters, Vasanth Nagar, Bangalore 560 052, Karnataka.

J. S. Apte
Mr. J. S. Apte, formerly with Family Planning Association of India (1970-1990) as a field Programme Officer, Director, (Training) and Director (Branch Management), is currently a freelance writer on socio economic development. He is placed at 8 B, 3rd Lane, 3rd House, Ashwini Housing Society, Shivaji Nagar, Pune - 411005, Maharashtra.

F. B. Khan
Mr. F. B. Khan is Executive, Urban Cell of All India Institute of Local Self-Government, Mumbai, Maharashtra.
OBJECTIVES

The main emphasis of the Institute’s work is to see that the local bodies can contribute more effectively to the development process and provide the citizens with better living conditions by meeting their aspirations in terms of required amenities, infrastructure and better environmental conditions, thus contributing to social and economic development of the society as a whole by better management of the human settlements. While these are the long-term objectives, the immediate ones are:

- To advance knowledge of the principles and practices of Local Government by conducting research and by organising training courses and programmes at various centres in India for officials and elected representatives in the local bodies.
- To strengthen and improve Local Government Institutions by improving their performance through education, orientation training and bringing them together for common endeavor by organising specialised conferences, conventions and seminars.
- To make available a platform for members of local bodies and officials for exchange of views and ideas related to urban development and administration.
- To represent the views of local authorities supported by research work to the concerned higher authorities from time to time.
- To publish bibliographies, articles, books and other literature on matters of interest to local bodies.
- To publish journals, bulletins and other literature on different aspects of Local Government and on the working of Local bodies in different states.
- To undertake research studies in public administration, problems of local bodies and also in related topics of urban and environmental factors and arrange for their publication etc.
- To establish and maintain an information-cum-documentation service for local bodies.
- To undertake consultancy assignment in various areas of urban development and problems of local bodies with view to improve and develop organisational, managerial and operational efficiency.

In view of above, the Institute has been collaborating with the relevant government departments, Central and State, Universities, Organisations and Research Institutions. The work of the Institute covers several aspects involving a multi-disciplinary teamwork.