



# Local Government Quarterly

October - December 2017

*A Journal of the*  
***All India Institute of Local Self-Government***

*Brought out by its*  
***International Academy of Urban Dynamics***



- ★ Urbanism and Ruralism: A Strategic Counterbalance Configuration Sin-Qua-Non for the Development of Third World Countries
- ★ Is the Silver Jubilee of the Constitutional Status to local government in India worth celebrating?
- ★ Panchayati Raj Institutions: Rural Local Self-Government in India
- ★ Management of Drinking Water Service by Rural Local Governments: A Study of Selected Grama Panchayats in Karnataka
- ★ People's Participation in Gram Sabha: A Comparative Study Between Panchayat and Village Committee, Tripura, India
- ★ Emerging Leadership in Local Governance: Case Study of Ratnagiri District

### **About All India Institute of Local Self-Government (AIILSG)**

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

The Institute has been the steadfast friend, philosopher and guide to Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) across the Country. For more than eight decades it has contributed to the principles and practice of urban governance, education, research and capacity building. It has designed and developed a vast array of training literature and courses and trained more than 1.5 million stakeholders in diverse areas of urban governance and urban services delivery.

These activities of the AIILSG are practiced through 30 regional centres located in different regions of the Country. The Institute anchors the Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES) of the Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India for Western India region. This Centre 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, and Dadra & Nagar Haveli by upgrading their knowledge and skills required for effective administration and implementation of various urban development programmes.

With a view to cater to the growing requirement of ULBs in regard to services, the AIILSG runs specialized capacity building institutions such as the National Fire Academy, the Nrupur Institute of Nursing Science and Research and the Centre for Environment & Disaster Management at Vadodara, PRUDA at Ahmedabad, National Resource Centre for Urban Poverty, International Centre of EQUI-T, the Disaster Management Cell and the Centre of GIS at Pune. It runs the Solid Waste Management Cell of the Government of Maharashtra. In recent years, AIILSG has ventured into rural and tribal capacity building and hand holding of rural institutions of self-governance.

In addition to the domestic activities, the Institute organises several tailor-made capacity building programmes for various countries in South Asia, viz, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka and in other regions, including South Africa, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Malaysia, China, etc. The Institute has linkages with renowned international organizations including UNCHS (Habitat), UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA, WHO, DFID, CITYNET, CLGF, US-AEP and the Ford Foundation. It is the anchor institution for Urban Management Programme (UMP-UNCHS-Habitat) for South Asia.

### **About International Academy of Urban Dynamics (IAUD)**

International Academy of Urban Dynamics (IAUD) has been conceptualized and set up at the AIILSG with a view to support countries and cities and their stakeholders in their decisions towards a bright urban future.

The Academy offers strategic contribution to urban vision, policy and planning across countries and cities through multi-level research, documentation, debate, advocacy and capacity-building. It aids the crafting of innovative solutions to urban challenges through sharing, networking, dissemination and advisory services.

The Organization has embraced certain values including a pervading quest for excellence, perpetual learning, and the sharing and interpretation of knowledge that is grounded in ethics and truth. IAUD would undertake non-partisan analysis and evaluation of situations, facts and figures and render advice that is non-adversarial in intent and positive in content with a view towards better alternatives.

## *Contents*

• Editorial	3
• <b>Urbanism and Ruralism: A Strategic Counterbalance Configuration Sin-Qua-Non for the Development of Third World Countries</b> Osaghae, Felix Sado Osayande	7
• <b>Is the Silver Jubilee of the Constitutional Status to local government in India worth celebrating?</b> Jairaj Phatak	20
• <b>Panchayati Raj Institutions: Rural Local Self-Government in India</b> Moti Lal	33
• <b>Management of Drinking Water Service by Rural Local Governments: A Study of Selected Grama Panchayats in Karnataka</b> Basavarajeshwari K.	46
• <b>People's Participation in Gram Sabha: A Comparative Study Between Panchayat and Village Committee, Tripura, India</b> Purbita Gupta & Jayanta Choudhury	63
• <b>Emerging Leadership in Local Governance: Case Study of Ratnagiri District</b> Aruna Khamkar	75
• Book Review	92
• Our Contributors	97

**Local Government Quarterly**

Published by the

**All India Institute of Local Self-Government**



## **All India Institute of Local Self-Government**

M. N. Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No.6, 'F' Block,  
TPS Road No.12, Bandra (E), Mumbai – 400051.  
Tel : +91-22-2657 17 13 / 2657 17 14 / 6180 56 00 Fax : +91-22-2657 21 15  
E-mail : dg@aiilsg.org Website : www.aiilsg.org

**Ranjit S. Chavan**  
*President*

**Rajiv Agarwal (I.A.S. Retd.)**  
*Director General*

## **Local Government Quarterly**

### *Editorial Board*

**Chief Editor**  
**Rajiv Agarwal (I.A.S. Retd.)**

### *Members*

<b>Sneha Palnitkar</b>	<b>Mukesh Kanaskar</b>	<b>Ashish Deosthali</b>
<b>V. Vijaykumar</b>	<b>Vijay Kulkarni</b>	<b>Shweta Gupta</b>
<b>Shriniwas Indapurkar</b>	<b>Khatibullah Sheikh</b>	<b>UshaVerghese</b>

*The views expressed in the articles are the personal opinions of the contributors and do not necessarily reflect the opinion of the All India Institute of Local Self-Government. Articles, letters to the editor, views and reviews are welcome. They may be addressed to the Chief Editor, or sent by e-mail to [aiilsgquarterlyjournal@gmail.com](mailto:aiilsgquarterlyjournal@gmail.com) or [info.algq@gmail.com](mailto:info.algq@gmail.com)*

*Printed by Rajiv Agarwal (I.A.S. Retd.), The Director General, All India Institute of Local Self-Government, at Copytronics, Bandra (E), Mumbai - 400 051 and published by him at the All India Institute of Local Self-Government, 11, Horniman Circle, Mumbai - 400 023.*

---

## *Editorial*

### **Towards a sustainable, differently abled friendly world**

United Nations observes International Day of Persons with Disabilities on 3 December every year. The theme for 2017 was **“Transformation towards sustainable and resilient society for all”**. The UN resolved to observe this day every year through a General Assembly resolution in 1992.

“Leave no one behind” is an overarching motivation cutting across the Agenda 2030, New Urban Agenda, the Sendai Framework and other global and regional development agendas. While recognition of the special needs of less privileged and challenged populations is growing, the challenges pertaining to the differently abled persons were recognized several decades ago and their needs have been mainstreamed in most development plans across countries.

About 15 percent of the world population or over a billion people live with some sort of disability; and nearly 200 million of these face considerable obstacles in their day to day lives. One can expect the percentages to increase further as the world population becomes increasingly 'older' as is evidenced. Older persons succumb to disabilities faster as their physical and mental abilities diminish at a more rapid rate. There is a higher incidence of disability in lower income countries. Poor nutrition in childhood and later, inadequate access to healthcare facilities and discrimination are factors which could put poorer populations at greater risk. And to make matters worse, such disabled poor could get further marginalized economically and socially because they are not able to access proper education, leading to poor economic participation and thus lower incomes. Persons with disabilities usually have lower educational attainments, poorer health, diminished employment opportunities and are therefore less well off than others. In fact many face substantial challenges in day-to-day survival, especially so in the developing societies of the world.

---

## Technology and the Differently Abled

In today's world of rapid technological advances, we can expect several innovations which can come to the aid of the disabled and enable their effective participation and to realize their full potential. Stephen W Hawking a global icon of the challenged who has conquered his severe physical disability says in the Foreword to the WHO-World Bank **World Report on Disability** "I have benefitted from access to first class medical care. I rely on a team of personal assistants who make it possible for me to live and work in comfort and dignity. My house and my workplace have been made accessible for me. Computer experts have supported me with an assisted communication system and a speech synthesizer which allow me to compose lectures and papers, and to communicate with different audiences."

He acknowledges later in the same write-up that he has been 'very lucky' to have the means to be able to acquire such excellent support and aids to overcome his disability. Nonetheless, his example helps highlight the near limitless possibilities of the deployment of technology for the welfare of the disabled. Not all the disadvantaged would need to have all the performance abilities that Hawking has and would thus not need the whole spectrum of technological aids. At the same time we can expect continued innovation to drive down costs and drive up capabilities. All this augurs well for the large population afflicted with conditions which excludes them from accessing education, healthcare, rehabilitation and employment often threatening their very survival. The Draft Note of UN on the occasion observes 'In particular, access to and affordability of technologies is crucial for the inclusion and the leadership of persons with disabilities to contribute to *the transformation towards a sustainable and resilient society*, including in urban development, disaster risk reduction and humanitarian action'.

Governments, national and sub-national can address their needs by setting up specialized institutions with necessary resources and expertise to encourage and incubate new technologies, provide necessary funding and put in place a supportive tax regime. Civil society and the non-profit sector can help by bringing together specialists and imparting skills and training for the differently abled. For it is crucial that the specially abled are able to participate in the formal labour market and earn a livelihood in order to live with dignity and pride.

## Design of the Built Environment

In addition to technological aids, it is of paramount importance to ensure that the built environment presents a barrier free world to such special persons in their

---

endeavor to participate and live a near-normal life. The principle adopted by the United Nations states that “No part of the built environment should be designed in a manner that excludes certain groups of people on the basis of their disability or frailty”. Outdoor mobility, for example, presents a potentially severe obstacle and therefore, also an area where substantial interventions are called for. Design of streets using dropped kerbs, traffic signals which also have audio messages, and low floor buses are necessary for persons moving in wheelchairs, for those with vision impairment and for persons walking with the aid of crutches. These and several other measures like the design of staircases, switches, controls, elevators and washrooms in public buildings are potential areas of conflict with needs of specially abled persons. Design of refuge areas, emergency routes and fire escapes needs particular care.

Ron Mace, founder and program director of The Center for Universal Design, was an internationally recognized architect, product designer and educator. He coined the term "universal design" to describe the concept of designing all products and the built environment to be aesthetic and usable to the greatest extent possible by everyone, regardless of their age, ability, or status in life. He was also a devoted advocate for the rights of people with disabilities.

Elements of the universal design concept are in fact mandated in the development control regulations of several urban local bodies or are in the process of being done. However in terms of actual implementation, as we look around us, we find this principle often missing. Mandates remain on paper and compliance/enforcement is sparse and sporadic. Civil society and independent audit can help pinpoint areas of conflict/non-compliance and enable remedial action.

In India, The Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and full participation) Act, 1995 recognises the special needs and requires that equal opportunities are offered to persons with disabilities. Universal accessibility is critical for enabling them to gain access for equal opportunity and live independently and participate fully in all aspects of life in an inclusive society. The Act, in specific sections, categorically provides for non-discrimination in transport, on the road and in built environment.

### **Our Humble Contribution**

AIILSG activities with the differently abled populations are anchored at its “International Center for Differently Abled” (IC- Differently) under the aegis of AIILSG's International Center of EQUI-T (ICEQUI-T). It has the Vision of

---

'Enabling Appreciation & Inclusion of Diversity in Abilities' with a positive expression of the rainbow of abilities each human being possesses, irrespective of the kind of disability.

IC Differently enables special focus on the differently abled in its field action areas for the empowerment of such persons. Moreover, an important task undertaken by 'IC- Differently' is addressing the acute shortage of eye balls for the blind. 'IC- Differently' has been undertaking “Maha Netraadaan Abhiyaan” (a mega eye donation pledge drive) in collaboration with other stakeholders. This drive has till date enabled more than 18,000 pledges for eye donation across Maharashtra and linked them with the nearby relevant medical facilities.



---

## **Urbanism and Ruralism: A Strategic Counterbalance Configuration Sin-Qua-Non for the Development of Third World Countries**

**Osaghae, Felix Sado Osayande**

### **Introduction**

The development of rural and urban areas worldwide reflects the way the society has evolved over the past centuries. Hence the structure and nature of villages, towns and cities, the architectural designs and layouts depict the culture and history of the early settlers and how they managed to overcome the environmental challenges that existed in their time. Tremlett (1979) observed that many of the people (urban and rural dwellers) are living each day with the problems associated with city and village life without pausing to think about the way these problems develop or when, how and where they had their origin.

As opposed to the western world, the history of rural and urban planning in most third world countries can be traced to the activities desired and standards applied by the colonial masters in most towns to ensure their well-being during their rule. The

planners had limited knowledge of the area and could not easily project into the future. Odumosu and Fagbohun (2010) averred that urbanization as noticed today is the product of sustained concentric planning principles applied by the early planners to the extent that development, provision of amenities and other life-supporting facilities were concentrated in few towns that gradually metamorphosed into urban cities while the rural villages remained underdeveloped even till today.

Contrarily in most developed countries, Denhardt, Denhardt and Blanc (2014) stated that rural areas called counties were once considered an unexplored area of local government; counties are emerging as important actors in the modern governmental system. According to him, counties have traditionally provided a range of services in behalf of state government, a role that has expanded considerably in the last decades. In addition, he expatiates that

---

countries have recently assumed a wide range of new services (such as mass transit, mental health, waste disposal and police services) that for one reason or another are commensurate with the services offered by municipal or urban government (Denhardt) Denhardt and Blanc, 2014:46).

Against this backdrop, the paper examined the reasons behind the development and underdevelopment of urban and rural areas respectively in third world countries with a view to finding how government can possibly bridge such gulf by developing both simultaneously to atleast mitigate the incidence of rural – urban migration (Aniefiok, 2014:252 - 263).

### **Conceptual Analysis**

The terms Urban, Urbanism and Urbanization as well as rural and ruralism are used to convey the same meaning respectively. They shall therefore be used interchangeably in this paper.

Iwena (2012) defines Urbanization as the growth of towns, especially in terms of human population and physical size. In other words, according to him, it means a change in the functions of a settlement from rural character to an urban character. For Blache (2008), Urban represents a social organization, a seat of administration, institutions of various functions and a symbol of culture (quoted in Verma, 2008:25).

According to Johnston (1983), Urbanization is discernible in three ways. First, “it is a demographic phenomenon, in which an increasing proportion of the people is concentrated in an area. Second, it is a social and economic phenomenon inherent in capitalist industrialization as the areas facilitate linked production, distribution and exchange processes and Third, as a behavioural phenomenon, in which the areas act as centres of social change” (Nnamdi, 2012:3 – 5).

Gallion and Eisner (2005) also conceptualize urbanization in three ways. First, as “the confederation or union of neighboring clans resorting to a center used as a common meeting place for worship, protection and the like. Second, as a composite of cells, neighborhoods, or communities where people work together for the common good; and third, as those locations where there is opportunity for a diversified living environment and diverse life-styles”.

Urbanization is conceptualized by the United Nations as movement of people from rural to urban areas with population growth equating to urban migration (Heinke, 2005:21). The United Nations projected that half of the world's population would live in urban areas in the very near future.

Heinke (2005) posits that various definitions of urbanism resulted from historical, cultural and administrative

---

differences among nations. This in his words makes it difficult to come up with a single universally acceptable definition. Some countries according to him, define urbanism in terms of population density of an area. For instance, an area with a population of 400 constitutes an urban area in Albania and 50,000 is the minimum requirement for an urban status in Japan. While in Sweden, urbanism is based on density of built-up area with less than 200 meters between houses. In India, the areas with population density of not less than 1000 persons per square kilometer where at least three – fourth of the male adult population are engaged in non-agricultural work is regarded as urban area (ref).

Heinke (2005) also explained that some countries determine urbanism on the basis of some characteristics such as the number of recreational facilities, schools, availability of sewer, electricity, potable water supply and good road network. According to him, a population of 20,000 or more is often used to determine urbanism in most developing countries like Nigeria (Abumere, 2002).

Despite the various and varied characteristics be it demographic, socio – economic or otherwise that constitute the basic criteria of urbanism in different countries, the seemingly common ground is that urbanism refers

to the concentration of people in a particular area where their means of subsistence is dependent on white-collar jobs or non-agricultural ones.

### **Ruralism**

On the other hand, Olujimi (2011) conceptualizes ruralism as the area of any country with extensive land uses for agriculture and forestry and settlements with non-urban environment. According to him, what is regarded as rural in developed countries may well be referred to as urban in most developing countries in view of the level of infra structural facilities available in them. In this context, ruralism cannot be defined in isolation of urbanism.

In other words, Olujimi (2011) also defines ruralism as a settlement with less than 20,000 persons whose population is largely homogenous and predominantly engaged in primary production. As explained by Olujimi (2011), it is commonplace in contemporary period to use occupation, population and infrastructure as well as community size, density and heterogeneity as determinants of ruralism or urbanism. Obviously from this premise, rural settlements are characterized with the dearth of adequate infra structural facilities thus making subsistence in the area very miserable a predisposing factor to rural – urban migration.

---

For Iwena (2012), ruralism refers to a relatively small area with socially homogenous people that know one another very well. According to him, “it could be nucleated, dispersed or linear; they have people with the same cultural background and language; they are normally made up of few buildings with people ranging from one family to few hundreds; they have few social amenities and the lifestyle is simple and quiet; and they are normally involved in primary activities such as farming, fishing and lumbering.

From these definitions, it is obvious that ruralism represents a small geographical space which is remote or isolated with few people whose means of subsistence is not dependent on white collar jobs but agricultural activities such as farming, fishing and lumbering.

#### **Types of Ruralism/Urbanism**

Ruralism and Urbanism can be classified majorly in terms of size and the number of people per unit area. The smallest area in terms of size and number of people is rural while the largest is urban. Examples of ruralism are: (1) Homestead – This is a one family residence with buildings far from each other. It has few people with little or no opportunity for social gathering. (2) Hamlet – This contains two or three houses with a dearth of basic and social amenities. This area is

nucleated and usually contains less than a hundred people and, (3) Village – This contains several thousand people with some form of commercial activities. It is formed from the combination of several hamlets.

While examples of urbanism are: (1) City – This has a great number of heterogeneous population. It is usually 5,000 or more. But this determinant by number of population varies from one country to another. It has well developed infrastructure and well planned lay-outs. (2) Conurbation – This refers to two or more cities which have grown to merge with one another and, (3) Megalopolis – This is an area with a greater number of population. It is a combination of big cities linked by communication network (Iwena, 2012).

#### **Factors Responsible for Urbanism and Ruralism**

Olujimi (2011) states that what is regarded as rural in the developed countries may well be referred to as urban in most third world countries considering the level of infra structural facilities available in them. In this context, ruralism cannot be defined in isolation of urbanism. According to him, both of them represent a geographical space in which emigration and large scale exodus from villages to cities bring about the metamorphosis of ruralism to

---

urbanism. Therefore the factors responsible for urbanism are the reasons why people relocate from their small areas to big areas. These can be summarized as: 1. Accessibility – People are likely to relocate to areas that are easily accessible by roads, rail, etc. and these tend to increase the growth of such areas. 2. Economic activities – People tend to settle in areas where economic activities such as trading, farming, fishing and mining take place so as to get jobs in such areas. 3. Administration – People also settle in places which are seats of government as social amenities and other facilities are often provided in such areas. 4. Availability of social amenities – Many people tend to settle in areas where social amenities such as pipe borne water and electricity are available and these tend to increase the growth of the urban area in question. 5. Nature of soils – Fertile soils tend to attract people for intensive agricultural activities, hence the growth of such area. The soil must also be well drained for human habitation. 6. Absence of disaster – Absence of both natural and man-made disasters in a place tends to attract people to such areas resulting in growth of urbanism, and 7. Climate – Favourable climate also tends to attract people to an area which equally leads to the growth of urbanism.

On the other hand, ruralism is characterized by the reverse of the factors responsible for urbanism. They

are: Inaccessibility, poor economic activities, dearth of seats of administration and unavailability of social amenities. Others are low crime rate, lack of human and traffic congestion. But the fundamental factor responsible for ruralism is a natal home to all human beings except those that were born and bred in cities. In his words, native home “is connected with the place where you were born and lived for the first years of your life”. This is why majority of the people who live in the rural areas are adolescents between the ages of 13 and 18 and senior citizens usually from 60 and above. The major reason for this development is that adolescents are under the tutelage of their parents and their movements are therefore restricted to the home. While the senior citizens felt they have outlined their youthful enthusiasm and cannot cope with the hardship and rigour characteristic of urban areas.

### **Mixed Blessings of Urbanism and Ruralism**

Iwena (2012) explains that the blessings inherent in urbanism and ruralism depend on their size and complexity. As he puts it, with urbanism and its largeness, it is able to house over 2000 heterogeneous people who engage in different activities. Urbanism has well-developed infrastructure such as pipeborne water, electricity, hospitals and good roads. And social cultural

---

establishments like universities, polytechnics, churches, mosques and hotels. Most urban centres are well planned layouts and seats of both local and state government headquarters. They are beehive of industry and manufacturing as well as commercial activities.

But as a result of the high influx of people into urban areas, there is increased demand for goods and services as well as social amenities. Moreover, high concentration of people leads to housing and traffic congestion and tends to lead to land fragmentation which reduces the size of farmlands and brings about low yield. Also, the areas of high population usually do not have enough jobs for ever increasing influx of people into such areas. This leads to unemployment, high cost of living and increased social vices like armed robbery, kidnapping, hired assassins, car snatching and drugs trafficking.

In case of ruralism, it is a sizeable area which houses less than 2000 homogeneous people who perform primary activities like farming, lumbering and fishing. There are few commercial activities, mostly in petty trading, using their small shops and local markets. And majority of the rural dwellers though few, are engaged in one activity or the other and thus the cost of living and crime rate are very low. Further, rural area is noiseless,

devoid of hustle and bustle of city life and there is dearth of traffic and housing congestion thus nothing much to cause pollution in the environment.

However due to migration of rural dwellers to urban areas, more commonly among the youths in search of white collar jobs, the area is depopulated. This leads to loss of farm labourers and low agricultural production. Also, the area is without planned layouts; life is drab and dull due to the dearth of social and infra structural facilities as well as recreation centres (Iwena, 2012:198–204).

Obviously, ruralism is the opposite of urbanism. Facilities, whatever present are larger in the latter and less or absent in the former. Hence one can undoubtedly say that urbanism and ruralism receive mixed blessings.

### **Symbiotic Relationships Between Urbanism and Ruralism**

Urbanism and ruralism are interdependent. They depend on each other for their continuous existence. Urbanism relies on the rural areas for it to function smoothly. First, it depends on rural areas for foodstuffs. Second, urban areas get unskilled labour from rural areas for their growing industries. Third, medicinal herbs and roots are usually brought from rural to urban areas for use by individuals and pharmaceutical companies, and fourth, raw materials like cocoa, rubber,

---

cotton and cassava for use in the industries are supplied from rural areas to the industries in the urban areas.

As for ruralism, its dwellers depend on urban areas for their effective means of subsistence. For instance, manufactured finished goods like milk, sugar and bread usually come from urban to rural areas; urbanism provides markets for agricultural products from rural areas; ruralism depends on urban areas for employment in offices and industries as well as for higher education in universities, polytechnics, etc. Information usually flows from urban to rural areas. The mass media of communication such as radio, television and newspapers usually disseminate information from urban to rural areas. Rural areas depend on urban centres for their medical services for complicated ailments as teaching and specialist hospitals are located in urban areas; and most of the administrative headquarters are in the urban areas which house banks, employment centres and recreational facilities like the zoo, library and hotels. It thus means that rural areas therefore depend on urban areas for effective governance as capital flows from the latter to the former (Iwena, 2012:204–205).

However according to Iwena (2012), problems which may limit the performance of the above functions by

rural areas include rural – urban migration, higher educational attainment by the rural dwellers, the dearth of agricultural lands for farming and natural disasters like soil erosion and flooding. The problems which may limit the performance of the above functions by urban centres include inadequate communication facilities between urban and rural areas, storage problems due to seasonality of products, political discrimination due to different voting patterns for different administrative centres and inadequate jobs in the urban centres. Others are inadequate machinery for processing raw materials and non-availability or high cost of spare parts for the processing of machineries.

From the foregoing, it is obvious that urbanism and ruralism are interdependent. No matter how small the benefits the latter attracts from the former, their symbiotic relationships ensures the happiness and well-being of the people as well as effective governance in both rural and urban areas.

### **Counterbalancing Strategies**

There are various and varied strategic ways urbanism and ruralism can be counterbalanced to ensure a balanced development in the developing countries. Since what obtains in large quantity in urbanism is in less quantity in ruralism, it there fore



---

means that efforts can be made to offset developments in one for the other. To achieve this, the following but not limited to these strategies can be considered:

**1. Administrative Headquarters:**

Urban areas as posited by Iwena (2012) are usually the seats of administrative headquarters where government establishments and agencies are cited. Federal and state ministries are located in the Federal capital territory and states capital cities respectively. Perhaps, to strive for a balance, administrative headquarters and government ministries especially Ministry of Agriculture should be cited in the rural areas. This thus will create job opportunities for rural dwellers and may reduce rural – urban migration.

**2. Economic Diversification:**

The major and only economic activity in the rural areas is farming. In most cases, the rural farmers engage in farming mainly for subsistence. There is therefore need to diversify the rural economy. Farmers in the third world countries establish farms solely for the cultivation of crops while neglecting or are lacking knowledge of other types of farming. Farmers should be encouraged to embark on not only food but animal farming such as pig farming, poultry farming, cow farming, goat/sheep farming and snail farming on a large

and commercial scale. This will undoubtedly keep rural youths actively engaged and may not be nursing the idea of migrating to the urban areas in search of job opportunities.

**3. Relocation of Industries:**

Industries are usually concentrated in urban centres in developing countries. Government can consciously locate industries in rural areas. Cotton/wool factory, rubber factory and storage facilities can be created in rural areas. If farmers have access to proper storage facilities for their crops, the fear that they will be rotten and therefore the urge to dispose them quickly to avoid decaying will not arise. The farmers will then be at liberty to sell their goods at a time they will make maximum profit instead of disposing their crops at cheap rate out of fear of crop decay. Importantly, if farmers can thus earn good livelihood in their locality, the quest of job opportunities in urban areas will be reduced.

**4. Educational Institutions:**

Government can establish educational and social institutions in the rural areas. These may be colleges, polytechnics and universities. Individuals could also be encouraged to establish facilities especially recreation, hospital and nursing centres. With this, the rural youths will



---

avail themselves of the emerging opportunity to attend colleges and universities in their locality and thus discourage migration to cities for educational attainment and medical treatment.

#### **5. Infra structural Development:**

As a corollary to the above point, the government should provide, increase and improve (as the case may be) rural infrastructure – physical, social and institutional. This will include proper planning, layout and construction of rural roads, pipe borne water, electricity, hotels, event centres, etc. in order to make life comfortable. When rural dwellers enjoy social and recreational facilities similar to urban dwellers, the quest of rural – urban migration would reduce.

#### **6. Market Towns:**

Some towns or big villages should be designated as market towns. Lele (1995) posits that market towns are essential to the commercialization of agriculture and the dispersion of urban services and facilities. According to him, where they have been fully developed, they provide institutions for the collection, exchange and distribution of agricultural products and contain storage, basic processing and transportation facilities to ship products to larger urban markets. Also, a market town apart from serving as a growth centre, enables every farmer

access to markets where farm produce can be sold for cash without the danger of monopolistic exploitation and where there are enough sellers and buyers of farm supplies to prevent monopoly. As the number of trading and service industries grow in one locality, there is a strong probability that total demand for all services and products will grow and that the market's service area will expand (Rondinelli and Ruddle, 1978:59).

#### **7. Marketing Boards:**

The government can establish marketing boards in selective centres across rural areas. This can be done directly and indirectly. The latter according to Morton (2017) is when the government encourages a group of producers to come together with the aim of marketing their produce and increasing its consumption for prices to reach optimal level, that the group can be considered a marketing board. While the former he expatiated is when a government establishes an organization with the responsibility of putting down structures to regulate the purchase and sale of produce. In a nutshell, the functions of marketing boards are:

- mobilizing or raising money;
- buying and selling of produce;
- grading the produce;
- conducting research;
- finding good prices for products;
- providing inputs; and
- funding infra structural projects.

---

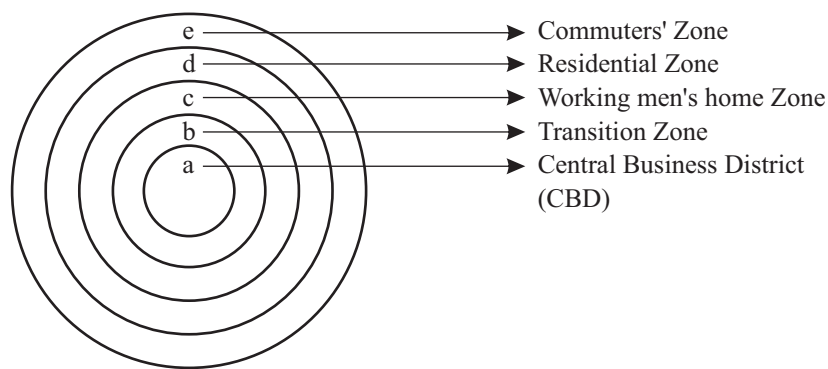
However, the contention among scholars is that marketing boards failed to realize their objectives when they were established by the colonial powers after the Second World War in their territories such as Nigeria and Ghana to mention but two. Perhaps, the failure was attributable to the interest of the colonial masters which instead of ploughing the profits back for the development of the rural communities used it to develop other countries or repatriated such funds to their home country. If they are established now by different independent developing countries, it will be a success story in restricting rural-urban migration.

#### **Theoretical Framework**

There are various and varied theories for urban and rural planning and management. But the discussion shall be limited to only concentric theory.

#### **Concentric Theory:**

Aniefiok (2014) posits that this is a theory of urban – rural planning that deals with urban structure or land use. It was popularized by Ernest W. Burgess from 1920. The theory explains that town tends to expand outward from the inner core (centre). This gives way for gradual growth and development into other zones. According to Aniefiok (2014), it is a theory of urban land use in which cities develop in rings around a core of business activity and where outer rings are higher in class than the inner rings. As the city continues to expand, a series of rings is formed around the core. Burgess identified the rings from the central point to outer as, a - the central business district (CBD), b - a zone of transition, c - a zone of working men's home, d - a residential area, e - commuters' zone.



---

### **Burgess Concentric Model**

In the concentric model, the CBD is the centre for commercial, social and cultural life of the city. It houses many urban facilities and amenities like offices, banks and hotels.

The transitional zone encircles the CBD and it contains residential areas with other structures including factories with little or no infrastructure. It is mostly occupied by low income earners who service the CBD. The working men's homezone results out of need to find abode in new areas with less pollution like the rural areas.

The residential zone is characterized by better residential structures in well-planned layouts and higher class apartment while the commuter zone lies beyond the built – up area city suburbs, villages and even virgin forest land, which are often referred to as suburban.

Obviously, urban area develops from the interior to the exterior, except industrial city or capital city like Abuja Capital City in Nigeria that was planned, constructed and built. This means that villages gradually transform and metamorphose into cities. Unfortunately, against the backdrop of equitable and dispassionate development, the government's planning and management are concentrated on building and renewing the cities while neglecting the villages, thus indirectly encouraging rural –

urban drift. As a counterbalance strategy, the government can embark on development from the exterior (urban) and simultaneously do the same from the interior (rural) towards achieving integrated rural – urban development.

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

The terms urban, urbanism and urbanization as well as rural and ruralism were used interchangeably in this paper. It conceptualized urbanism and ruralism as a concentration of people in a particular geographical area with the latter small, undeveloped and dependent on agricultural activities such as farming, fishing, and lumbering; and the former, large, developed and dependent on white collar jobs. Paradoxically, the paper revealed that the factors responsible for urban development are responsible for rural underdevelopment. This tended to create a wide gulf between urbanism and ruralism in relation to development thereby encouraging and enhancing exodus of people from the latter to the former. Obviously, this accounts for the drab and dull life inherent in the rural area which thus makes its dwellers seek greener pastures in urban areas.

However, to quell this trend in order to counterbalance the development inherent in urbanism with ruralism, the paper recommended that government should embark *inter alia* upon:

- 
1. de-concentration of government policies on urbanism;
  2. removal of all bottlenecks in the constitutional provisions on ruralism and urbanism;
  3. establishment of Ministry of Urban and Rural Development;
  4. tax exemption for factories willing to locate or relocate to rural areas;
  5. increased and improved infrastructure for rural areas;
  6. encouragement of schools (primary to tertiary) in both rural and urban areas to embark on farming;
  7. vigorous war against corruption (WAC);
  8. granting of autonomy to local councils like counties in most developed countries;
  9. rural renewal for the purpose of persuading individuals to come and live in such areas; and
  10. promotion of good governance of the planning process to achieving balanced development of human settlements urbanism and ruralism alike as right of the people (Anefiok, 2014:289).

On the whole, it is visible that the governments' planning, management and renewal policies in the third world countries are centred around urban areas. Yet there is not much evidence to justify the huge investment. As Mandela rightly observed that third world countries are the only ones where urbanization is associated with negative economic growth. Perhaps, if the government can adopt the aforementioned antidotes especially combat corruption and ensure a dispassionate spread of infra structural facilities and industries in urban and rural areas in an effort to strive towards achieving balanced development, rural – urban migration will abate. Then the third world countries will be in a position to reap the benefits of positive economic growth characteristic of development both from interior (rural) and exterior (urban) and thus demystify the western philosophies inherent in integrated rural – urban development.

#### References

1. Abumere, S. (2002). Urbanization, in: J.A. Les (Ed) Africa Atlases: Nigeria, France: Aux Edition du Jaguar, In: Anefiok, M. (2014), (Course Writer/Developer). Urban Planning Management, Abuja: National University Press.
2. Denhardt, R.B, Denhardt, J.V. and Blanc, T.A. (2014). Public

- 
- Administration: An Action Orientation, International Edition, Wardsworth: Cengage Learning.
3. Gallion, A.B. and Eisner, S. (2005). The Urban Pattern: City Planning and Design, Fifth Edition, Daryaganj: CBS Publishers & Distributors. Pvt Ltd.
  4. Heinke, G.W. (2005). Causes of Environmental Problems, In: J.G. Henry & G.W. Heinke, Environmental Science and Engineering, 2nd Edition, New Delhi: Prentice – Hall of India Private Ltd.
  5. Heinke, G.W. (2005). Population and Economic Growth, In: J.G. Henry & G.W. Heinke, Environmental Science and Engineering, 2nd Edition, New Delhi: Prentice – Hall of India Private Ltd.
  6. Hornby, A.S. (2005) Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
  7. Iwena, O.A. (2012). Essential Geography for Senior Secondary Schools, Lagos: Tonad Publishers Limited.
  8. Lele, U. (1995). The Design of Rural Development: Lessons from Africa, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
  9. Mandela, N. quoted in Anefiok, M. (2014). (course writer/developer) Urban Planning Management, Abuja: National Open University Press.
  10. Nnamdi, H.S. (2012). Issues in Urban and Rural Development, Lagos: Rally Height Publishing.
  11. Odumosu, T. & Fagbohun, P.O. (2010). Conceptual Predis-position of Development Control in Nigeria, In: K.D. Aledare, J.O. Okesoto & J.O. Oke (Eds). Urbanization, Housing and Environment, Lagos: Tony Terry Prints.
  12. Olujimi, J.A.B. (2011). From Rural to Urban: The Nigerian Physical Planning Dilemma – being text of the Inaugural Lecture Delivered at the Federal University of Technology, Akure: FUTA
  13. Rondinelli, A. D. and Ruddle, K. (1978). Urbanization and Rural Development: A Spatial Policy for Equitable Growth, New York: Prayer Publishers.
  14. Tremlett, G. (1979). Living Cities, London: Maurice Temple Smith Limited, In: Anefiok, M. (2014). (Course Writer/Developer). Urban Planning Management, Abuja: National Open University Press.
  15. Verma, L.N. (2008). Urban Geography, Jaipur: Prem Rawat for Rawat Publications.
-

---

## Is the Silver Jubilee of the Constitutional Status to local government in India worth celebrating?

Jairaj Phatak

**(Paper presented by the author at a National Conference on the subject on 2nd & 3rd November 2017)**

*It was twenty-five years back that the Government of India enacted the Seventy-third and Seventy-fourth Amendments to the Constitution. Maharashtra's State Election Commissioner, Shri J.S. Saharia took the first initiative to organize a National Conference on the subject at Mumbai on the 2nd and 3rd November 2017, through the State Election Commission's wing, the Institute of Democracy, Election and Good Governance. The Conference was supported by the Government of Maharashtra and it was hosted by the University of Mumbai and the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Pune.*

The Seventy-third and Seventy-fourth Amendments to the Constitution of India that conferred constitutional status on the local bodies in India, were

finally passed in December 1992. According to G. Palanithurai of Gandhigram Rural University, Late Shri Rajiv Gandhi had made it clear that to feel the importance and implications of decentralization of powers, one has to wait for at least twenty-five years, because it is not a scheme to achieve the target within the target period; it is a transformative process. Now, 2017 is the Silver Jubilee Year of these amendments. This is a milestone to look back on the achievements of democratic devolution in India both in the urban and rural sectors. We need to introspect whether conferral of Constitutional Status to the local bodies has made any difference to them or to the welfare of the common man!

In India, democracy is well-nurtured and can be said to have become a huge tree. Democracy's advantages far outweigh its disadvantages. Democracy is good for the citizens' happiness and also for redressal of their grievances.

---

However, in a giant country like India, it is obvious that the National and the State governments are often far away from the citizens and their day-to-day grievances can be best addressed at levels that are close to the common man. India has around 600,000 revenue villages, each with a separate set of land records and a separate village map. In addition, there are 1.7 million smaller habitations located somewhat away from the main village site but within the village area. Even among the 29 states and seven Union Territories of India there is enormous diversity. The most populous state of Uttar Pradesh has almost one lakh villages while Goa has only about 350 villages. The largest district, North 24 Parganas in West Bengal has a population of about one crore while the smallest, Dibang Valley, Arunachal Pradesh, has only 8000 people. Area-wise, Kutch district in Gujarat is more than 45000 sq. km while Mahe district in Puducherry is only 9 sq. km. The state government in a small state is close to its citizens while the one in the large state is away from the citizens. Stigler's menu (1957) prescribes that closer a representative government is to the people, the better it works. Devolution to the lower tier of bodies becomes necessary when the state is large. Moreover, since the geographic and environmental conditions differ so greatly from state to state, the extent of devolution will be different in each state.

With the conferral of Constitutional Status to the local bodies, India became the fifth country in the world to have put local government in the country's Constitution, after Germany, Japan, Brazil and Nigeria, two of them developed and two other developing countries. However, it is not that without the Constitutional status, local government was non-existent or weak all over India. After the Government of India Act, 1919, the Governors-in-council in the provinces had one member in charge of local self-government. When my Institute, now called the All India Institute of Local Self-government was formed in 1926 with the name Local self-government Institute of Bombay Presidency, Sir Ghulam Hussain Hidayatullah, the then Member Local Self-government, Government of Bombay, was its first President. Sindh was then part of Bombay Presidency and he was later succeeded by Shah Nawaz Bhutto, whose child and grandchild went on to become Prime Ministers of Pakistan, placing him on equal footing with Moti Lal and Jawahar Lal Nehru, on Indian side. Both the Village Panchayats and the municipalities in India have a long history. Jawahar Lal Nehru himself was President of Allahabad Municipality. However, in the pre-1992 period, state governments could be quite arbitrary in conferral of powers to local bodies and sometimes did not even hold elections to the local bodies when it did not suit them. Elections were not held to the



---

largest local body, the Municipal Corporation of Greater Mumbai in 1984 and it was put under an Administrator. The Constitutional Amendments have sought to remove this arbitrariness and brought some predictability to the local governance. However, the powers proposed to be devolved on local bodies are essentially from the state list. Thus, Government of India attempted to give powers to local bodies that they themselves did not have.

Prof. S. Guhan therefore argues that the Amendments strengthen administrative federalism in order to facilitate and encourage delegation of administrative and financial powers from the states to the local bodies. Their administrative powers and their responsibilities are entirely derived from the legislation that will have to be passed by the states. In other words, if the state governments do not pass the legislation, the local bodies neither get powers nor money. The local government bodies can be empowered only by the state governments/U. T. administrations who should agree to surrender some of their own functions, functionaries and finances to their lower level of separately elected units. Of course, the Central government can pass some finances directly to the local bodies but they cannot transfer functions and functionaries.

It can be easily understood why the state governments are reluctant to delegate. If the M.L.A.s consider the

Municipal councilors and the Zilla Parishad councilors to be their challengers, they would naturally not like to strengthen their future rivals, whether from the opposition or from their own party. It is believed that the much touted Mayor-in-Council in Mumbai was abolished because while the Chief Minister can choose the municipal commissioner of his choice, he cannot choose the Mayor.

Although in Maharashtra and Gujarat, M.P.s / M.L.A.s are not allowed to be members of local bodies, such is not the situation in all the states. In many states, M.P.s and M.L.A.s are ex-officio members of the local bodies, particularly Panchayats. Chaudhari (2003) feels that presence of M.P.s and MLAs in local bodies might overwhelm the local leaders. Even in Maharashtra, although Zilla Parishads and municipalities elect representatives on District Planning Committees, the M.P.s and M.L.A.s dominate these meetings.

Another major hindrance to devolution is that many state governments are themselves financially broke. When they are not financially strong, to expect them to devolve some of their own money on lower tiers is a chimera. Devolution of funds thus becomes something like a pocket money paid by parents to adult children. If the parents are themselves poor, they cannot be expected to pay pocket money to children.



---

### **Achievements of the Amendments**

The Constitutional Amendments have created two separate Constitutional Authorities at the state level, the State Election Commissioner and the State Finance Commission on the lines of the Central Election Commissioner and the Central Finance Commission to ensure regular elections and increased devolution of finances to the local bodies. The State Election Commissioners have often played an assertive role ensuring regular elections to the local bodies.

One major change that has come after the Amendments is their more representational character. Apart from horizontal reservation for different communities, the women's reservation has meant that the elected bodies mirror all the sections of the society. The presence of ladies has also brought more sobriety, civilized language and discipline to the meetings of the elected bodies. I have been Municipal Commissioner of a Corporation before the Amendments and Municipal Commissioner of two corporations after the Amendments. The presence of women in the meetings means meetings are quieter and more civilized. Of course, many a time, the elected lady gets elected largely because of her husband's political clout and then the husband wants to interfere in her official duties. I found a term 'Sarpanch-pati' coined in northern

states to identify the husbands of the office-holders. However, with more education and experience, ladies are becoming more seasoned and assertive in their elected roles. In any case, even for male office bearers, there were and are political bosses who, to some extent, interfere in administration.

Many reports of the State Finance Commission are very analytical and studious. However, state governments are neither serious in appointing State Finance Commissions nor in implementing the State Finance Commission reports. The Revenue assignment to both the state and local government actually decreased from 41.10 and 3.01 percent of GDP in 1998-99 to 39.07 and 2.82 percent respectively in 2007-08 (Ministry of Panchayati Raj, Devolution Report, 2015-16), which means that the income sources of the Central government were not only more buoyant than those at the lower tiers but also that more buoyant sources of income were not passed on to lower tiers. However, according to the same report, the expenditure assignment to local bodies increased from 5.74 percent in 1998-99 to 7.11 percent of GDP in 2007-08, although the expenditure assignment to state governments reduced from 46.79 percent to 45.19 percent during the same period. This could be because of the direct resource transfers to PRIs and Municipalities by the successive Central Finance Commissions.

---

After the Amendments, the Village Panchayat and the Gram Sabha have become the focus of development on the rural side. Ralegan Siddhi and Hiware bazaar in Maharashtra have been touted as model villages. Some scholars, notably Buch, nonetheless feel that it is only in Kerala and West Bengal that Gram Sabhas are really vibrant institutions notwithstanding two years, 1999-2000 and 2009-10 being declared as National Level Years of the Gram Sabha. However, on the urban side, there is inadequate delegation below the Municipal Corporation or Municipal Council level. In this connection W.A. Robson, (Great Cities of the World) observes, 'One of the objectives of local self-government is to give opportunities for as many citizens as possible to participate in public affairs and have continuous interest in them. But in big cities like Calcutta and Bombay, and even in ordinary towns, a single municipal council does not create all the opportunities required for the purpose. It is therefore desirable and necessary that statutory ward committees are constituted to look after the affairs of each ward on the basis of powers delegated to them by the Council. The Committee may comprise of all the councilors elected from the ward and certain other residents of it co-opted for the purpose. The Committee may be entrusted with the work of supervising the municipal institutions in the ward- schools,

dispensaries, maternity centres etc. - bringing to the notice of the Council the way in which the sanitary and other staff does its work in the locality and the needs of a special character which the residents of the wards may have. This will be something like introduction of a two-tier government in urban areas. It is sure to foster greater interest among the people in municipal affairs and will be an antidote to the indifference of citizens in such affairs.' Ward Committees as visualized by Robson are working in most urban bodies for administrative wards/zones. However, they have not been given assured sources of funds. Perhaps, it would be a good idea to earmark a fixed percentage of the property tax recovered from the administrative ward as income of the ward committee. This may also encourage higher recovery of local taxes.

The Nagar Raj Bill Act 2006, the model law, wants to create ward sabhas like gram sabhas and ward committees for each electoral ward. This has not found favour in most states since this can cause unnecessary bickering at ward level. In large cities, an electoral ward is a very small geographical unit. In Mumbai, it has only 2 sq. km. area. Thus, it is not difficult for an aggrieved citizen to meet the local councilor directly. Ward committees comprising representatives for each polling booth in each electoral ward has also not met

---

with substantial popular support, with any major political party.

In urban settings, associating too many citizens with electoral ward level administration is also fraught with many problems. The Federalist papers of U.S. Constitution observed, 'Nothing can be more fallacious than to found our political calculations on arithmetical principles. Sixty or seventy men may be more properly trusted with a given degree of power than six or seven. But it does not follow that six or seven hundred would be proportionately a better repository. And if we carry on the supposition to six or seven thousand, the whole reasoning ought to be reversed. The truth is, in all cases a certain number at least seems to be necessary to secure the benefits of free consultation and discussion, and to guard against the too easy a combination for improper purposes; as, on the other hand, the number ought at most kept within a certain limit, in order to avoid the confusion and intemperance of a multitude. In all very numerous assemblies, of whatever character composed, passion never fails to raise the scepter from reason. Had every Athenian citizen been a Socrates, every Athenian assembly would still have been a mob'.

The decentralization efforts through the two amendments have tried to integrate the rural and urban

effort through the District Planning. Now many districts in India have sizeable urban populations and the Zilla Parishad, representing the rural areas, alone does not stand for the entire district. Article 243 ZD has created the District Planning Committees for planning at district and lower levels. Unlike Maharashtra's District Planning and Development Councils that existed before independence, the new DPCs have no nominated members. Members representing Zilla Parishad and Municipalities are elected in proportion to their populations. The progress of District Planning varies considerably from state to state within India.

### **Elections**

The chronic problem of state governments avoiding elections to local bodies when it does not suit the state's ruling party has been by and large, addressed by the Constitutional Amendments. However, in case of Odisha and U.P., court interventions were required for the smooth conduct of the elections. Courts also had to intervene to ensure compliance with the reservation clause in Punjab and Uttar Pradesh. In U.P., the municipal elections were held in 1995, Nov 2000, Oct 2006 and May-July 2012. Thus the Constitutional requirement of holding elections after each five years is not fulfilled. However, it is indeed, to the credit that elections are held and more or less on time. Recently, the Nagaland

---

Chief Minister had to resign because of the local resistance to women's reservation in the local bodies. In Nagaland, the Naga Tribal Groups called the 33 percent reservation for women as 'contrary to Naga culture' and not a single nomination was filed to any of the seats in Kohima and Mokokchung municipal councils.

It also depends on the State Election Commissioner's temperament as to what extent is he ready to fight with the state government for discharging his Constitutional obligation. The SEC has been given protection under the Constitution that he cannot be removed except with the procedure laid down for a High Court Judge. However, court battles are sometimes necessary to ensure timely elections to the local bodies. In a developed state of India, the State Election Commissioner insisted on holding village panchayat elections during the fury of monsoons. On the state government's petition, the High Court intervened and the elections were allowed to be postponed. However, the SEC succeeded in ensuring that after the tenure of the elected bodies ended, administrators appointed to these panchayats were permanent civil servants and the Sarpanchs were not allowed to continue beyond the term of five years. After this success, the same SEC also tried to dictate the indirect elections to the post of Sarpanch from among the elected village panchayat councilors, which were not in his

domain as per law. The SEC's insistence led to an ugly fight between the SEC and the state legislature resulting in a breach of privilege motion against the SEC.

As far as percentage of polling is concerned, it is the general experience that voting percentage is the highest in village panchayat elections and lowest in the elections to large municipal corporations. In village panchayat elections, personal contact of the candidates with voters pushes up the voting percentage.

An innovation, not yet used for National and State elections, is the decision of Gujarat government in Nov 2014 making it mandatory for voters to exercise their franchise and vote in the local body elections.

### **Functions**

The Eleventh and the Twelfth Schedules to the Constitution lay down respectively the matters that the Legislature of a State may entrust for planning and implementation to the rural and urban local bodies. The Eleventh Schedule under Article 243G lists 29 functions that may be so entrusted to the Panchayats while the Twelfth Schedule under Article 243W lists 18 such functions that may be entrusted to the Municipalities.

On the rural side, the Ministry of Panchayati Raj regularly monitors the progress in this devolution by different

---

states through a devolution index and incentivizes the states that have made substantial progress. In spite of this monitoring, only half the states had completed 'activity mapping' of the functions to be devolved on panchayats by 2006-07. (V. N. Alok, Local Governance in Developing Countries, World Bank).

On the other hand, there is virtually no initiative by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs to achieve more devolution to the municipalities. In fact, many states have not devolved important functions like water supply and fire services to the municipal bodies. In Delhi, Hyderabad, Kolkata, Bangalore and Chennai the municipal corporations do not look after water supply and there are separate water supply and sewerage boards constituted for the purpose. In many states, fire services are under the District Magistrate and not with the municipalities. In fact, instead of devolving functions on municipalities, the Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs has taken retrograde steps of forming 'special purpose vehicles' for implementation of urban infrastructure projects. O. P. Mathur observes in his article in 'Local Governance in Developing Countries' (The World Bank). '...besides acquiring a constitutional status, legitimacy and protection, the municipal system in India has not undergone any structural change. Admittedly, local government systems do not change easily, but there

are few signs of any redistribution or realignment of powers between municipalities and state governments.'

### **Finance**

The states are not very systematic in constituting the State Finance Commissions. Only six states constituted all the SFCs visualized during the twenty-five years after the Amendment. These include Assam (5), Bihar (5), Kerala (5), Rajasthan (5), Uttarakhand (3) and Jharkhand (3). Only four of the required SFCs were formed in Andhra Pradesh, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Odisha, Punjab, Sikkim, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. In Gujarat and Manipur only three out of the required five were constituted while in Arunachal and Goa, of course small states, only two of the required five were constituted. The SFCs were also not serious about submission of reports. In fact, the Fourth Finance Commission in Maharashtra was wound up without submission of a report.

The states are also not serious about acceptance of SFC recommendations. Kerala is the only state where all recommendations of the SFCs were accepted without changes. Assam, Uttarakhand and Punjab accepted more than two-thirds recommendations while the national average of acceptance of SFC recommendations is only 31 percent.

---

### **Functionaries**

Kerala is the only state which has abolished the C.E.O. status to an official. This has been done in consonance with the decision to invest executive authority with the elected representatives. Every Panchayat has a Secretary, the departmental functionaries transferred are associate secretaries for that department.

In Kerala, this devolution to the Village Panchayat level was possible because the size of the village panchayat here is the largest in India, with more than 20000 population per village panchayat. There are only about seven village panchayats per block council. Thus, it was possible to give a separate medical doctor, an engineer, an agricultural officer and a veterinary doctor to each village panchayat. The revenue village is itself large in Kerala with only 1.6 villages per Village Panchayat. The Village Panchayat is similarly large in West Bengal with average population of about 15000 but it has about eleven revenue villages. It is worth noting that both Kerala and West Bengal are thickly populated states and each village panchayat with such a high population is spread only over 20 to 25 sq. km. In thinly populated states like Rajasthan a Village Panchayat with a population of 20000 will be spread over 100 sq. km making personal contact with citizens impossible. This necessitates a Village Panchayat with fewer citizens.

As regards, removal of the 'executive' status to officials, it may be noted that the Karnataka experiment of calling the senior-most officer of a Zilla Parishad as Chief Secretary and posting an officer senior to the Collector to this post was not exactly successful. Maharashtra and Gujarat, no doubt, have transferred all Grade III and IV staff to the Zilla Parishad and have made them employees of Z.P. However, a common criticism of this model is that the employees are under the de facto control of the C.E.O., Z.P. or B.D.O., Panchayat Samiti and not under the control of the elected office-bearers.

### **District Planning Committee**

Although decentralized planning in the form of district planning has a long history in India, the District Planning Committees comprising both rural and urban representatives were given a Constitutional status under the Seventy-fourth amendment. Some states like Maharashtra had introduced district planning even before the Constitutional Amendments and the District Planning and Development Councils (DPDCs) were operational in Maharashtra since the late 1970s. However, with the Constitutional provision, District Planning has become the National pattern where schemes can be finalized by the elected functionaries not only in local sector but in state sector as District Plan

---

schemes. However, till 2007-08 i.e. fifteen years after the Amendments, one-third of the states had not constituted DPCs as envisaged in the Constitution.

The sixth report of the Second Administrative Committee had the following comments on the DPCs.

1. In most states, DPCs are yet to function as envisaged in the Constitution. They neither consolidate nor prepare district development plans.
2. Very few states are preparing district plans although some of them allocate funds to district sector.
3. In several states, there is no separation of the budget into District and State sectors. Allocation of funds to local bodies does not match with the functions devolved to them.
4. Funds given to panchayats are tied down to schemes, thus limiting the scope for determining and addressing local priorities through a planning exercise. In this regard, Centrally Sponsored Schemes pertaining to functions devolved to panchayats now constitute the largest of such tied funds.
5. Actual provision in state budgets also differs from the gross outlays

communicated. Some states do not provide matching funds to Centrally Sponsored schemes, reducing the actual flow of funds for such schemes to local governments.

6. Planning is of poor quality and is generally a mere collection of schemes and works, many of the works suggested by elected panchayat members themselves in an ad hoc manner. Integration of Gram and Taluka panchayat plans into District Plan, even when done, tends to be mere summation and not synergistic integration. This is further distorted by placing funds with MPs and MLAs, whose utilization falls outside any pale of planning.

It has been argued that Centrally Sponsored Schemes should be converted to block transfers. However, such a decision would have both pros and cons.

### **Devolution Index**

The Ministry of Panchayati Raj has devised the Devolution Index (D.I.) to regularly monitor the progress made by states for more devolution to the PRIs. It could be argued that since the major anti-poverty and infrastructure programmes went to the Ministry of Rural Development, the newly carved out Ministry of Panchayati Raj did not



---

have much to do except to monitor the progress of the seventy-third Constitutional Amendment. The latest Devolution Report (2015-16) observes that 'effective transfer of functions based on the principle of subsidiarity', 'unambiguous control of the panchayat over the functionaries discharging the functions', 'financial authorization of the panchayat commensurate to the functional responsibility' and the 'ability of the panchayat to function as cutting edge partners with the line department as autonomous agencies in decision-making' are critical to effectiveness in devolution. So far we have been able to achieve this only in a handful of States viz., Kerala, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Gujarat.

On the urban side, the Ministry of Urban Development continues to focus its priorities on infrastructure programmes and no separate Ministry of Municipal Administration was created that could monitor the devolution under the Seventy-fourth amendment. This has meant that there is no central monitoring of the progress made by states for implementation of the Seventy-fourth Amendment.

Apparently there is also not much keenness to further devolve more finances on the urban bodies since the richest municipal bodies are already spending more money per capita than the state governments themselves! In Maharashtra, the Fourth Finance

Commission never submitted its report. However, the Third Finance Commission has published an illuminating study of finances of all the local bodies in Maharashtra. It appears that during the year 2003-04, the state government spent about Rs. 2500 per citizen. The corresponding figures were Rs. 150 for Village Panchayats, Rs. 1000 for Zilla Parishads, Rs. 2000 for municipal councils and Rs. 3000 for municipal corporations. The three richest municipal corporations of Mumbai, Navi Mumbai and Pimpri-Chinchwad spent about Rs. 5000 per citizen in 2003-04. As a former Municipal Commissioner of Mumbai Municipal Corporation, I know that the grants allotted by Mumbai Municipal Corporation to K.E.M. Hospital or Nair Dental Hospital are higher than those given by state government to the state government hospitals. The pay-scales of the Mumbai Municipal Corporation's lower level employees were also higher than their counterparts in the state government till, during my tenure, the Mumbai Municipal Corporation implemented the Sixth Pay Commission report, *mutatis mutandis*, for the municipal employees. The M.P.s and M.L.As are unlikely to like the fact that a local body can be financially stronger than the state government. This may explain why there is a backlash on further devolution to municipal bodies and 'special purpose vehicles' are created for urban infrastructure projects!



---

## Epilogue

During the last twenty-five years, the State Election Commissioners are holding elections to local bodies by and large regularly. However, much remains to be done in the devolution of functions, functionaries and finances to the local bodies. On the rural side, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra and Karnataka have brought out significant devolution, while the performance of large Hindi-speaking states leaves much to be desired. The Zilla Parishads in Maharashtra have improved their own sources of revenue and share of Government Grants in total receipts of Zilla Parishad decreased from 90 percent in 1996-97 to 77 percent in 2002-03 (Economic Survey of Maharashtra, 2002-03). In almost all the states, the Village Panchayats and the Gram Sabha have become the focus of planning and significant funds flow to them directly. People's involvement has greatly increased at Village Panchayat level. Projects like the watershed development, which is the key for exemplary economic development of Shri Anna Hazare's village Ralegan Siddhi in Ahmednagar district, are successful because of people's involvement in the decision-making in the Gram Sabha. Shri Popatrao Pawar of Hiware Bazar in the same district has further developed a green and prosperous model village.

The Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs has not shown the same zeal as the Ministry of Panchayati Raj to persuade the states to devolve the Twelfth Schedule functions on the urban local bodies. Most municipal officials I spoke to in Maharashtra do not feel that anything much has really changed structurally in the Municipal Corporations or the Municipal Councils after the Constitutional status, except the women's reservation. This could be because modeled on the Mumbai Municipal Corporation Act, 1888, all the municipal bodies in Maharashtra already had assured sources of income and clearly demarcated functions. In many other states, the 74th Amendment has brought about considerable devolution to the municipalities. In all the states, numerous centrally sponsored projects have increased the funds available with the urban bodies, which is in keeping with the relatively rapid economic growth that India is experiencing.

Before the Constitutional Amendments, the district planning was entrusted to a non-Constitutional body called the District Planning and Development Council (DPDC) in Maharashtra. After the Constitutional Amendment, it is now entrusted to a Constitutional body called the District Planning Committee. Officers who have worked with DPCs before and after the Amendments do not find any major difference in their working,

---

except that many members of the Council are elected from rural and urban local bodies instead of being nominated by the government. Only the size of the District Plan has increased substantially again keeping pace with faster economic growth.

The authority that has made a difference after the Amendments is the State Election Commissioner. Armed with the Constitutional protection, he ensures that elections are held on time and they are as independent as the National and State assembly elections. It is, however, necessary that the large

states with more than ten M.P.s implement the Amendments faithfully in all respects, constitute the Finance Commissions on time and implement all their recommendations.

The lot of the common man has certainly improved during the last twenty-five years. The HDI (Human Development Index) has recorded substantial gains. However, how much of the credit belongs to the economic liberalization with faster economic growth and how much credit belongs to the stronger democracy through more devolution remains a moot question!



---

## **Panchayati Raj Institutions: Rural Local Self-Government in India**

**Moti Lal**

### **Introduction**

Rural area of India is divided into these five categories: (i) non-fifth schedule areas (ii) fifth schedule areas (iii) sixth schedule areas (iv) the states of Meghalaya, Mizoram and Nagaland, and (v) the hill areas of Manipur and the district level Panchayats in the hill areas of Darjeeling of West Bengal<sup>1</sup>. The Constitution (Seventy-third Amendment) Act, 1992 has provided constitutional status to the local self-government also known as Panchayati Raj Institutions or PRIs in rural areas<sup>1</sup>. In the beginning it was extended to the non-fifth schedule areas. The Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 extended it to the fifth schedule areas<sup>2</sup>. In this way the 73rd Amendment has been extended to the whole of India except (iii) (iv) (v) categories areas out of above five categories where various kinds of grassroots local governance structures exist<sup>3</sup>. The 73 Amendment provides three tier panchayats viz., village,

intermediate and district panchayats and gram sabhas (GSs) for every gram panchayat (GP). All the voters residing in the area of a GP are its members. GS is a higher political body therefore panchayat works under the overall supervision of GS which reviews the performance of the panchayat<sup>4</sup>. In fifth schedule areas GS has exclusive power in the matter of villages against non-fifth schedule areas.

### **Local self-government in colonial period**

Local self-government at village level could not be established before 1919. In 1907, under the chairmanship of Charles Hobhouse, the Royal Commission on Decentralization was appointed. It recommended that local government should be started at village level, but its recommendations remained only on paper. Similarly in May 1915, a resolution was passed by the GOI. This resolution powered the provincial governments for making

---

laws and rules in connection with panchayat. But, it also remained only on paper like the Royal Commission. In 1919, British Parliament passed GOI Act. This Act vested panchayat matters to provincial government. As a result, by 1925, eight provinces passed GP act namely: Bihar Village Self-Government Act, 1919, Bengal Village Self-Government Act, 1919, Madras Village Panchayat Act, 1920, Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1920, Central Provinces Village Panchayat Act, 1920, Uttar Pradesh Village Panchayat Act, 1920, Punjab Act, 1922, and Assam Self-government Act 1925. In 1939, the outbreak of the World War-II gave a great setback to the development of panchayats<sup>5</sup>.

#### **Constituent Assembly Debates on Article 31-A of the Draft Constitution**

For making Constitution of India, on December 1946, constituent assembly of India was constituted<sup>5</sup>. The constituent assembly formally began its task of framing the Constitution of India on December 13, 1946 with Jawaharlal Nehru moving the 'Objectives Resolution'<sup>6</sup>. On August 29, 1947, drafting committee was constituted. Main task of the committee was to scrutinize and suggest necessary amendment to the drafted constitution of India<sup>7</sup> i.e. it was charged to prepare a constitution. To do this work, the drafting committee scrutinized the various committees' reports such as the Union

Powers Committee, the Union Constitution Committee, the Provincial Constitution Committee and the Advisory Committee on Fundamental Rights, Minorities, Tribal Areas, etc. and the provisions contained in the Government of India Act, 1935. Drafting committee submitted its report on November 4, 1948. It contains 315 Articles and 8 Schedules. Before placing the draft constitution in the constituent assembly, it had been published for public discussion for eight months. During this long time, it had received support as well as some criticism. One of the criticisms is given below, which is in the context of village panchayat, which B.R. Ambedkar reads out in the constituent assembly<sup>8</sup>: He said:

*Another criticism against the Draft Constitution is that no part of it represents the ancient polity of India. It is said that the new Constitution should have been drafted on the ancient Hindu model of a State and that instead of incorporating Western theories the new Constitution should have been raised and built upon Village Panchayats and District Panchayats. There are others who have taken a more extreme view. They do not want any Central or Provincial Governments. They just want India to contain so many village Governments. The love of the intellectual Indians for the village community is of course infinite if not pathetic (laughter). It is*

---

*largely due to the fulsome praise bestowed upon it by Metcalfe who described them as little republics having nearly everything that they want within themselves, and almost independent of any foreign relations. The existence of these village communities each one forming a separate little State in itself has according to Metcalfe contributed more than any other cause to the preservation of the people of India, through all the revolutions and changes which they have suffered, and is in a high degree conducive to their happiness and to the enjoyment of a great portion of the freedom and independence. No doubt the village communities have lasted where nothing else lasts. But those who take pride in the village communities do not care to consider what little part they have played in the affairs and the destiny of the country; and why? Their part in the destiny of the country has been well described by Metcalfe himself who says<sup>8</sup>:*

*Dynasty after dynasty tumbles down. Revolution succeeds revolution. Hindoo, Pathan, Mogul, Maratha, Sikh, English are all masters in turn but the village communities remain the same. In times of trouble they arm and fortify themselves. A hostile army passes through the country. The village communities collect their little cattle within their walls, and let the enemy pass unprovoked<sup>8</sup>. ”*

*Such is the part the village communities have played in the history of their country. Knowing this, what pride can one feel in them? That they have survived through all vicissitudes may be a fact. But mere survival has no value. The question is on what plane they have survived. Surely on a low, on a selfish level. I hold that these village republics have been the ruination of India. I am therefore surprised that those who condemn provincialism and communalism should come forward as champions of the village. What is the village but a sink of localism, a den of ignorance, narrow-mindedness and communalism? I am glad that the Draft Constitution has discarded the village and adopted the individual as its unit<sup>8</sup>.*

While framing the Draft Constitution, the Drafting Committee considered two things: the form of Government and the form of the Constitution. The Draft Constitution proposed the Parliamentary system of Government and Federal Constitution. Through this new Constitution, power is shared between states and union government but there was nothing regarding local self-government. At first Maulana Hasrat Mohanigave notice of an amendment to the Draft Constitution saying that, B.R. Ambedkar did not mention the village Panchayat in the Constitution. It had nothing new. It was a copy of the Government of India Act of 1935 and the constitutions of Australia, Canada,

---

America, and England. Village Panchayat would have been mentioned in the new Constitution if he had looked at the Soviet Constitution<sup>8</sup>. Damodar Swarup Seth was next to support Village Panchayat. He agreed with Mohani. He said that village played a key role in Indian freedom struggle and there was nothing in the Draft Constitution about village. There were seven lakh villages in our country. In this Constitution 'local self government' was not mentioned. He suggested mentioning it in the Draft Constitution. He was totally against so much centralization of powers<sup>9</sup>. Quoting Mahatma Gandhi, he said:

*Mahatma Gandhi emphasized the fact that too much centralization of power makes that power totalitarian and takes it towards fascist ideals. The only method of safeguarding against totalitarianism and fascism is that power should be decentralized to the greatest extent<sup>9</sup>.*

H. V. Kamath agreed to Maulana Hasrat Mohani and Damodar Swarup Seth in connection with Panchayat. Kamath said that there was no problem in taking anything from different countries' constitutions, but there was need to see that what we have borrowed from our own glorious political and historical past. He said that there were some books such as Indian Polity by Dr. Jayaswal and The Spirit and Form of Indian Polity by

Sree Aurobindo which tell us about our Indian polity. He read out to the house a brief description polity of India that is given below<sup>9</sup>:

*At the height of its evolution and in the great days of Indian civilization we find an admirable political system, efficient in the highest degree and very perfectly combining village and urban self-government with stability and order. The State carried on its work - administrative, judicial, financial and protective - without destroying or encroaching on the rights and free activities of the people and its constituent bodies in the same department. The royal courts in the capital and country were the supreme judicial authority coordinating the administration of justice throughout the kingdom<sup>9</sup>.*

Arun Chandra Guha said that the Gandhians and the Congress always supported a pyramidal like structure of village panchayat. B.R. Ambedkar should include village panchayat in the new Constitution. K. Santhanam demanded insertion of some statutory provision regarding village autonomy. R. K. Sidhwa said in the House that the local authorities and villages, the base of social and economic life of the country were not mentioned in the new Constitution<sup>10</sup>. Monomohan Das also supported village panchayat. However he raised a finger on the members who were saying that Draft Constitution of

---

India borrowed many things from the constitutions of other countries of the world, but it did not take anything from the indigenous soil, from our cultural heritage and the Village Panchayat System. However, he presented this intention in a different way. He said that various personages of this House criticized Chairman of the Drafting Committee for not including Village Panchayat System into the Draft Constitution. He reminded these members that not only the Chairman, but the entire Constitution-making body was responsible for this because, the Constitution was drafted with all members' cooperation. He wanted that Village Panchayat System be mentioned, but he also wanted that before this, villagers should be educated regarding Village Panchayat System<sup>11</sup>. He said:

*...Unless and until our village people are educated, unless and until they become politically conscious unless they become conscious of their civic rights and responsibilities, and unless they become conscious of their rights and privileges, this Village Panchayat System will do more harm than good. ...the Village Panchayat System has been there and was there for centuries and centuries. How much has it contributed to the welfare of our country, how much has it contributed to our social, political and economic uplift? If this system is introduced before our village people are properly educated, then I think, Sir, the local*

*influential classes will absorb to themselves all the powers and privileges that will be given by the Panchayat System and they will utilise it for their selfish motives. This system will enable the village zamindars, the village talukdars, the Mahajans and the money-lending classes to rob, to exploit the less cultured, the less educated, poorer classes of the villages<sup>11</sup>.*

After much debate in the Constituent Assembly over Village Panchayat, Prof. K. T. Shah placed a new article and said that the following proviso should be added to article 1, but the article was not added to the Constitution. Dr. B. R. Ambedkar opposed the amendment of Mr. Shah. Placed article says:

*Provided that within a period not exceeding ten years of the date when this Constitution comes into operation, the distinction or difference embodied in the several Schedules to this Constitution and in the various articles that follow shall be abolished, and the member States of the Union of India shall be organized on a uniform basis of groups of Village Panchayats co-operatively organized inter se, and functioning as democratic units within the Union<sup>12</sup>.*

This article was time bound and all the members present there were not seeing a major change within the time phase of 10 years hence this could be one of the reasons for not accepting



---

Shah's article. After that H. V. Kamath presented the article 30-A. He made a personal request that after article 30 the following new article should be added to the Draft Constitution. This article is also not mentioned in the new Constitution which is given below:

*30-A. The State shall endeavour to promote the healthy development of Gram Panchayats with a view to ultimately constituting them as basic units of administration<sup>13</sup>.*

Then K. Santhanam placed the following article 31-A before the assembly members in the constitution hall. He said that after article 31, the following article should be added to the Draft Constitution of India which was accepted. Article says:

*31-A. The State shall take steps to organize village panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government<sup>13</sup>.*

Dr. B. R. Ambedkar said that, "as I said, I accept the amendment. I have nothing more to add<sup>13</sup>". In this way new Article 31-A was added in the Draft Constitution of India and is now renumbered as Article 40 in the Chapter IV of the Constitution of India.

### **Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992**

After independence, political parties in various states came to power and they enacted panchayat act in their states. But in fact, on the ground level nothing was done<sup>5</sup>. Because Article 40 had been incorporated in part IV 'directive principles of state policy' of the Constitution, the states were free to either make law or not, to hold election or not. It was through the 73 Amendment, constitutional status has been provided to panchayats<sup>4</sup>.

After the introduction of PRIs after independence, a series of reviews have taken place from time to time to improve their performance<sup>5</sup>. In 1957, under the chairmanship of Balwant Rai Mehta a committee was set up to study Community Projects and National Extension Service and problems of democratic decentralization. The committee submitted its report in 1959 and recommended three tier systems of panchayats from village to the district level viz., gram, samiti (intermediate) and zillaparishad<sup>14</sup>. After Balwant Rai Mehta committee, in 1977, Ashok Mehta committee was appointed to study of the poor performance of Panchayati Raj Institutions. It submitted its report in 1978 with recommendation of two tier system of Panchayati Raj viz., zillaparishads at the district level and mandal panchayats at village level<sup>15</sup>.



---

Then in 1985, the National Planning Commission set up the GVK Rao committee. The committee recommended that planning, implementation and monitoring of rural development programmes should be assigned to the Panchayati Raj Institutions at the district level and below, and the revival of Panchayati Raj Institutions<sup>16</sup>. In 1986, under chairmanship of Dr. L.M. Singhvi a Committee was appointed. It recommended that local self-government should be constitutionally recognized, protected and preserved by the inclusion of a new chapter in the Constitution<sup>17</sup>.

In 1989, 64th Constitutional Amendment Bill was introduced in Lok Sabha by Rajiv Gandhi. This Bill was passed in Lok Sabha but collapsed in Rajya Sabha<sup>18</sup>. On September 16, 1991, ruling congress tabled 73rd Constitutional Amendment Bill in the parliament. On December 22, 1992 the Bill was passed by parliament. Therefore the bill is known 'the Constitution (Seventy-third Amendment) Act, 1992'. It received President's assent on April 24, 1993. It was enacted on April 24, 1993 and is placed in Ninth part of Constitution. Article 243-N says, within one year, all the states shall amend their Panchayat acts considering 73rd Amendment Act. Thus all the states amended their Panchayat acts before April 24, 1994<sup>5</sup>.

After passing the Act, most state governments extended it to their entire state. They extended their panchayat act to non-fifth schedule areas as well as fifth schedule areas. Here one thing should be remembered that the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act could not be extended to fifth schedule areas. For these areas separate provisions are mentioned in the fifth schedule of the Indian Constitution. Therefore it was necessary to pass a separate law to extend the law to the 5th schedule areas.

#### **Extension of the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 to the Fifth Schedule Areas**

Under the chairmanship of Mr. Dileep Singh Bhuria, a High Level Committee of select MPs and Experts was constituted by the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD), GOI, on June 10, 1994 to make recommendations on how the 73rd Amendment could be extended to the 5th schedule areas. On January 17, 1995, after a long discussion, it submitted its report to the MoRD. It states that the 73rd Amendment vested panchayats such powers and authority which made panchayats institutions of self-government. Therefore it could be extended to the said schedule areas and for this, parliament should pass a new act which preserve tribals' customary law, social and religious practices because they have been solving their

political-socio-legal affairs on the basis of principles, procedures, practices, norms, conventions, traditions, precedents, etc. There were many tribal regions that accepted statutory panchayat, but in these areas or other areas traditional organizational structures and leadership has been followed<sup>19</sup>.

On December 11, 1996, on the basis of the Bhuria committee report, a legislation titled, “the Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996” was introduced in the Rajya Sabha (RS) by Chandradeo Prasad Verma, Union Minister of State for Rural Areas and Employment. On December 12, 1996, the Minister of Rural Areas and Employment, Yerran Naidu tabled the same bill again in the RS for consideration. One after another every provision was discussed by the MPs and more than 20 MPs participated in this discussion. Following issues were discussed namely: water, forest, land, mineral, social sector, transfer of power by the legislature of a state to panchayat, fund corruption, prohibition of sale and consumption of liquor and tribals traditional lifestyle, etc. RS passed it on December 12, 1996 and Lok Sabha passed it on December 19, 1996<sup>19</sup>. The Bill received President's assent and from December 24, 1996 it was enacted<sup>2</sup>. It was extended Part IX of the Constitution with certain modifications to the Scheduled V areas of 10 States viz. Andhra Pradesh, Telangana,

Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Odisha and Rajasthan<sup>20</sup>. The Act vested many powers with GS to initiate work. GS has following powers<sup>2</sup>:

- To prevent alienation of land in the Scheduled areas and to take appropriate action to restore any unlawfully alienated land of a Scheduled Tribe
- The ownership of minor forest produces
- To enforce prohibition, or to regulate or restrict the sale and consumption of any intoxicant
- To exercise control over money lending to the Scheduled Tribes
- To exercise control over institutions and functionaries in all social sectors
- To control local plans, and resources for such plans including tribal sub-plan
- Of prior recommendation in granting prospecting license or mining leases for minor minerals as well as for grant of concessions for the exploitation of minor minerals by auction
- Right to be consulted on matters of land acquisition

- 
- To issue utilization certificates for government works undertaken in their village

**Critical Analysis of the Constitution (Seventy-third Amendment) Act, 1992 and the Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996**

**73rd Amendment Act, 1992**

Neither article 40 from 'directive principles of state policy' of part IV of the Constitution nor panchayats subject from the state list of the seventh schedule of the Constitution has been omitted. Though through the 73rd Amendment a new Part IX 'the panchayat' has been added to the Constitution and the panchayats have been given constitutional right, it could not become completely local self-government body till today because panchayats do not have their own power. All powers, that a panchayat exercises, are given by legislature of a state. Panchayats do not have their own power as union and states governments have. If the said article had been omitted from the same part and panchayat subject had been omitted from state list of the same schedule and panchayat subject inserted in the union list or concurrent list of seventh schedule of the Constitution, Panchayat Raj Institutions would become self-rule institutions. At present panchayat is state's subject as it is in the state list of the seventh schedule.

GSs and panchayats have not been given such powers and authorities by the Amendment Act which could make them self-rule institutions. However, through the amendment, eleventh schedule has been added in the Constitution in which 29 subjects are listed for giving to GSs and Panchayats, but these subjects cannot be exercised by the GS and Panchayats themselves. It was left to the sweet will of the legislature of a state. The state will decide how many subjects should be given and how many subjects should not be given to them. In addition to this, audit of accounts of panchayats, powers to impose taxes by the panchayats, whether election of chairperson of G P would be by direct election or indirect election, representation of chairpersons at intermediate level and those of intermediate level at higher level, whether MPs or MLAs would be members at intermediate or higher level or not, all these matters are left under legislature of states.

But it cannot be said that there is no benefit of the Amendment. Before the Amendment there were many rights which were not given to GSs and panchayats by the state governments but those rights are suggested to be given through the amendment. Therefore status of GPs and GSs is better than earlier. Now, for every village panchayat, GS is constituted. Three tier panchayats viz., village,

---

intermediate and district levels, has been provisioned. All members of all three level panchayats shall be elected by direct election (by the people), but chairpersons of all three levels shall be elected by indirect election (the members who shall be elected by people) except village chairpersons. At all three levels, post of members, chairpersons seats are reserved for ST and SC men and for women. Tenure of panchayats is fixed for five years and if it dissolves before expiration, state election commission will hold election. The state election commission shall be appointed by the Governor to conduct election. The Governor of a state shall constitute a Finance Commission to review the financial position of the panchayat at the expiration of every fifth year.

#### **PESA Act, 1996**

Through the Act, there was need to mandatorily endow powers in the matters of village to the GSs, but in reality it is not so. Sections, sub-sections, clauses, and sub-clauses of the Act in one clause endows exclusive power to GS while on the other hand the same Act in the other clause endows power to GP, the state legislature and between GP and GS. In addition to this, the same power at one place is under GS and on the other place under GP.

Sub-section (d), clause (i) (ii) of sub-section (e), and sub-section (f) of section 4 endow power exclusively to GS to carry out a job/development project. Sub-section (i) and (k) of section 4 endow equal powers to both GS and GP to carry out a job, though by affixing 'Or' term it has become complex and murky as to which body actually has the authority or has the powers or rights, or are they equally distributed among them, is not clear<sup>2</sup>. However, in legal terminology the word 'Or' denotes that either body can initiate the work prescribed subject to the nature of the job<sup>21</sup>. Sub-section (j) of section 4 endows powers exclusively to GP such as planning and management of minor water bodies. Sub-section (m) of section 4 reads that state legislature has mandatory onus upon it to ensure that both GS and GP are engaged in the work specifically mentioned in sub-clauses (i), (ii), (iii), (iv), (v), (vi) and (vii) of sub-section (m) of section 4<sup>2</sup>. However affixing 'And' in between GS and GP, the said section does not throw a clear picture and compounds the situation. Whereas the term 'And' is concerned, it legally denotes that both the bodies GS and GP shall together initiate the work<sup>21</sup>.

Clause (i) of sub-section (e), and sub-section (f) of section 4 which endow exclusive powers to the GS for a given work while through sub-section (d), and clause (vii) of sub-section (m) of the same section the same work has

---

been distributed between both GS and GP. In these is included the control on resources and planning<sup>2</sup>. In clause (iii) of sub-section (m), and sub-section (i) of section 4 where, to initiate the given work, GS or GP or GS and GP terminology has been used. Sub-section (i) of section 4 seems to be diluting the decisive say of the GS in the matter of land acquisition and aftermath rehabilitation as it reads out that before acquisition of land either GS or GP shall be consulted. It means 'Or' and 'And' terms have been connected in between both. The 'Or' in between GS and GP does not throw a clear picture and provides opportunity to the higher authorities to use their discriminatory power which can be malafide<sup>2</sup>.

Eventually after a critical analysis of the Act, there are two findings: (i) soul of the act is missing because as per the Act GS is higher authoritative body and GP is subordinate to it. But the Act in many places distributes the power of decision making in subject matters in such a way that it creates visible confusion and opens a space for the back door entry of bureaucracy to interfere and possibly manipulate matters in their desired direction, and (ii) however, legal view suggests that as per the Act final authority in subject matters of the village rests with GS exclusively though there are some sections where the said power has been equally distributed between GS and GP

but GS being a higher political body can override the decision of the GP as per the Act.

### **Conclusion and Suggestions**

After studying the paper it is very clear that panchayats have not become self-governing body completely till today. However, through 73rd Amendment, panchayats have been given constitutional right and due to this, panchayat elections are conducted regularly in every state. In the course of making panchayat as self-governing body, there is need to omit article 40 of Part IV of 'Directive Principles of State Policy' and panchayat subject from State List of Seventh Schedule of the Constitution and the panchayat matter should be added in the Union or Concurrent List of Seventh Schedule. Like the other projects related to water, sanitation, education in rural areas, panchayati raj institution project also should be launched by the states and central government. In these projects NGOs, activists, academicians, scholars, training institutes, and all the people who have knowledge regarding panchayati raj institution should be engaged.

### **Reference**

1. The Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992

- 
- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <p>2. The Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 (PESA Act, 1996)</p> <p>3. Annual Report, 2016-17. Ministry of Panchayati Raj, Government of India or MoPR, GOI, p.2</p> <p>4. Constitution of India, Part IX, The Panchayats and Part IV, Directive Principles of State Policy</p> <p>5. Mahipal, Panchayati Raj: Chunauiya n E v a m Sambhavnayein, Pp. 3-29</p> <p>6. Constituent Assembly Debate, Volume-1: Friday, December 13, 1946</p> <p>7. Constituent Assembly Debate, Volume-5: Friday, August 29, 1946</p> <p>8. Constituent Assembly Debate, Volume-7: Thursday, November 4, 1948</p> <p>9. Constituent Assembly Debate, Volume-7: Friday, November 5, 1948</p> <p>10. Constituent Assembly Debate, Volume-7: Saturday, November 6, 1948</p> <p>11. Constituent Assembly Debate, Volume-7: Monday, November 8, 1948</p> | <p>12. Constituent Assembly Debate, Volume-7: Wednesday, November 17, 1948</p> <p>13. Constituent Assembly Debate, Volume-7: Monday, November 22, 1948</p> <p>14. Report of the team for the study of Community Projects and National Extension Service, Chairman Balvantray G. Mehta or Balwantray Mehta Committee Report, 1957</p> <p>15. Committee on Panchayati Raj Institutions, Chairman Asoka Mehta or Asoka Mehta Committee Report, 1978</p> <p>16. Report of the Committee on Administrative Arrangements for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation Programmes, Chairman G.V.K. Rao or GVK RAO Committee Report, 1985</p> <p>17. L.M. Singhvi Committee Report 1986</p> <p>18. Institute of Social Sciences, Panchayati Raj Update, Vol. XXI, No. 4, April 2014, p.1</p> <p>19. Lal, Moti. 2017. International Journal on Arts, Management and Humanities (IJAMH), title, Background to the working of local self-government in fifth</p> |
|--|--|
-

- 
- schedule areas in India, vol. 6(2),  
ISSN No. (Online): 2319-5231,  
pp.38-46
20. Annual Report, 2016-17.  
Ministry of Tribal Affair,  
Government of India or MoTA,  
GOI, pp.24-41
21. Based on interview with  
Kandpal, Prabhakar, Legal  
Intern, Faculty of Law, Delhi  
University



---

## **Management of Drinking Water Service by Rural Local Governments: A Study of Selected Grama Panchayats in Karnataka**

**Basavarajeshwari K**

### **1. Introduction:**

The scarcity of drinking water is very acute and needs urgent attention in the current scenario. Specifically, in the northern part of Karnataka water problem is very severe. Water is essential and without water, there is no life, no economic production and no environment (Grimble, 1999). The 11th Schedule of 73rd Amendment of the Constitution includes the provision of drinking water to all rural residents. So both the central and state governments are providing funds under the flagship National Rural Drinking Water Programme (NRDWP) for rural water supply. A study by GoI (2010) underlines the importance of panchayats in the provision of drinking water that "the fundamental basis on which drinking water security can be ensured is the decentralised approach through Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) and community involvement". So to provide potable drinking water at the grass-root level the grama panchayats plays a vital role.

'Sustainability in the provision of drinking water is important and a scheme is a process to facilitate the drinking water supply projects to provide safe and adequate drinking water. Schemes make the process easier during distress periods, duly addressing equity, gender, vulnerability, convenience and consumer preference issues, through a connective use of groundwater, surface water and roof-water harvesting' (GoI, 2014). The biggest challenge before sustainable governance in current scenario is how effectively the decentralised governments provide services to local people in order to meet the current requirements without compromising future requirements.

So the central objective of this paper is to study how efficiently the panchayat functionaries are managing drinking water provision. Here we have tried to present the status of rural drinking water supply in selected grama panchayats in Karnataka. What



---

role do elected representatives have in this? Whether at the local level households fully depend on panchayats for access to water? If yes, what is the level of dependency and how efficient are these panchayat functionaries in the delivery of water services? The study is based on both secondary and primary data; primary data is collected from 200 households as well as elected representatives spread across four gramapanchayats in two districts of Karnataka namely Mandya and Ballari. More specifically, the study provides a comparative picture of forward (southern) and backward (northern) districts in the management of drinking water service. The further classification has been done by categorising the GPs that are closer and the GPs that are interior to taluk headquarters. The study period is 2005-06 to 2014-15. The important finding of this study is that almost all the households depend on panchayat for drinking water service, but only a few households are satisfied with the quantity and quality of water supplied. Especially in case of grama panchayats which are away and villages that are far away from GPs, the majority of the households complained about the quantity and quality of water supplied by the panchayats.

The paper is presented in eight sections. Section one is devoted to an introduction. Section two provides objectives and methodology of the

study. Section three discusses the relevance of panchayats in providing water service. Section four brings out the review of the literature and section five provides information about the delivery of water service by panchayats in Karnataka. Section six presents the position in delivering water service in the selected GPs in Karnataka. Section seven attempts to see the validity of the collected data and final section provides concluding observations.

## **2. Objectives of the Study**

The central objective of this paper is to study how efficiently the panchayat functionaries are managing drinking water service. Furthermore, to understand the challenges faced by the GPs in the delivery of water service.

### **2.1. The Methodology of the Study:**

The study is based on both secondary and primary data. Secondary data is collected from official documents and also from concerned GP offices. For the primary survey, two GPs have been selected from each district namely, Mandya (forward) and Ballari (backward) district. These GPs have been selected based on distance factor. One of the panchayats is close to the taluk headquarters and the other is in an interior region away from the taluk headquarters.

---

We have also looked at the funds from the higher governments to the local governments in Karnataka for drinking water service by a study of four grama panchayats. The study period is 2005-06 to 2014-15. To collect secondary data checklist method is used.

For primary data collection we have followed three sets of questionnaires schedule which have been classified first and foremost, for grama panchayat official, then elected members of that GP jurisdiction. Finally, to collect household level data in each GP two villages are selected for the study. Statistical tools such as percentage analysis and graphs have been used to analyse the data.

Secondary data and information have been collected from official documents as well as from concerned GPs offices. Bank pass books have been collected from concerned GPs with regard to transfers that are made to provide drinking water service under both central and state scheme. Audit report, utilisation copies (UCs), budget copies, daily account books and cash books have been collected to provide expenditure details. Also, circulars and notifications passed on to GPs from higher governments and RDPR with regard to maintenance of water and water-related services.

### **3. The Relevance of Panchayats in the Delivery of Drinking Water Service**

Decentralisation process is transferring decision making and finances from central government to local governments that lead to better delivery of services assessed in terms of their fit with local needs, quality and unit cost (Helmsing, 2002). Studies have shown that effectively putting money in the hands of poor municipalities have been able to better meet the needs of their constituency than the central state (Faguet, 2003). Tiebout (1956) and Tanzi (1996) favour decentralisation as it leads to economic efficiency in providing public services to citizens according to their wishes.

Water is considered to be one of the basic necessities for the survival of humans. Safe drinking water is one of the requisite for a decent standard of living. UNDP (1997, 2006) human poverty index measures deprivation in three essential dimensions of human life: firstly, longevity (or vulnerability to death at an early age not above 40). Secondly, knowledge (access to reading and communication), and finally a decent standard of living in terms of overall economic and social needs (percentage of people without access to safe water and health services and the percentage of underweight children under five as the proxies for a decent standard of living).

---

Thus the effective provision of basic needs to the people by panchayats is to ensure a decent standard of life for rural local people. The role of local governments in the provision of basic services will be effective through proper implementation of the schemes from both centre and state.

It acts as both regulator as well as service provider and has a role in raising finance too (Smits & Butterworth, 2005). For this purpose, local governments have a variety of economic instruments available to them to influence the behaviour of their citizenry. These include rate structures and charges, fees for permits and other governmental services, shared taxes and surcharges, incentives (such as bonuses and rebates) as well as fines and penalties. These economic instruments are complemented by a variety of regulatory instruments, such as by-laws, that local governments can use to influence the implementation of central and state schemes within their jurisdictions (ibid).

#### **4. Brief Review of Literature**

In this section, we find that decentralising the services will lead to better provision of services. A study by Yu and E. Araral (n.d.) shows that decentralising services will provide economies of scale or effective provision of service by improving the quality or reducing the cost of delivery.

Oates (1993) mentioned that basic argument for fiscal decentralisation is to enhance the economic efficiency. Likewise, Arora and Norregaard (1997) stated that an important reason for the existence of decentralised government is to improve economic efficiency. Another study by Shah and Andrews (2005) argues that local governments are effective and are more likely to provide the services in the right way. Besides improved responsiveness and efficiency, enhanced accountability is often seen as an expected outcome from decentralisation.

In order to manage well and for better provision of services, local governments should have finances, functionaries and infrastructure. Studies have shown that in order to perform better it needs to focus on the organisation and management determinants of performance such as financial and personal autonomy, human resource management practices such as compensation, leadership development, training, incentive structure, among others (Yu and E. Araral, n.d.). A study by Araral (2007) states the determinants of the performance of one of the best public water utilities in developing countries. Similarly, Tortajada and Biswas (2008) examined the determinants of performance in one of the best urban water supply agencies in Singapore. Both the papers have concluded that an

---

autonomy of the utility, performance management and compensation, professional staff and progressive leadership, among others are some of the key factors for their success.

from this, it requires well-informed representatives and officials so that they are able to manage the provision of services effectively.

### **5. Drinking Water Service by Panchayats in Karnataka**

In 1993, 73rd Constitutional Amendment makes provision for assigning the responsibility of providing drinking water to the panchayats. Moreover, Karnataka Panchayat Raj Act, 1993 lists out the functions under section 58 that GP shall perform functions that are specified in the eleventh schedule. It states that maintenance of water supply on its own or by annual contract by generating adequate resources has been given to grama panchayats (Puliani and Puliani, 2010). Further, it also states that state and central government should provide funds to carry out the functions which are specified in Schedule I. If we carefully see the growth rate of allocation funds from higher governments to GPs under rural water supply scheme, it provides a picture of proposed allocation and actually allocated funds to GPs. Furthermore, it also shows a negative growth rate of -0.11 for Ballari district in which water scarcity is a major problem (See appendix Table 1).

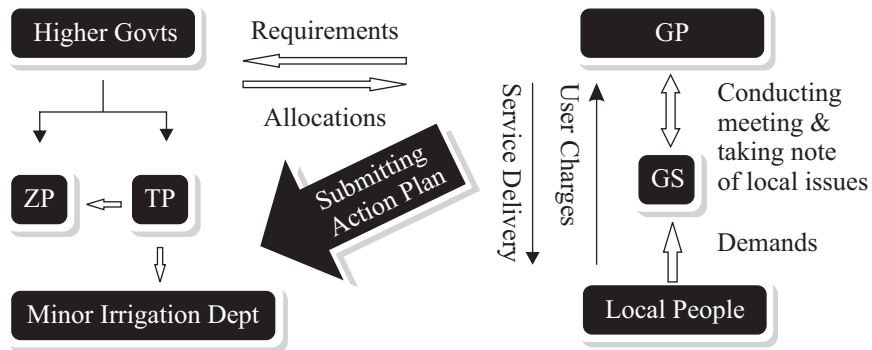
Mainly, if GP has to manage well it requires functionaries, financial resources and infrastructure. Apart

#### Norms for providing drinking water services

Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation (2011) under NRDWP recommended 55 % of the rural households should be covered by piped water supply with individual house connections and a minimum supply of 55 litres of per capita per day lpcd enhanced from 40 lpcd to all. Secondly, it should be treated and safe drinking water. Thirdly people should have access to water from any source in at least a radial distance of 50 meters and within 10 meters elevation in hilly areas from the dwelling unit. The availability of water has to be within the premises of the house (GoI, 2013).

In addition, users have to pay for the service they get i.e., user charges that should bear the cost of maintenance. GPs should recover at least the minimum maintenance of cost. As to this, a study by Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation (2011) recommended that every state should recover minimum maintenance cost and should come up with maintenance cost norms for water supply schemes, so that management becomes easy and also proper monitoring can be done.

**Figure 1: Functioning of institutions in provision of water services**



Abbreviations: GP = grama panchayat; ZP = zilla panchayat; TP = taluk panchayat; GS = gramasabha meeting.

Functioning of institutions within the GP is important. The level of participation of people and officials is crucial in the ward sabha, gramasabha, grama panchayat meeting and jamabandhi meetings. Firstly in the ward sabha meeting, GP officials will note down the ward related problems such as drinking water issues, wants and other relevant local problems. Secondly, these problems are discussed in the gramasabha meeting and they make their decisions by prioritising the issues that need urgent attention. Relating to water services the issues that are discussed and generally highlighted are a breakdown of the pipeline, repair of water motor and casing bore wells, etc. Other issues such as staff training and their village security plan will also be discussed in GS. The prioritised issues from the GP meeting have to get approved in the

grama panchayat meeting. Later these discussed issues will be included in their action plan which needs to be sent to the higher governments for approval. These higher governments will then assist GPs by providing funds and also provide technical support. For instance, in the case of water delivery system, minor irrigation departments under the block level provide technical support and if management problems arise for GPs they provide assistance. Further field level junior engineers will be sent to monitor the water motor and casing of the bore wells.

## 6. Position of the selected grama panchayats in Karnataka: Analysis

Water is a scarce resource in Karnataka. It is a scarce resource because with escalating population, higher agricultural productivity

requiring more irrigation, changes of the monsoon and depletion of ground water resources, there is a proportionate increase in demand for adequate supply of treated and safe potable drinking water (Sita Sekhar, 2008).

Provision of drinking water service is one of the most important among the basic services provided by the panchayats. In rural India, water has always been considered as common property resource due to its availability and accessibility in the form of tanks, rivers/streams/canals, ponds/lakes, open wells etc (ibid).

#### 6.1. Sources of drinking water in selected GPs in Karnataka

Rural areas have access to different sources of drinking water which includes traditional resources such as lakes, tanks, wells and rivers, etc. as well as water delivery by the state. From Table 1 we see that in the

case of Kuravatti and Hagarnuru GP, around three-fourth of the households use individually piped water. Among the public sources being used, public taps are used the most except in Kennalu GP (1.57 %) less than that of bore wells (2.87 %), followed by hand pumps and bore wells whereas in the case of Kuravatthi GP it is different.

However, data shown in Table 1 is inaccurate which has been collected by the concerned GPs. Basically the given data is not tallying with the total. Firstly, this will show the GPs have not maintained accurate information with them. Data on number of tap connections provided to the house holds is inappropriate. Secondly, if GPs do not obtain accurate information about their services it will result in inadequate tax collection; further this will affect their service delivery. Thirdly, this will lead to a lack of accountability and transparency by the GPs.

**Table 1: Proportion of Usage of drinking water sources in selected GPs**

Sources of Drinking water	% of households using			
	Ballari District		Mandya District	
	Kuravatthi GP	Hagarnuru GP	Kennalu GP	Jakkanahalli GP
	Total No. of Hhs=2298	Total No. of Hhs=1318	Total No. of Hhs = 1463	Total No. of households = 2194
Piped Water (at home)	19.28	25.95	39.64	44.62
Own Well (within the house premises)	0.13	0.46	1.71	1.73
<b>Public Sources</b>				
Public Tap	6.74	27.31	1.57	5.24
Hand pump	0.70	1.67	2.32	2.92
Borewell	1.13	0	2.87	1.41

Source: Data collected from concerned GPs

---

## **6.2. Quality of services provided by selected GPs in Ballari and Mandya districts**

The quality of services includes aspects such as frequency, timing, and quantity of water provided as well as payments made for water service. The important observation from Figure 2 is that in interior GPs such as Kuravatthi and Jakkanahalli GP, the payment made by citizens for water service is less than payment made to those GPs namely Hagarnuru and Kennalu GP which are closer to taluk headquarters. This is mainly because the frequency and quantity of water available are better in GPs closer to taluk headquarters. Secondly, as these panchayats are closer to taluk headquarters infrastructure facilities are comparatively better off than GPs that are farther away. Lastly citizens are satisfied with the quantity of water provided by the GPs closer to taluk headquarters, while in interior GPs we see a different picture.

As stated, revenue mobilisation from water service is relatively less in interior GPs. This implies that the water service provided by the interior panchayats is not satisfactory and therefore citizens are not willing to pay for it. Furthermore, this depicts their administrative inefficiency such as collection of user charges and decisions to fix the water rate, as well as revision of tax rate will become

difficult. This will have an adverse effect on their revenue mobilisation. As theory says that GPs should at least recover their minimum cost of expenses for the services they provide.

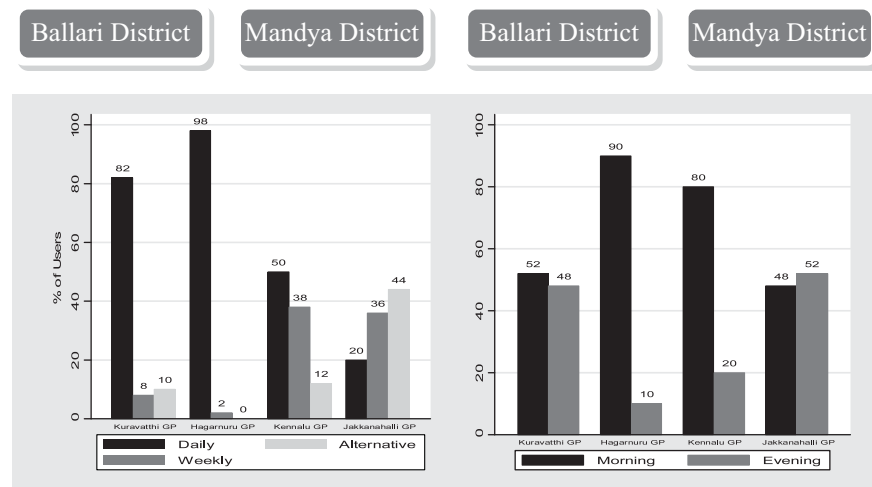
Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation (2011) reported that cost recovery for operating and maintenance is an integral part of government policy but in most of the states, cost recovery from beneficiaries is marginal. Moreover, it also recommended a minimum collection of 50 % of O & M cost through user charges from beneficiaries. However, the water rate collected by these selected GPs shows that water rate payment in interior GPs is less than 50 % (see Figure 2).

In addition, Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation (2011) referred that it would become difficult to bring sustainability of rural drinking water supply in the absence of an effective mechanism to recover maintenance costs to provide water service. However, it suggests that tariff with different pricing levels for different uses (i.e., domestic & commercial purpose) and different classes of consumers (such as rich prefer individual piped water and poor fetch water from a public source) can be considered at the administrative level of GPs. Information on differential tax rates on drinking water service of four GPs is given in appendix Table 2.

The frequency of water provided is once in five to six days in Jakkanahalli GP (see Figure 2). While

in Hagarnuru GP citizens expressed that they get water daily in the morning.

**Figure 2: Frequency of water supply in the selected GPs**



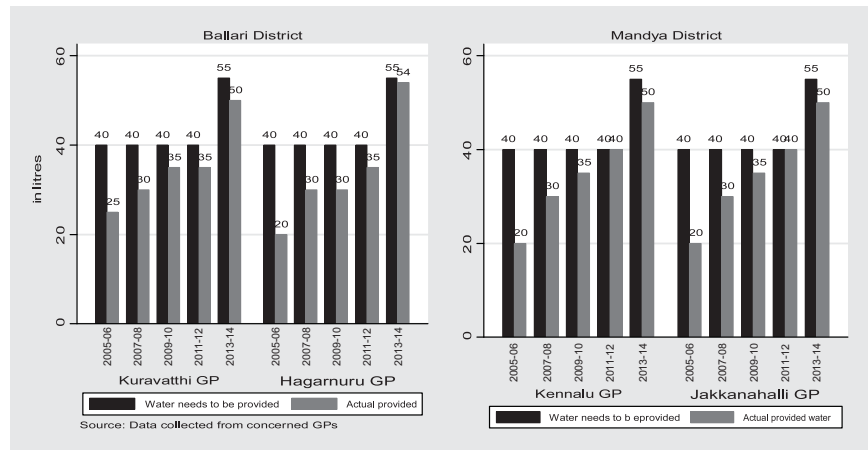
Source: Primary survey

Moreover, the information on LPCD (litre per day per capita) water availability in selected GPs in both the districts is shown in Figure 3. As we mentioned earlier that minimum of 55 lpcd water needs to be provided to the households in rural India. If we look at Figure 3 shows only Hagarnuru GP has met the minimum 55 lpcd norm in 2013-14 while the other three GPs have

yet to meet the norm specified by the government. Citizens in Jakkanahalli have mentioned that the quantum of water being provided is less. Furthermore, citizens from Hagarnuru GP never complained about the quantity of water being provided by the panchayat. However they complained that the quality of water provided by the panchayat is bad.



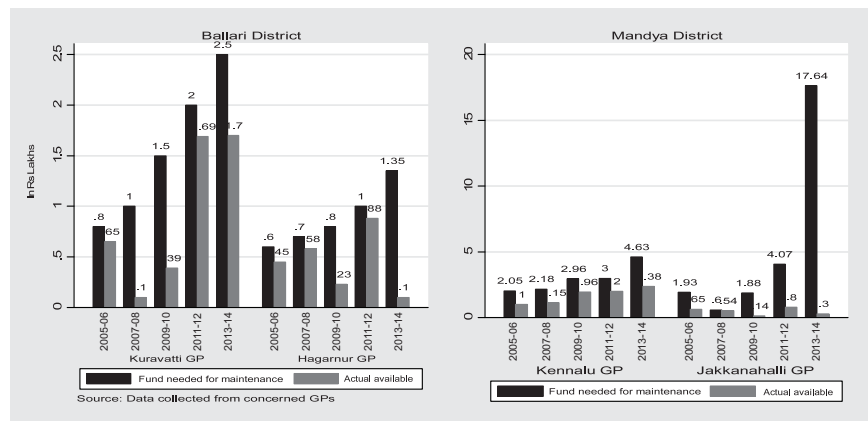
**Figure 3: Extent of Provision of Drinking Water Supply in the selected GPs**



Keeping all these in view, we see that GPs have not managed well in the provision of drinking water service. In order to manage well, GPs should have Finances, functionaries and infrastructure as well as knowledge among elected members and panchayat officials. Due to

lack of adequate financial resources, GPs have not been managing well in the delivery of water service. If we look at the finances of the selected GPs as is clearly indicated from Figure 4 that the fund required for water service is more than the actual fund available.

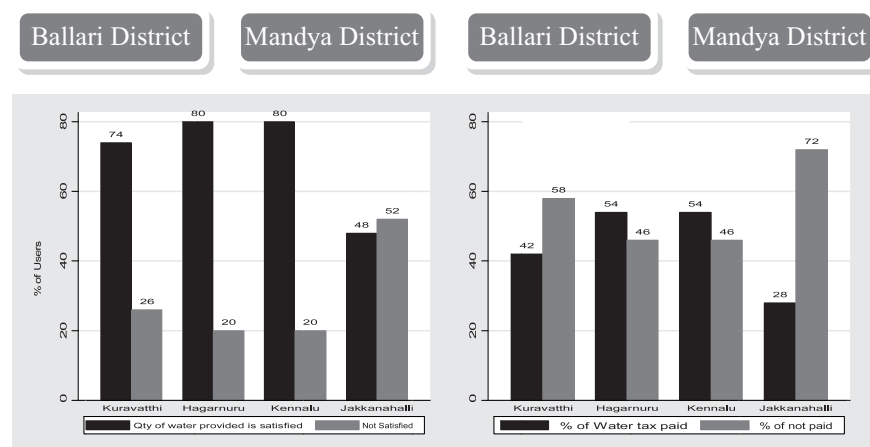
**Figure 4: Proportion of funds available for maintenance of drinking water service**



With regard to functionalities of panchayats, field visits reveal that these personnel have not been trained adequately to provide services effectively. However, these watermen and bill collectors are hired by the elected members of that GP and entrusted with some work irrespective of their qualification. So they lack in understanding the details of the problems and responsibilities. Furthermore, in some GPs due to lack of personnel, managing water supply is becoming tough. For instance, in

Jakkanahalli GP it is found out that only a single waterman is handling two villages for water delivery service, due to which local people are facing irregularity in the delivery of water service. Thus this irregularity in the delivery of water service has adversely affected in the payment of water rate/tax by the local people in Jakkanahalli GP (see Figure 5). Furthermore, even in some GPs especially in Kuravathi GP about 50 percent of elected members have not paid the water rate to the GPs (see appendix Table 3).

**Figure 5: Provision of Drinking Water Supply in the selected GPs**



## 7. Validation of the data

If we talk about the efficiency of panchayat functionaries in delivering of water service, we try to see the quality and quantity of water being provided by panchayats and how best GPs have utilised the given funds from

higher governments. Apart from that GPs have to mobilise their own revenue to provide better services at local level. Providing a number of tap connections to the households and its maintenance are to be done by panchayats. Whereas ground results show that the pipe water supply and water motor in many

---

villages are not functioning despite all required infrastructure being in place. This is due to poor maintenance of assets (see Picture 1) like hand pumps, tube wells, pipe connection channels and some administrative issues related to the collection of user fees and rates, etc.

Field reality reveals that problem reported to GPs by the citizens is mainly breakdowns of water pipe and quantity being provided by the providers is insufficient. Some of the respondents stated that problems relating to water service have been brought to GP notice in gramasabha meeting But were not addressed properly by the panchayat officials. Some of the users go and report about the breakdown of water pipes. To this, panchayat officials responded that adequate money for maintenance is not available. Elected representatives at first take people's side but later when they get to know about the lack of adequate money and lack of personnel they stay silent.

In addition, officials said that there will be more breakdowns of water pipe and repair of water motor for every other week which is a major problem. The cost that is to be incurred for repairing water motor is huge and with the available funds, they cannot even meet current maintenance expenses. At this rate, managing effectively with all those problems will be a difficult task.

Grama panchayats that are close to taluk headquarters and villages that are closer to GPs have been doing relatively better than those which are in the interior. This is mainly because of better credentials of GP personnel and awareness created among the citizens in that GP. Secondly, being nearer to taluk headquarters provides better infrastructure facility. The study also reveals that interior GPs have failed to create community awareness among the citizens about the importance of drinking water in gramasabha meetings. Further quality of water service provided is poor.

**Picture 1: Proper Infrastructure lacking in Water Delivery**



*Source: Collected from Kennalu GP in Mandya District*

---

From all above analysis, we have seen the importance of water and different sources of water that have been provided by the GPs. Let us think about what damage we have done to this water source? We have done a lot of damage by digging bore wells and forgotten water conservation. Further, we do not conserve the rain water. Also, we do not practice rainwater recharging. An article points out that when we draw recklessly water from a source, we should help to return water to it. We cannot reverse all the harm we have done, but we can at least reduce the effects caused by our actions. It further suggests the possible way out from this is by recharging the bore well from conserving rain water (Varnashi, 2017). Ground reality shows that in the selected GPs practising of rainwater recharge has not been done.

We do not preserve the tanks, reservoirs and open wells and there is no water in those water bodies. Or they are unusable because of improper management. Therefore we need to dig bore wells and use them to provide water. But now bore wells have almost dried up and fail to provide water. With the result that we go deeper and deeper to find water but after some depth the water is poisonous and unfit for consumption.

## **8. Concluding Observations**

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that it is the responsibility of the grama panchayat to ensure that

every person gets access to safe and adequate water as per prescribed norms. The majority of the households are depending on panchayat water source in the selected GPs. As we have seen three-fourth of the households are using individually piped water. However, there are reports of breakdowns of water pipe and water motor. Inefficiency on the part panchayat officials and lack of personnel as well as coordination between elected members are leading to this problem.

Moreover, grama panchayats that are closer to taluk headquarters have done relatively better in meeting the expectations of the local people in the provision of drinking water service and thus resulted in the better collection of water rate. However, the quality of water being provided by the panchayats is not satisfactory in both nearby as well as in interior grama panchayats. In order to provide benefits for local people and for effective management of drinking water service infrastructure alone is not sufficient. Finances and functionaries are also necessary and they need to be supported with the infrastructure.

Lastly, when we think about the issue of sustainability let us look back ourselves. We do not preserve the tanks, reservoirs and open wells and there is no water in these water bodies. They are unusable because they are not managed properly. Therefore we need to dig bore wells and use them to provide water. But now the bore wells are also almost dried up and fail to

provide water. With the result that we go deeper and deeper to find water but after some depth the water is poisonous and unfit for consumption. Conserving rain water can be a most effective remedy, helping to recharge the bore wells. However this is not happening in the selected grama panchayats' jurisdiction. In order to move towards more sustainable practices GPs need to pay attention to this.

#### References:

1. Agba Michael Sunday Akwara, A. F. (2013). Local Government and Social Service Delivery in Nigeria: A Content Analysis. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 455-462.
2. Arora, Vivek, and John Norregaard. (1997). *Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations: The Chinese System in Perspective*. Washington, DC: International Monetary Fund, Asia and Pacific Department and Fiscal Affairs Department.
3. Biswas, A. K. & Tortajada, C. (2009) Water crisis: myth or reality? *Global-is-Asian Newsletter*, October–December pp. 1–3.
4. Faguet, J-P. (2003). *Decentralisation and local government in Bolivia: an overview from the bottom up*. Working Paper No:29, Crisis States Programme Development Research Centre London School of Economics and Political Science LSE, London, United Kingdom.
5. GoI. (2010). *National Rural Drinking Water Programme*, 2010. New Delhi: Ministry of Rural Development.
6. GoI. (2013). *National Rural Drinking Water Programme: Movement towards ensuring people Drinking Water Security in Rural India Guidelines 2013*. New Delhi: International Environmental Law Research Centre.
7. GoI. (2014). *Grama Panchayat and Drinking Water*. New Delhi: Ministry of Panchayat Raj.
8. GoK (2010). *Budget Allotment for Zilla Panchayath Plan and Non-Plan for the Year 2010-11 (Zilla, Taluk and Grama Panchayath Schemewise)*, Volume I, II, III & IV: Belgaum, Bengaluru, Mysore & Gulbarga Division, Bangalore.
9. GoK (2013). *Budget Allotment for Zilla Panchayath Plan and Non-Plan for the Year 2010-11 (Zilla, Taluk and Grama Panchayath Schemewise)*, Volume I, II, III & IV: Belgaum, Bengaluru, Mysore & Gulbarga Division, Bangalore.
10. GoK (2016). *Budget Allotment for Zilla Panchayath Plan and Non-Plan for the Year 2010-11 (Zilla, Taluk and Grama Panchayath Schemewise)*, Volume I, II, III & IV: Belgaum, Bengaluru, Mysore & Gulbarga Division, Bangalore.

11. Grimble, R. J. (1999). Economic instruments for improving water use efficiency: theory and practice. *Agricultural Water Management*, 40, 77-82.
12. Helmsing, A.H.J. (2002). Decentralisation, enablement, and local governance in low-income countries. In: *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy* (2002) Volume 20(3) June, pages 317 - 340
13. Ministry of Drinking Water and Sanitation. (2011). *Twelfth Five Year Plan 2012-2017*. New Delhi: Report of the Working Group on Rural Domestic Water and Sanitation, GoI, Sept.
14. Oates, Wallace. (1993). Fiscal Decentralisation and Economic Development. *National Tax Journal* 46: 237-43.
15. Puliani, and Puliani. (2000). *The Karnataka Panchayat Raj Act, 1993*. Bangalore: Karnataka Law Journal Publications.
16. Shah A. and M. Andrews. (2005). Assessing Local Government Performance in Developing Countries. In A. Shah, *Public Services Delivery: Public Sector, Governance and Accountability Series* (pp. 63-80). Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.
17. Sita Sekhar, M. N. (2008). *Decentralised Service Delivery in Panchayats: A Pilot Citizens' Audit*. Bangalore-72: Public Affairs Centre.
18. Smits Stef and John Butterworth (2005): *Literature review: Local government and integrated water resources management (Draft)*. IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre, Delft, the Netherlands. URL: <http://www.ircwash.org/sites/default/files/Smits-2005-Literature.pdf> (Accessed on 24 December 2016).
19. Tanzi, V. (1996). Fiscal Federalism and Decentralisation: A Review of Some Efficiency and Macroeconomic Aspects. *Annual Bank Conference on Development Economics 1995* (pp. 295-316). Washington D. C.: the World Bank.
20. Tiebout, C. (1956). A Pure Theory of Local Expenditures. *Journal of Political Economy* (64), 416-424.
21. UNDP. (2006). *Human Development Report 2006, Beyond Scarcity: Power, Poverty and the Global Water Crisis*. New York: Oxford University Press.
22. U N D P. ( 1 9 9 7 ) . *Human Development Report*, 1997. New York: Oxford University Press
23. Varnashi, Sathya Prakash (2017, January). *Recharging the Borewell*. The Hindu, January 28, pp. 4.
24. Yu and E. Araral.(n.d.). Water governance: Critique, Theory and Evidence from Asia. Retrieved February 23, 2017, from URL: <https://lkyspp.nus.edu.sg/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/Water-governance1.pdf>.

**Appendix Table 1: Allocated Funds from higher governments to GPs under Rural Water Supply in Karnataka**

(Rs. in Lakhs)

Name of the Districts	Allocated fund to GP			% of receipts to total receipts			Growth Rate
	2010-11	2013-14	2016-17	2010-11	2013-14	2016-17	
South Karnataka Districts							
Bangalore (U)	30	40	14	0.52	0.26	0.02	-0.32
Bangalore (R)	24	24	13	0.41	0.16	0.02	-0.26
Chitradurga	35	35	36	0.60	0.23	0.06	0.01
Kolar	18	20	20	0.31	0.13	0.03	0.05
Shimoga	36	36	70	0.62	0.23	0.11	0.39
Tumkur	104.34	104	104	1.80	0.67	0.17	0.00
Mysore	63	58.49	125	1.08	0.38	0.20	0.41
Chikamagaluru	33	34	48	0.57	0.22	0.08	0.21
Chikkaballapur	24	24	22	0.41	0.16	0.04	-0.04
Davanegere	55	55	35	0.95	0.36	0.06	-0.20
Dakshina Kannada	32	34	47	0.55	0.22	0.08	0.21
Hassan	67	72	88	1.15	0.47	0.14	0.15
Kodagu	24	24	41	0.41	0.16	0.07	0.31
Mandya	65	65	114	1.12	0.42	0.18	0.32
Chamarajnagar	40	42	54	0.69	0.27	0.09	0.16
Ramanagar	17	36	58	0.29	0.23	0.09	0.85
Udupi	20	30	47	0.34	0.19	0.08	0.53
North Karnataka Districts							
Belgaum	50	50	76	0.86	0.32	0.12	0.23
Bijapur	35	35	128	0.60	0.23	0.20	0.91
Dharwar	13.17	16	13	0.23	0.10	0.02	-0.01
Uttar Kannada	40	50	66	0.69	0.32	0.11	0.28
Gulbarga	47	53	67	0.81	0.34	0.11	0.19
Ballari	34	40	27	0.59	0.26	0.04	-0.11
Bidar	37	37	54	0.64	0.24	0.09	0.21
Raichuru	48	60	64	0.83	0.39	0.10	0.15
Bagalkot	23	23	35	0.40	0.15	0.06	0.23
Gadag	22	22	23	0.38	0.14	0.04	0.02
Haveri	20	26.22	19	0.34	0.17	0.03	-0.03
Koppal	19	19	30	0.33	0.12	0.05	0.26
Yadgir	25	26	48	0.43	0.17	0.08	0.39
Total	1100.51	1190.71	1586	18.94	7.69	2.53	0.20
Total allocation under rural water supply scheme to GPs	5809.47	15483.21	62586				2.28

Source: GoK Documents for various years 2010, 2013 & 2016

**Appendix Table 2: Differential tax rates on water service in selected GPs in Karnataka  
(In Rs.)**

Name of the GP	Water Rate (Yearly)	
	Special	General
<b>Kuravatthi</b>	300	100
<b>Hagarnuru</b>	720	360
<b>Kennalu</b>	480	360
<b>Jakkanahalli</b>	300	120

*Note: Special-is individual tap connection, General- is public tap source*

*Source: Resolution Register from concerned GP*

**Appendix Table 3: Knowledge about water rate /tax by elected members in selected GPs**

Details	Percentage of elected members			
	Kuravatthi GP	Hagaranur GP	Kennalu GP	Jakkanahalli GP
No. of elected members paid water tax	50.00	57.14	61.54	58.33
No. of elected members not paid water tax	50.00	42.86	38.46	41.67
<b>Total</b>	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

*Source: Primary survey*



---

## **People's Participation in Gram Sabha: A Comparative Study Between Panchayat and Village Committee, Tripura, India**

**Purbita Gupta & Jayanta Choudhury**

### **Section I**

#### **Introduction**

Panchayati Raj Institution (PRI) plays an important role as a rural institution in the development of a village. Being a decentralised institution Panchayati Raj has overcome its historic journey and is finally recognised, protected and preserved by the inclusion of a new chapter in the Constitution, namely 73rd Amendment Act, 1992. As a special feature of the amendment, the Act restored the important role of the Gram Sabha as Article 243A states that, "A Gram Sabha may exercise such powers and perform such functions at the village level as the Legislature of a State may, by law, provide". It is a body consisting of persons registered in the electoral roll of a village or a group of villages which elect a panchayat. A vibrant and enlightened Gram Sabha is central to the success of Panchayati Raj System. It is also expected that the Gram Sabha will be an active institution for the development activities based on the local needs.

#### **Concept of Gram Sabha**

Gram Sabha is the centre of democratic power in the village and is the centre of activity. The basic philosophy in the concept of Gram Sabha is villagers, as a collective body to discuss, decide holistically about the village issues, and problems of particular groups, etc. It is the cornerstone of the entire process of democratic decentralization in India initiated through 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act 1992. Hence, the success or failure of the Panchayati Raj System largely depends on how powerful and effective the Gram Sabha is at the decentralised level to fulfil the desires and aspirations of the people. Recognising the critical role of the Gram Sabha in village economy, Gandhiji had said that true democracy could not be worked by some persons sitting at the top. It had to be worked from below by the people of every village. It is an integral part of the Gandhian concept of village Swaraj (self-rule).

---

The concept of Gram Sabha (village assembly) has been evolved through a historical process of people's struggle for their participation in developmental activities at different layers of governance including at local level. The Gram Sabha (GS) consists of all the adults of a village and thus designated as corporate body and the Gram Panchayat which is its Executive Committee. This concept has also received approval from several Indian political thinkers like Jai Prakash Narayan and Mahatma Gandhi. Jai Prakash Narayan, a socialist thinker of India, advocated direct democracy at the village level in the form of Gram Sabha. It is the basic institution of decentralized governance which is known as the first modern political institution that seeks to place direct political power in the hands of the people, without mediation of elected representatives. According to Rao and Sanyal (2009) the Gram Sabha has become arguably the largest deliberative institution in Indian history at the heart of two million little village democracies which affect the lives of 700 million rural Indians.

The success of Panchayati Raj System in India is not possible unless adequate powers are vested in the Gram Sabha, which has to serve as the heart and soul of the Panchayati Raj System. It is expected to be an epitome of participatory and direct democracy, and is the only body, which should provide

valuable inputs to Gram Panchayat to lead local government effectively. At the same time, Gram Sabha is also to act as a watchdog in the interest of village communities by monitoring the functioning of the Gram Panchayat.

#### **History of Gram Sabha in India:**

The Gram Sabha is the fulcrum of the entire Panchayati Raj System as it enables each and every voter of village to participate in decision-making at local level. Hence, it is a great strength to local people. The idea of involvement and participation of villagers in their development through the institution of Gram Sabha was accepted by the British Administration and it was incorporated in the Village Panchayat Acts passed by some of the provincial legislatures. Section 36(4) the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1933 states: "A Panchayat shall convene, in a manner and at a time prescribed, a meeting of all adult residents of the village and the statement of accounts together with a report on the administration for the preceding year and the programmes of the work proposed for the year following shall be read out and explained at such meeting". However, nothing worthwhile in this regard happened due to the lack of awareness among villagers and indifferent attitudes of political leaders and officials. The findings of the report of the Study Team on the position of Gram Sabha in Panchayati Raj movement are worth

---

mentioning: the adult population of many villages where Gram Sabhas exist were in most of the cases unaware of the rights and responsibilities which belonged to them as members of the Gram Sabha. It was observed that the members of Gram Sabha could not quite often even distinguish between the Gram Sabha and the Panchayat of the village. Article 243-A of the Central Act does not specify its functions and powers except to say that "A Gram Sabha may exercise such powers and perform such functions at the village level as the legislature of a state may, by law, provide". This enabling provision has largely resulted in giving innocuous functions such as to endorse, to recommend, to suggest, to consider annual accounts and administrative reports and audit notes, etc. to the Gram Panchayat. The suggestions and recommendations of the Gram Sabha could be ignored by the Gram Panchayat as these are not binding on the latter. It is important, therefore, that Gram Sabha is empowered to approve and sanction all items of work and activities to be taken up at the Gram Panchayat level. Provisions should be made in the Panchayat Act to enable Gram Sabha to play the role of a planner, decision-maker and auditor.

A brief sketch of history of Gram Sabha in India seems to be worthy at this point. It was in 1947 that Gram Sabha appeared in the local government framework for the first time, in Bihar and

Rajasthan. However, the pioneering efforts to integrate the Gram Sabha with the Panchayat Raj System materialized in Rajasthan in 1953. The approach of Gram Sabha has come up through the study on 'Community Projects and National Extension Service' headed by Balwantrai G. Mehta in January, 1957. It was the evaluation study of Community Development Programme launched in 1952. In its report the study team observed and sums up its findings in the following words, "Development cannot progress without responsibility and power. Community Development can be real only when the community understands its problems, realizes its responsibilities, exercises the necessary powers through its chosen representatives and maintains a constant and intelligent vigilance on local administration". This report is the pioneer of systematic local level administration as it suggested three-tier structure from village to the district bodies having organic linkage with each other followed by devolution of function, funds and functionaries in local level. Following this recommendation of Balwantrai Mehta Committee, several State Governments attempted to formulate Gram Sabha in their own local bodies. In the Gandhian philosophy, Gram Swaraj and Gram Sabha are vital elements of democracy playing significant roles in deciding the destiny of the community and people in a region by ensuring the participation of people in the democratic development of the region.

### Functions and Duties of Gram Sabha in various states of India:

The main objective of introducing Gram Sabha is to have decentralized planning and evaluation with people's participation at the grass root level. A

Gram Sabha may perform various functions for the development of the village with the objective to meet the needs of the local people for their economic development and social justice.

Sl. No.	Functions and Responsibilities	States
1	Auditing of Annual Expenditures	Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Andaman and Nicobar, Kerala.
2	Discussion of the previous year's Administration Report	Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Andaman and Nicobar, Kerala.
3	Direction and Monitoring of Construction Activities	Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Andaman and Nicobar, Kerala.
4	Introduction of New Taxes and Reform of existing Taxes	Andhra Pradesh, Bihar.
5	Beneficiary Selection	Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, U.P.
6	Voluntary Labour Contribution	Bihar, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, West Bengal, U.P.
7	Assistance of Developmental Activities	Assam, Bihar, Karnataka, Kerala, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, U.P.
8	Undertaking the programmes related to continuing Education, Family welfare, etc.	Bihar, Karnataka, Kerala, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, U.P.
9	Creating a sense of unity and community	Bihar, Karnataka, Kerala, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, U.P., Tamil Nadu, West Bengal.
10	Auditing of Expenditures and getting explanations on the same from the president or members of Panchayat	Bihar, Kerala, Punjab, Rajasthan.
11	Examination of Audit Report	Bihar, Kerala.
12	Discussion on Budget and Development Programmes	Kerala, Gujarat, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh.
13	Evaluation and Monitoring of current development projects	Haryana, Kerala.
14	Evaluation of completed Development Projects	Haryana, Kerala.

Source: N. Jagajivan (2000)

---

***Frequency of Meetings of Gram Sabha:***

Sl. No.	Frequency of meeting	States
1	Annual	Madhya Pradesh, Tripura and West Bengal.
2	Twice a year	Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Punjab, Orissa, Rajasthan, Sikkim and Uttar Pradesh.
3	Thrice a year	Tamil Nadu.
4	Four times a year	Assam and Bihar.

*Source: Jain, P.S. (1999)*

## **Section II**

### **Gram Sabha in Tripura**

Gram Sabhas have been constituted under 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act 1992 all over India. The first Panchayat Act was introduced in the year 1959 in Tripura, which is adapted from Panchayat Raj Act, Uttar Pradesh, with some modifications. In this Act a single tier (GP) was proposed. The Tripura Panchayati Raj Rules were framed in 1961 and continued till 1978. The Rules were amended in 1978 to ensure the constitution of the GPs under adult franchise by secret ballot with participation of political parties. At the block level the BDC and advisory body was constituted with the elected Pradhans. The 1st BDC was established in the year 1950 and the RDB was in the year 1972.

### **Composition of Gram Sabha**

The formation of Gram Sabha is compulsory in every Gram Panchayat.

1. When an area is excluded from a gram under clause (a) of sub-section (3) of section 3, such area shall as from the date of the notification referred to in that sub-section, cease to be subject to the jurisdiction of the Gram Panchayat of that gram and unless the State Govt. otherwise directs, to the rules, orders, directions and notifications in force therein.
2. When an area is included in a gram clause (b) of sub-section (3) of section 3, the Gram Panchayat for that gram shall, as from the date of the notification referred to in that

---

sub-section, have jurisdiction over such area and, unless the State Govt. otherwise directs, all rules, orders, directions and notifications in force in that gram shall apply to the area as included.

3. When an area of any gram is divided under clause (c) of sub-section (3) of section 3, so as to constitute two or more grams, the Gram Panchayat of the gram shall, from the date of the notification referred to in that sub-section, cease to exist and there shall be reconstitution of the Gram Panchayat for the newly reconstituted grams in accordance with the provisions of this Act.
4. When an areas of two or more grams are united under clause (d) of sub-section (3) of section 3, so as to constitute a single gram, the Gram Panchayats of the said grams shall, as from the date of the notification referred to in that sub-section, cease to exist for the new gram in accordance with the provisions of this Act.
5. When under sub-section (3) of section 3, any area is excluded from, or included in a gram or gram is divided so as to constitute two or more grams or two or more grams are united to constituted a single gram, the properties, funds and liabilities of the Gram

Panchayat or Gram Panchayats affected by such reorganization shall vest in such Gram Panchayat or Gram Panchayats and in accordance with such allocation, as may be determined by order in writing by the prescribed authority and such determination shall be final.

6. An order made under sub-section (5) may contain such supplemental, incidental and consequential provision as may be necessary to give effect to such reorganization.

***Convening of Meeting:***

1. The procedure for convening and conducting the meetings of the Gram Sabha shall be such as may be prescribed.
2. It shall be the responsibility of the Pradhan to convene the meeting of the Gram Sabha annually in such manner as specified under the Act.

***Vigilance Committee:***

There shall be constituted a Vigilance Committee for each Gram Sabha with number of persons and by such authority as may be prescribed to supervise the Gram Panchayat works, schemes and other activities and to put up reports concerning them in its meeting.

---

***Presiding Officer:***

Every meeting of the Gram Sabha shall be presided over by the Pradhan of the concerned Gram Panchayat and in his absence Upa-Pradhan shall preside over the meeting

***Matters for Consideration:***

The Gram Sabha shall consider the following matters;

- a. The annual statement of accounts of the Gram Panchayat, the report of administration of the preceding financial year and the last audit notes and replies, if any, made thereto.
- b. The budget of the Gram Panchayat for the next financial year.
- c. The report in respect of development programmes of the Gram Panchayat relating to the preceding year and development programmes proposed to be undertaken during the current year.

***Quorum:***

In Tripura quorum for the Gram Sabha is 1/8 of the total population and for the Gram Sansad (Ward Sabha) 1/5 of the total population.

***Gram Sabha:***

Tripura has made provision for Gram Sabha under the law. The Gram Sabha is required to be held at least once

in a year. There are no pre-fixed days for such meeting. 1/8 of the total number of voters needs to be present to fulfil the quorum. No separate quorum has been fixed specifically for women, S.T/S.C, landless, etc.

***Gram Sansad (Ward Sabha):***

Tripura has made provision for Ward Sabhas (Gram Sansad) at the ward level under the law. Ward Sabhas are required to be held at least twice in a year. There are no prefixed days for such meeting. Gram Sansad quorum shall be 1/5 of the total number of the voters. No separate quorum has been fixed specifically for women, S.T/S.C, landless, etc.

***Social Audit:***

Social Audit is one of the strong measures to look after the development of the village. It is a process through which details of the resources, both financial and non-financial are recorded. Social Audits can also allow people to enforce accountability and transparency thus providing the ultimate users an opportunity to scrutinize all the development initiatives taken by the Panchayats. Social Audits are mandatory as per the 73rd Constitutional Amendment, through which the village communities are empowered to conduct social audit of all the development work in their respective villages and the concerned authorities are duly bound to facilitate

---

them. It is expected to contribute to the process of empowerment of the beneficiaries and generate demand for the effective delivery of programmes. Special Gram Sabha may be arranged

to conduct Social Audits of all the previous works in addition to ongoing development works as an item of discussion in the meeting.

### **Section III Empirical Study**

#### **Flavour of People's Participation from the Ground: Comparison between Panchayat and Village Committee**

According to UNDP (1993), participation means that people are closely involved in economic, social, cultural and political processes that affect their lives. Uphoff and Cohen define participation as a people's involvement in decision making processes, in implementing programmes and sharing in the benefits of development programmes and their involvement in the efforts to evaluate such programmes. Gram Sabha is one of the best platforms to encourage people's participation at ground level as the Constitution 73rd Amendment Act 1992 has recognized the Gram Sabha as a statutory unit. It is defined as a body consisting of persons recognized in the electoral rolls relating to a village comprised within the area of Panchayati Raj at the village level. The present paper was based on people's participation in Gram Sabha and it compares between panchayat and village committees in Tripura.

#### **Objectives of the Study:**

1. To study the socio-economic condition of the respondents.
2. To assess the level of people's participation in Gram Sabha.

#### **Study Area:**

The study was based on the collection of data and analysis of data obtained from the primary sources. The data were collected from Sambhuram Para ADC village and Kasba Gram Panchayat under Lefunga and Bishalgarh RD Blocks respectively.

#### **Sample Size:**

Total 95 respondents have been selected from two blocks, 42 respondents were covered from Lefunga RD Block, and 54 respondents were selected from Bishalgarh RD Block as a representation of people's participation in panchayat and village committee as well.

#### **Mode of Data Collection:**

**Primary data:** Data were collected from primary as well as



---

secondary information. Primary information was collected through well-structured questionnaire and personal interview with target respondents. Secondary information was collected from various books, journals, reports, acts, gazette notifications and internet sources.

### **Findings of the study:**

#### **Socio-Economic Background**

Out of total respondents of Village Committee 42.86 percent were covered as female voters who have participated in Gram Sabha meeting organised in their village. On the other hand, 35.18 percent female respondents were covered from Gram Panchayat area. Educational qualification of the respondents of ADC's was higher than panchayat areas. 35.72 percent respondents under Lefunga RD block were secondary level pass. 33.33 percent respondents of panchayat were mainly dependent on farming as a primary occupation, whereas 52.38 percent respondents under village committee worked as daily labourers which indicates lack of cultivable land in ADC areas.

#### **Involvement in panchayat activities**

The respondents of panchayat as well as village committee were not highly involved in the activities of rural local bodies as the study found that 78.85 percent respondents from panchayat and 92.68 percent of the

participants of village sansad were not involved in any activities of gram panchayat and village committee respectively.

#### **Knowledge about Gram Sabha**

Local people should be aware about Gram Sabha and its proceedings as it is the platform of people's participation. In this context the study found that 92.59 percent respondents of panchayat have knowledge about Gram Sabha; while 97.62 percent were aware about the village assembly. The percentage of unaware respondents in gram panchayat was 7.41.

#### **Motivation for participation in Gram Sabha**

Motivation is very much necessary for the participation of people in Gram Sabha. Here the study found that, 71.43 percent respondents of ADC areas were motivated by public announcement and the messages of elected panchayat members in their locality. 33.33 percent respondents of panchayat were also motivated through the same medium. Here the percentage of self-motivation is very less; in case of panchayat it was 25.93 percent and in ADC areas it was 19.04 percent.

#### **Attendance in Gram Sabha**

Regular attendance in gram sabha meeting is one of the important indicators of participation. Here 45.24

---

percent respondents of village committee were comparatively more active than gram panchayat as they were always present in the gram sabha meeting. Study found that, 57.41 percent respondents of gram panchayat were sometimes present in the meeting. It indicates the lack of interest of respondents in gram sabha meeting.

#### **Purpose of attending Gram Sabha meeting**

The respondents of GP and ADC areas were found to attend the gram sabha meeting for the fulfilment of their personal interest. Study has found that 67.44 percent respondents from panchayat and 50 percent respondents of village committee were interested about their personal benefits only. Very few are concerned about their village development. Only 34.38 percent from ADC areas attended the gram sabha for the purpose of their village as well as their own development. 31.25 percent respondents from the studied village committee strongly agreed that their purpose was fulfilled. In contrast, the picture in case of gram panchayat was not encouraging as only 13.95 percent respondents said that their purpose was fulfilled.

#### **Participation in decision making process in Gram Sabha**

Though people participated in gram sabha and other development activities, their participation in

decision making process was very low. The study found that 77.56 percent and 97.62 percent respondents of Gram Panchayat and Village Committee never participated in decision making process in gram sabha. Only 12.24 percent respondents of Kasba Gram Panchayat stated that they always participated in decision making process in gram sabha.

#### **Participation through problem sharing activities**

Active participation is not possible if people do not feel free to share their own problems at the grassroots level. Here the study found that all the respondents of panchayats and village committees did get the opportunity to share their own problems and the panchayat bodies have the tendency to listen to these too. Here 90.23 and 96.88 percent respondents from panchayat and village committee agreed about their tendency to listen in carefully.

#### **Suggestions**

With these above findings some suggestive measures need to be taken and these are mentioned below:

1. The people need to be more involved in village development and panchayat related activities and to ensure their active involvement, rural local bodies must play their role as a people friendly institution at the grassroots level.

2. Presently people are aware about gram sabhas they have enough knowledge about it. But active participation in gram sabha is yet not achieved. In this context, the authorities of gram panchayat and village committee need to be made aware of the importance of people's participation in village assembly.
3. People are not interested in attending the gram sabha meeting as they are busy with their own jobs. As gram sabha is the platform of the voters living in the village, it is important that they attend and participate. Therefore the authorities of rural local bodies need to mobilize the voters by creating awareness especially among women and the youth.
4. The participants of gram sabha are mainly interested about their personal affairs, but this needs to change as gram sabha is a collective platform for the development of the village and its people. In this context, the authorities of rural local bodies need to sensitize the villagers by organizing various sensitization programmes at the grassroots level.

### Conclusion

As people know that gram sabha is the platform of people's participation, it is important to encourage participation

of everybody in village assembly. Though people are aware about gram sabha they are not much interested to participate. Even all the voters of the village are not participating and here the tendency of proxy attendance is high. As gram sabha has not yet fulfilled its objectives, the authorities of rural local bodies need to sensitise the village residents and in this context the bodies of panchayat and village committee need to emphasise on adult education in their village as education will impart knowledge and awareness to village residents about gram sabha and ward sansad in their village..

### References

1. Bhose, S.G.R.J (2003), NGOs and Rural Development: Theory and Practise, Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi, pp. 133-135
2. Dwarakanath, D. H (2013), Gram Sabha- A Milestone for Sustainable Development in Rural India, Kurukhetra, vol.61, No. 7, pp.5-8
3. Jain, P.S. (1999), Working of Gram Sabhas: Some Issues, Choudhury and Jain (eds) in Strengthening Village Democracy, National Institute of Rural Development, Hyderabad, pp. 149-151
4. Jain, P.S. (1999), Strengthening of Gram Sabha, Choudhury and Jain (eds) in Strengthening Village Democracy, National

- 
- Institute of Rural Development, Hyderabad, pp. 163-166
5. Muraleedharan, K. (2006). Participatory Development Issues and Lessons, Serials Publications, Delhi, p.33-37
  6. N. Jagajivan (2000), Jagajivan et.al (ed) in Popular Transparency, (Malayalam) Kerala State Planning Board, pp 35-36
  7. Rao. V and Sanyal, P. (2009) "Dignity through Discourse: Poverty and the Culture of Deliberation in Indian Village Democracies", World Bank Research Working Paper, No. 4924, World Bank.
  8. Singh, K. R. (2013), From The Ground People's Participation in Gram Sabha of Bihar, Kurukhetra, vol. 61, No. 7, pp. 26-29
  9. Torgal, N. V. (2014), Empowering Gram Sabhas: A Not, Local Government Quarterly, pp. 92-96
  10. Tripura Panchayat Act, 1993
  11. Veerasha, N. (2010), Functioning of Gram Sabha in Tamilnadu: A study in selected village panchayats in Sreperumbudur block, Kancheepuram District, in Hasan & Prasad (eds), Proceedings of the National Seminar on Gram Sabha, Abdul Nazir Sab State Institute of Rural Development, Mysore, Government of Karnataka, pp. 27-40

□ □ □ 40

### 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 e-mailed to us in digital form as a Word file.

Articles could normally be between 3000 and 4000 words, though we do not wish to limit the size. As we print in black and white, tables, charts, graphs, images, etc. need to be compatible. We reserve the right to edit for sense, style and space.

Contributors may mail their articles to the Chief 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 (E), Mumbai – 400051, India.  
Tel : +91-22-2657 1713 / 2657 1714 / 6180 5600  
E-mail : ailsgquarterlyjournal@gmail.com, info.algq@gmail.com  
Fax : +91-22-2657 2115

---

## **Emerging Leadership in Local Governance: Case Study of Ratnagiri District**

**Aruna Khamkar**

### **Introduction:**

Inclusion of reserved seats in political institutions is a product of centuries' contribution made by feminist movements and various women's organisations all over the world. With an increasing recognition among international community of women's historic exclusion from structures of power, a global commitment has been made to redress gender imbalance in politics. The intrinsic argument calls for equal participation of women in politics from the human rights perspective as they constitute half proportion of population. Instrumentalist argument pushed for women's greater participation on the essentialist ground that men and women are different in vision and concept of politics<sup>2</sup>. Therefore it is assumed (somewhere proved) that women in politics will bring a special caring focus and values to politics.

What is generally noticeable all over the world is that women are often in front ranks when a political struggle is in its ideological phase but they become invisible when the struggle enters the phase of distributing the fruits of power<sup>3</sup>. Hence, to maintain gender balance in politics, 'fast track' policy is accepted rather than 'incremental track'. Electoral gender quotas represent 'the fast track'<sup>4</sup>. Electoral gender quotas make a huge positive difference to the election of women to political bodies. In a total of 67, or 25.1 per cent, of parliamentary chambers across the world, women now represent more than 30 per cent of the membership<sup>5</sup>.

### **Indian Scenario**

The issue of reserved seats for women used to surface in the political discussions during the 1930s in India. The early fifties saw the enactment of several legislations which established formal equality and removed social

---

disabilities. Some women who had taken an active part in the freedom struggle were elected or nominated to legislative bodies or occupied other positions of power and social esteem. In 1974, 'Towards Equality' report was published which drew attention to some of the alarming facts with regard to employment, political participation and health status of Indian women. This committee rejected introduction of reservation for women as 'women are a category, not a community'<sup>6</sup>. The issue of reservation was periodically raised by political activists as well as serving women legislators in various government sponsored conferences. 1980s saw the emergence of vocal and visible autonomous women's groups which placed feminist issues firmly on the public agenda—dowry, rape, and violence against women. In 1985, government of Rajiv Gandhi indicated its desire to give greater priority to women's issues. C. P. Sujaya, the new joint secretary in charge of the women's division started working on it. Then government announced commission of core group to prepare NPP (National Perspective Plan) for women. Final version of the NPP recommended 30% reservation only in panchayats and municipalities to be filled by election. This version was then incorporated into 64th Constitutional Amendment bill 1989 and finally emerged as 73rd and 74th constitutional amendment 1992. By

1996 differences of the 'daughters of independence' (as called by Mazumdar) were acknowledged.

### **Women in Panchayat Raj Institutions**

73rd and 74th Amendments enforce all states in India to make necessary legislative provisions. Maharashtra was among those few states which had already established Panchayat Raj system and became functional on 1st May, 1962. The Maharashtra government constituted several committees in the years ahead, like L. N. Bongirwar committee and P. B. Patil committee. On 23rd April, 1994 the amended Mumbai Gram Panchayat Act, 1958 and The Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 came into force in Maharashtra.

Historically, panchayats (village councils) in India were local, deliberative bodies. Women have had more success in gaining access to decision-making positions in local government than to those at central government level. Research has shown that this is due mainly to: local government being easier for women to fit into their lives along with family responsibilities and employment; local government being more accessible as there are more positions available and less competition for places than in central legislatures; reserved seats for women on local authorities; more

acceptance of women in local government as it is seen as an extension of women's involvement in their communities. Vina Mazumdar and

Lotika Sarkar agreed during preparation of 'Towards Equality' report 1974 that women in villages are more developed<sup>7</sup>.

**Table 1 Number of elected panchayat representatives in India**

Panchayats	Total number of institutes	Total no. of elected representatives (in lakhs)	% of elected women
Gram panchayat	2,47,166	29.30	46.4
Block panchayat	6,283	1.80	44.67
Zilla panchayat	595	0.17	47.88
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,54,044</b>	<b>31.27</b>	

[http://www.panchayat.gov.in/documents/10198/456811/MoPR%20at%20a%20Glance\\_English%20%2820.09.2016%29.pdf](http://www.panchayat.gov.in/documents/10198/456811/MoPR%20at%20a%20Glance_English%20%2820.09.2016%29.pdf) (accessed on 13/08/2017 at 10.33 pm)

**Table 2 Number of elected panchayat representatives In Maharashtra**

Panchayats	Total number of institutes	Total no. of elected representatives	Number of elected women
Gram panchayat	28,006	2,23,857	74,620
Block panchayat	351	3,922	1,307
Zilla panchayat	34	1,961	654
<b>Total</b>	<b>28,391</b>	<b>2,29,740</b>	<b>76,581</b>

[http://www.nird.org.in/nird\\_docs/RDS/RDS2015-16/rdsindex.html](http://www.nird.org.in/nird_docs/RDS/RDS2015-16/rdsindex.html) (accessed on 15/08/2017 at 02.30 pm)

### Survey report

Among the 35 districts in Maharashtra, Ratnagiri comes under Konkan division. Its special feature is

higher sex ratio (1123 women to 1000 men). Total nine talukas of Ratnagiri district were visited. From each taluka one female and one male sarpanch were selected. So total 18 sarpanchs

were interviewed. Criteria of selection of panchayats was population, ranging between 1500-3500. The whole research is structured under six categories:

1. Personal Profile
2. Professional information
3. Knowledge about administration
4. Cooperation and co-ordination
5. Barriers
6. Opinions/Suggestions

**Table 3 Demographic profile of Ratnagiri**

Number of villages	1537
Total population	16,15,069
Males	7.61 lakhs
Females	8.54 lakhs
Sex ratio (per 1000)	1123
Number of gram panchayats	845
Literacy rate (%)	74.55
Rural (%)	63.6

[https://mahades.maharashtra.gov.in/files/publication/dsa\\_ratnagiri\\_2015.pdf](https://mahades.maharashtra.gov.in/files/publication/dsa_ratnagiri_2015.pdf)

**Table 4 profile of selected villages**

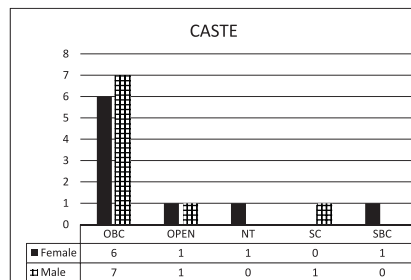
Taluka	Village	Sarpanch	Total members	Female Sarpanch	Percentage
Sangameshwar	Ozare Khurd	Female	126	78	61
	Katvali	Male			
Chiplun	Marg Tamhane	Female	130	60	46.15
	Kondhe	Male			
Dapoli	Karanjgaon	Female	106	61	57.5
	Ladghar	Male			
Rajapur	Oni	Female	101	49	48.5
	Moor	Male			
Lanja	Isavali	Female	60	27	45
	Satvali	Male			



Taluka	Village	Sarpanch	Total members	Female Sarpanch	Percentage
Mandangad	Bhingloli	Female	48	28	58.3
	Mahuborghar	Male			
Khed	Awashi	Female	113	48	42.4
	Asagani	Male			
Guhagar	Malan	Female	64	31	48.4
	Janwale	Male			
Ratangiri	Bhatye	Female	94	49	52.12
	Mirya	Male			

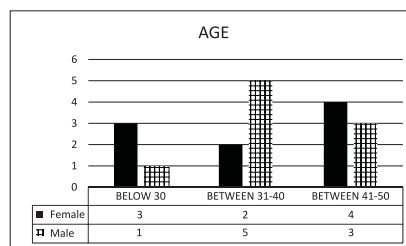
#### 1. Personal Profile:

**Chart 1.1 Distribution of Caste**



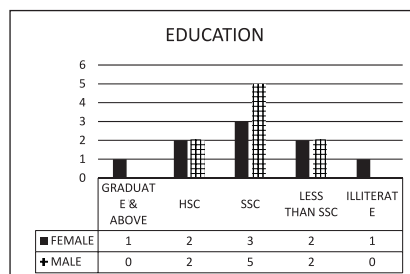
Maximum number of Sarpanchs both male and female belong to Other Backward Category. Open category is unreserved seat for men. Caste plays very important role in election as well as selection of candidate at village level. Contesting election on fake caste is not an issue in a village because due to smaller population everyone knows the candidate's caste.

**Chart 1.2 Distribution of Age**



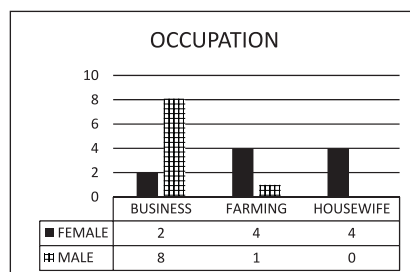
More male Sarpanchs belong to young adult age whereas more female Sarpanchs are found to be either young or middle adult age. This is mainly because at young age they are newly married so less responsibilities at home and can spare time for panchayat and for middle young age, their children complete basic education so some leisure time they get as well as they have a say in house after some years of marriage. But these women hardly take up politics as their career. Whereas men enter into politics as career so they come at young adult age with some experience.

**Chart 1.3 Distribution of Education**



Not a single male found to be either illiterate or highly educated; whereas in females both kinds are found. Most of the Sarpanchs have passed SSC. All of them accepted this fact that education does matter in understanding the administration in real sense. Because every time the law changes, as a head, the person should be updated. However, in the survey it is found that the Sarpanchs who were working effectively were not highly educated. A female Sarpanch who was L.L.B. was totally dependent on husband for panchayat matters.

**Chart 1.4 Distribution of occupational status**

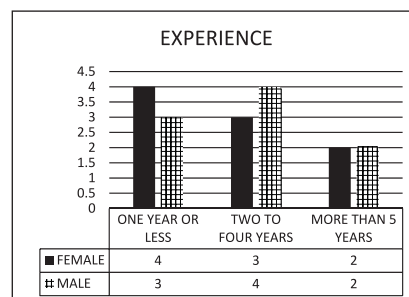


Occupation tells about the earning source, income level as well as other responsibilities. That decides

how much time a person can contribute to panchayat. Most of the female sarpanchs were engaged either in domestic work or farming or both. So they do not go to panchayat every day. Most of the male sarpanchs had business like auto rickshaw, JCB owner, hawker selling Chinese food, carpentry, construction, shop, or marketing. All of them are required to engage in business because sarpanch's honorarium is not sufficient to satisfy basic needs of family. In Maharashtra even though patriarchal family system is practiced, female is not confined to housework only but contributes (earns) for home.

## 2. Professional Information:

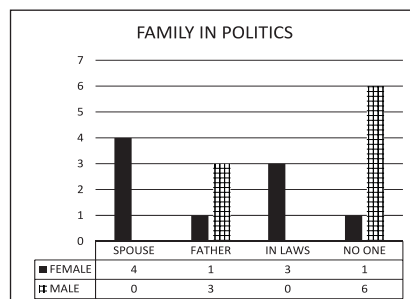
**Chart 2.1 Number of years as Sarpanch**



Larger number of sarpanchs are found to have recently joined. Very few had experience of more than five years. But the experienced sarpanchs were very much familiar with not only village politics but the administration too. There is no gender difference

found in understanding of panchayat after being there for long time. Both male and female were on equal foot while handling the panchayat matters. Those who were recently joined, whether male or female, were dependent on either Gramsevak or ex Sarpanch or other experienced members. Secondly, after being in office for more than two years some female sarpanchs have started developing interest in panchayat. Development of interests is a positive sign to become a good politician and success of Reservation Bill.

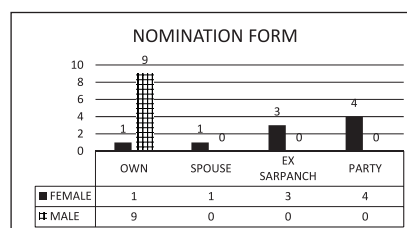
**Chart 2.2 Political background**



It is true that most of the female sarpanchs come to the office with political background. Either of their relatives have political connections. Only one female found to be not having any family backup. She belongs to NT caste and the seat was reserved for that caste, so the village insisted her. Most of the male sarpanchs were not having political background. Some had father from politics. Actually males look at politics as a career. When the village

gets unreserved seat and if they are educated and have good rapport with villagers then they get chance to become a Sarpanch. Gender difference is found here.

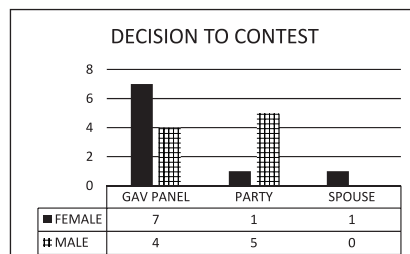
**Chart 2.3 Who filled up nomination form?**



It is generally assumed that females contest election on family saying, so it is rare possibility that they fill up the nomination form. It is proved. I found only one female Pramila Kadam from Isavali Grampanchayat, Talunka Lanjawho filled her form because she was previously ASHA worker (Accredited Social Health Activist). So she was well aware about the process. In case of other females their form is filled up either by party or ex Sarpanch or family because she herself had not decided to contest. In case of males all have filled up their form on their own. Gender difference was found in this case.

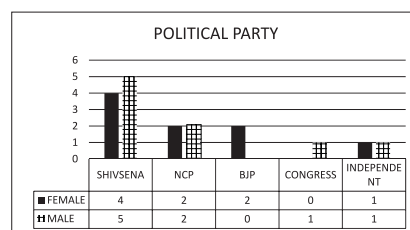
**Chart 2.4 Who decides to contest election?**

In most of the cases of females the village panel decides who will contest



election if the seat gets reserved for either general women or caste women. Sometimes females are forcibly dragged out of house to fill up nomination. Actually political parties plays major role in all the villages. With their support village panels are formed. In case of males too, both village and political party have role. Hardly have they contested election as an independent candidate. So both don't decide on their own to contest.

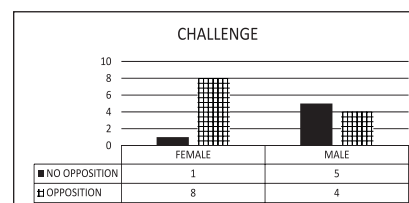
**Chart 2.5 Membership of political party**



In Ratnagiri, Shivsena is a dominant political party. From the above chart it is clearly understood that most of the members are from Shivsena. The other parties have also started making their entry into rural

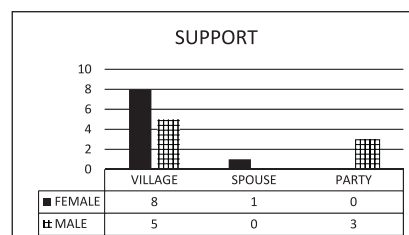
politics of Maharashtra. When I asked about the reason for inclination obviously it is family and friends in case of both males and females. Almost all of them don't want to oppose the trend.

**Chart 2.6 Challenge to victory**



In Gram panchayat elections, female candidates face more opposition than the males. One of the major reason is female candidate is decided either by party or by villagers. So opposition party and ex-Sarpanch who are against the village, want to have their candidate. In case of male candidate it is fifty percent situation. It makes one point clear that electoral politics is gendered.

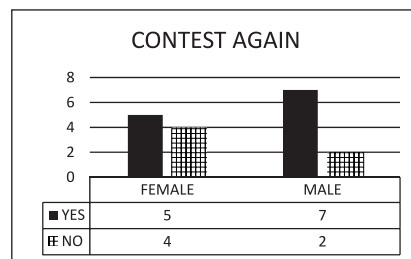
**Chart 2.7 Support mechanisms**



In case of both males and females village support is the most important

thing. Second rank is of party for males. For females generally males from family decide to let the female relative contest. Without his support very rarely females dare to contest. But once they get into it next time they decide on their own. This is applicable for first time election only. Sometimes if the existing Sarpanch has done a good job then the village again insists on him/her to contest.

**Chart 2.8 Willingness to contest**



Males are found to be more willing to contest again. Most of them to contest for Panchayat Samiti or Zilla Parishad. Whereas 60% females are willing to contest but at the Grampanchayat only. When asked for reason, most of them are afraid of high level politics as well as because they have no money to contest. One female said that party demanded 2 lakhs to contest for Panchayat Samiti. Secondly, Grampanchayat is nearby to their home so they can manage. This is not the hurdle for males. Money is a big obstacle for them too.

### 3. Knowledge about administration:

All sarpanchs were having general information about panchayat working. Those who were experienced talked in detail about the panchayat whereas those who were novice used to get answers from their respective gramsevaks. There was no gender difference found in professional knowledge. In following issues they all gave common responses.

#### Finance:

- Everyone knew about fourteenth pay commission. The funds which they receive used to be utilized in meeting the basic needs of the village like road, water, community hall, etc.
- No gender difference found in spending the funds on concerned activities. Both female and male were spending on necessities of village.
- Both were aware about the funds used to be collected from MLA and MP. Most of the female sarpanchs also approached those MLA and MP for getting share of that fund for village.

#### Gram Sabha:

- In case of Gram Sabha, all sarpanchs have active participation in all issues of

---

village. They know that beneficiaries were selected in Gram Sabha. It should be called at least four times and special Gram Sabhatwice. How to declare it, how the agenda is decided, everyone was well aware except one illiterate female Sarpanch from Bhingloli Grampanchayat, Mandangad.

- Most of the times the gram sabhas get adjourned due to lack of quorum. When people come to know about new government scheme and they can get benefit only at that time they remain present for sabha.
- In case of Mahila Sabha, 90% male and female sarpanches said it is called one hour prior to Gram Sabha. Because even though by rule it should be called one day prior to Gram Sabha, most of the women don't want to spend one day more. Women engaged in not only domestic work but they go on daily wages or farming. So if Mahila Sabha is conducted on the day of Gram Sabha their time gets saved. Here gender difference is found. Women in villages hesitate to talk to male sarpanch and in Gram Sabha. With female sarpanch they feel comfortable. Sometimes they asked questions while meeting on road also. Women in villages are more

comfortable with female sarpanch. Because of female sarpanch they come to know about the various schemes of government for women and girls. In Mahila Sabha all women related issues like self-help group, tailoring machine, health and water used to be discussed.

#### **Schemes/programmes:**

- No gender difference was found in initiating or implementing government schemes, programmes or any kind of development work. As soon as the scheme is declared, all sarpanchs and gramsevaks work for getting it done for village and villagers.
- For village: electrification, roads: tar road and soil road, tap water scheme, school building, gharkul scheme, repairing pipeline, health center, toilet, bus stop, streetlight, pension, etc.
- For gram panchayat: road, hall, separate building, toilet, library, computer, etc.
- For women/girls: vocational guidance to Self Help Groups, training to start small business like vegetation, sewing machine, artifacts for farming, health seminar, water tap at nearby home, etc.

---

#### **4. Cooperation and co-ordination:**

##### **➤ Gramsevak:**

All sarpanches were getting support and information from Gramsevak. Only few male sarpanch treat gramsevak as government servant otherwise all have friendly relations with him. Female sarpanches used to call him as “Bhau” (brother). New sarpanchs are totally dependent upon the gramsevak. But the gramsevaks are found to be little cautious while interacting with female sarpanchs. Sometimes they do not convey certain messages to her, give only limited information if asked for, force her to sign on cheque on emotional ground like “kaybai, tumchavishwasnahikamazyavar” (don't you trust me). They maintain connections with the contractors without knowledge of sarpanch and get some benefit into the contract. Sometimes they handle more than one panchayat so can't give sufficient time. Actually for female sarpancha appointment of gramsevika is provided, but they are less in number. (In Ratnagiri only 22 gramsevikas and 87 gramsevaks).

##### **➤ Members:**

All sarpanchs agree that they get full support of all members. It is not at all that female members will support female sarpanch or male will support male. If the members belong to

opposition party initially they trouble them but later they cooperate. It is upto the sarpanch how he/she maintains professional relation with members.

##### **Officials of higher authorities:**

Usually the sarpanch meet Block Development Officer in panchayat samiti or Chief Executive Officer in Zilla Parishad. Gender difference was found during the visit. Male sarpanchs used to go alone or sometimes with gramsevak. Actually female sarpanchs get afraid to ask any question or don't understand the administrative language of officers, so they go along with either gramsevak or members while meeting them. Male sarpanchs have an idea of how to get information and benefit for their village, so they don't ask anything. But male sarpanch used to go to panchayat samiti more often whereas it is not possible for female to do so. All sarpanchs are satisfied with the officials.

##### **➤ Villagers:**

All sarpanchs have done many activities with the help of villagers. Their collective efforts were found in constructing bandhara, plantation, filling up of potholes and village cleaning. Only difference was found when the female sarpanch order any person like say, electrician to change street light, he'll ignore. He will only reply okay will do. The same thing if male sarpanch says immediately the work gets done.

---

## 5. Barriers:

In the study it was observed that female sarpanchs face more problems than male sarpanchs on all counts.

### ➤ **Burden of work:**

Female sarpanchs have to complete their domestic duties and come to panchayat. Domestic duties include not only work at home but at farmland or tailoring kind of business. They don't get excuse from family responsibility. So they don't come regularly to panchayat or even attend meetings. Whereas male sarpanchs are free from domestic work. They can give more time to panchayat.

### ➤ **Social setup:**

Accepting female sarpanch as their village head is quite challenging for people. They are with this mind set that administration is not the woman's cup of tea. So usually they approach either husband of that sarpanch or talk to gramsevak.

### ➤ **Opposition:**

Female sarpanch is often questioned by ex sarpanch and village head at the time of gramsabha, when they know she is new. They try to create terror in

her mind so that she resigns and they could elect sarpanch of their choice.

### ➤ **Financial barrier:**

According to Shirin M. Rai, there is no use in working to get more women in politics if they have no economic support<sup>9</sup>. Both male and female sarpanchs are not satisfied with whatever returns they are getting. It is very less like Rs. 400/600. Both cannot manage with this amount. They have to work separately to earn money for family needs. Secondly peon's salary is much more than the sarpanch. So he looks down on sarpanch. Peon works only for limited period. Whereas sarpanch spends whole day for village. So especially female seems not interested in spending time and energy in this fruitless job.

### ➤ **Lack of administrative support /co-ordination:**

Generally gramsevak used to give information to sarpanch about administration. Most often females face the problem of lack of support. Gramsevak doesnot give complete information. Whatever is asked only that much answer. Most of the things they hid from her. They don't co-ordinate properly especially with female sarpanch.



---

➤ **Corruption:**

Usually gramsevak stays in a panchayat for more years than the sarpanch. So he develops good contacts with the vendors who provide stationary or required material to panchayat. If sarpanch is of their side they maintain his/her share. But if its ignorant female sarpanch or honest male sarpanch these gramsevak ask them to sign on cheques. If they ask for clarification, their typical answer is that don't you trust me?

➤ **Difficulty to control subordinates:**

Especially female sarpanchs find it very hard to control other members and employees. If she gives any work to him they just ignore or give arrogant answers.

➤ **Inferiority complex:**

Due to lack of education, less finance, non-awareness about current trend in politics, stereotype mind set, lack of time, most female sarpanchs remain behind the scenes. They lack confidence. Even though they are the heads of panchayat they are ordered by everyone.

➤ **Misuse;**

Due to unfamiliarity with regular politics, female sarpanchs are

often misused either by the gramsevak or by the other members.

➤ **No strong political party backing:**

Party comes at the time of election only. They are not interested in panchayat level politics. All sarpanchs said that if MLA or MP does not fund those panchayats belonging to opposition party, then they lack funds for development.

➤ **Ignorance:**

Panchayats have several committees. However there is no quota for women on these committees. Again this becomes a way of excluding and marginalizing women members. Study has shown that women are often ignorant about the significance of membership of committees and remain totally ignorant about what is happening actually in the administrative set up. This is often misused by either gramsevak or others in the village or both together.

➤ **Lack of technical knowledge:**

Now due to digitalization, all information is available online. Grampanchayats are supposed to send all data online. Most of the females don't know how to

---

operate the computer. This kind of dependence creates confusion and then disinterestedness.

**6. Opinions/Suggestions:**

❖ **On reservation :**

- It is a welcome change. Due to this policy now the educated women will come ahead. But only reservation is not sufficient to prove yourself. They should stop depending on others. Females themselves should feel interested and come ahead. Then only we can expect some positive outcome of this policy.
- This policy is not futile. Now as female and society is also becoming aware about it. So females themselves on their own meet the officials and get the knowledge.
- Reservation should be conditioned with education. At least females should understand what is written on cheques or documents on which they are signing.

❖ **On male chauvinism:**

- Still large section of males who always try to pressurize females. Very few males give

wholehearted support to female Sarpanch. For Gramsevak also it becomes difficult to accept that his boss is an ignorant female. Peon too, tries to dominate her, as he knows that she is ignorant about panchayat.

- All male sarpanchs are found to be supportive and also concerned about women related issues in villages.

❖ **On corruption:**

- Most of the females are honest initially. As they become familiar with politics, they openly demand share in every tender. After becoming Sarpanch first they reconstruct their home, own car, wear ornaments and new costly sarees, etc. Their lifestyle changes. Sometimes under pressure of family members they accept bribes. The honorarium is also very little, so they need to earn something for doing so much work.
- Many times female sarpanchs suffer in case of misuse of funds. They sign on cheques without knowledge and their name comes under corruption charges.

---

❖ **On training:**

- It is a must for both female and male who are new to politics. Only then they can work effectively. Once in a year training is given by the government which is not enough. Within 2 days how do they learn about everything?
- Secondly, the training material is given in book and they keep the book at home. Language of book is technical which is difficult to understand. They need practical training. Most of the sarpanchs' demand is to get training everyday and at panchayat, at least for initial period.
- For training they come by vehicle, spending the whole day. So their daily income is lost. Whatever allowance they get that is also after reporting to Panchayat Samiti. Allowance is so meagre that they spend more money than what they received. Knowledge gets forgotten.

❖ **On government schemes:**

- When the schemes reach the panchayat, within a day, government demands the beneficiaries' details. It becomes impossible within short duration

of time. Because first of all the panchayat has to find out the beneficiary who can fit in the said criteria, availability of that person, availability of required documents and beneficiaries are decided in Gramsabha. So the Sarpanch expects that few days' time should be given.

- Schemes planned should take into consideration geographical condition of that region. For example, all over Maharashtra the same scheme cannot be implemented notably Employment Guarantee Scheme.
- Policies should be planned for development purpose not for achieving targets. Lengthy procedures should be reduced. After sanctioning any plan, the funds gets deposited but actual work starts very late.
- Paper work has increased. Instead powers should be increased. For constructing or repairing home the power was previously with Sarpanch now it is taken out and given to panchayat samiti. Everytime going to panchayat samiti is not only expensive but time consuming too.

---

**Conclusion:**

Initially when this reservation policy was introduced it had become a mockery (women sarpanchs were called puppets). But now females are coming out and proving to be good politicians. Examples in this survey (two out of nine) are Pramila Kadam, Isavali Grampanchayat, Lanja Taluka and Sakshi Angre, Malan Grampanchayat, Guhagar Taluka. In Ratnagiri, more than fifty percent (52%) women are heading panchayats. Symbolic recognition of women through enhanced political presence is a positive effect of the quota. Another significant aspect is that village women perceive that they can now address the person in power. Earlier the representatives were all men and women could not directly deal with them because of social taboos. Now women can envisage seeking access to female politicians and placing their demands before them. This result indicates that the women's quota has an additional relevance in societies that are highly gender-segregated in nature.

Like Praja foundation has developed the "Corporator Report Card" to assess the performance of BMC councilors, we can develop "Sarpanch Report Card" to assess performance of sarpanchs. Further research is required to find out how their presence is enabling fulfill substantial and transformative representation.

**References:**

1. <https://india.gov.in/my-government/constitution-india/amendments/constitution-india-seventy-third-amendment-act-1992> (accessed on 15/08/2017 at 11.23pm).
2. Samiuddin A. and Khanam, R., (2013), Women's political Empowerment: Obstacles and opportunities, Global Vision Pub., Delhi.
3. Shah, Nandita and Gandhi, Nandita, (2008), The quota question: women and electoral seats, pp 61-81., Dhanda, Meena, (Eds), Reservations for women, Women Unlimited Pub., New Delhi.
4. Dahlerup, Drude, (Eds), (2006), Women, quotas and politics, Routledge Pub., New York.
5. <http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/> (Accessed on 20/05/2017 at 16.13pm).
6. John, Mary, (2008), Reservation and the women's movement in twentieth century India, pp 29-60, Dhanda, Meena, (Eds), Reservations for women, Women unlimited Pub., New Delhi.

- 
7. John, Mary, (Eds), (2008), *Women's studies in India*, Penguin Books, New Delhi.
  8. Kumari, Letha, R., (2006), *Women in Politics: Participation and Governance*, Authors Press, Delhi.
  9. Rai, Shirin, M., "Deliberative Democracy and the Politics of Redistribution: The Case of the Indian Panchayats", *Hypatia*, 2007, Vol. 22, Issue 4, November, pp 64–80.
  10. Thakur, Mini, (2010), *Women empowerment through PRI*, Concept Pub., New Delhi.
  11. <https://indiankanoon.org/doc/1451338/> (Accessed on 14/08/2017 at 10.33 pm).
  12. Buch, Nirmala, "Reservation for women in panchayats: a sop in disguise", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 2009, Vol. XLIV, No. 40, Oct 3, pp 8-10.
  13. Kalpagam, U., "Perspectives for a grassroots feminist theory", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 2002, Vol. XXXVII, No. 47, Nov. 3, pp 4686-4694.
  14. Menon, Nivedita, (2008), *The elusive women: feminism and women's reservation bill*, pp 91-97, John, Mary, (Eds), *Women's studies in India*, Penguin books, New Delhi.
  15. Mazumdar, Vina, (2008), *Historical soundings*, pp 17-28, Dhanda, Meena, (Eds), *Reservations for women*, Women unlimited Pub., New Delhi.
  16. <https://rdd.maharashtra.gov.in/Site/Upload/GR/Publication.pdf> (Accessed on 15/05/2017 17.02 pm.)
  17. [http://www.ucl.ac.uk/dpuprojects/drivers\\_urb\\_change/urb\\_society/pdf\\_gender/UNESCAP\\_Drage\\_Women\\_Local\\_Government\\_Asia\\_Pacific.pdf](http://www.ucl.ac.uk/dpuprojects/drivers_urb_change/urb_society/pdf_gender/UNESCAP_Drage_Women_Local_Government_Asia_Pacific.pdf) (Accessed on 24/05/2017 at 01.22 am).
  18. Thakur, Mini, (2010), *Women empowerment through PRI*, Concept Pub., New Delhi.
  19. Hust, Evelin, *Political Representation and Empowerment: Women in the Institutions of Local Government in Orissa after the 73rd Amendment to the Indian Constitution*, Working Paper No. 6, August, 2002.
  20. Omvedt, Gail, "Women in Governance in South Asia", *Economic and Political Weekly*, Volume. XL, Nos. 44 & 45, October-November 2005, pp. 4746-4753.
-

---

## Book Review

### **Resource Material on Green Buildings & Eco Housing**

*Compiled by the Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies and published by the All India Institute of Local Self-Government, Mumbai. (February, 2010). Two Volumes (32 & 75 pages respectively).*

Since a publication of the RCUES is being reviewed it would be fitting to mention a few words about it. The Regional Centre for Urban and Environmental Studies (RCUES) was established by the Government of India in 1968 as an integral part of the Institute, to undertake policy research, to conduct interdisciplinary programmes, knowledge management, provide technical advisory services, to organize community based interventions, capacity building programmes in urban management and governance, etc. It has also acted as National Resource Centre and Nodal Agency for a number of national programmes. Over the years, the RCUES has, inter alia, brought out a series of Resource Materials on various thematic topics, which have been immensely useful for providing well-researched contents on the topic chosen.

For the last two decades or so there is increasing trend among the high-end constructions to go in for *green building*. A *green building* differs from a conventional building in various aspects as is discussed in this review. During the early 1970s, on facing a major crisis attention of the world was drawn towards finding alternative sources of energy, protection of environment and making optimum use of natural resources. In 1987, the Brundtland Commission gave to the world the concept of *sustainable development*. Around the same time the threat of global warming and climate change came to be realized. In this scenario ecological consideration took precedence in developments and constructions. The idea of *green building* arose on the need of protecting the environment, making optimum use of natural resources and to make buildings eco-friendly that would be in sync with the natural endowments around it. Eco-housing is also a generic description of the buildings of this nature, idea being that they are in sync with the environment around.

The first country to take initiative in this regard was the U.S.A. where the US Green building Council (USGBC) was established in 1993. The council provided norms for certifying green building through their standards called 'Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED)'. Today most the countries have their own such

---

councils/certifying agencies. The Volume I of the publication under review begins by describing the features of the buildings. They represent society's ingenuity and ability to manipulate our environment into forms that serve our purpose. In many ways, building form and functionality is a reflection of our greater human culture. A quotation from an authority is cited there which forcefully reflects the need for the new approach: It is as below:

*"Today even the most advanced building or factory in the world is still a kind of steamship, polluting, contaminating, and depleting the surrounding environment, and relying on scarce amounts of natural light and fresh air. People are essentially working in the dark, and they are often breathing unhealthy air. Imagine, instead, a building as a kind of tree. It would purify air, accrue solar income, produce more energy than it consumes, create shade and habitat, enrich soil, and change with the seasons."*

Similarly, some findings from the World Watch Institute are graphically indicated there, namely that a building consumes:

- 2/5 of world energy production
- 1/6 of all water pumped out of natural flows
- 1/4 of all virgin wood harvested (not including furniture).

In fact, the initial 3 pages of Volume I are information packed, some of which needs to be reproduced here in order to have some insight of this concept.

Definition of a green building as given by the Indian Green Building Council is mentioned there with the aspects of green building planning as under:

*"A green building is one which uses less water, optimizes energy efficiency, conserves natural resources, generates less waste and provides healthier spaces for occupants, as compared to a conventional building."*

As stated therein the following aspects of the building design are looked into in an integrated way in a green building:

1) Site planning, 2) Building envelope design, 3) Building system design HVAC (heating ventilation and air conditioning), lighting, electrical, and water heating, 4) Integration of renewable energy sources to generate energy onsite, 5) Water and waste management, 6) Selection of ecologically sustainable materials, 7) Indoor environmental quality (maintains indoor thermal and visual comfort and air quality).

Green buildings have emerged as alternative to conventional buildings as they give many benefits as mentioned in the above mentioned definition.



---

**Part I**, section 1.1 contains the detailed norms for certifying a building as green building according to the 1) **GRIHA system** developed by The Energy and Resource Institute (TERI) with case studies, 2) Indian Green Building Code and 3) LEED India. Information of the TERI and GRIHA rating system are mentioned in details, which consists of 34 criteria categorized under various sections such as Site Selection, Site Planning, Conservation and Efficient Utilization of Resources, Building Operation and Maintenance, and Innovation points. Each criterion has a number of points assigned to it. Different levels of certification (one star to five stars) are awarded based on the number of points earned. The minimum points required for certification is 50.

The detailed information of the key sustainable features and performances of some selected buildings evaluated under GRIHA is given in section 1.2. The buildings include the Centre for Environmental Sciences and Engineering, building of IIT, Kanpur, the Doon School, the Commonwealth Games Village, Suzlon Energy building, etc. The information is very enlightening. Section 1.3 contains Case Studies a reflection of the endeavour towards creating sustainable and environmental efficient buildings. These relate to three buildings of

TERI, including RETREAT (the Training Centre of TERI) at Gurgaon, Himalayan Centre, Mukteshwar and Southern Regional Centre, Bangalore.

The **Indian Green Building Council (IGBC)** is another Green Building Rating and Certifying Agency in India. The Council has 9 chapters in India. Section 2.1 and 2.2 of the Part I relates to this system. As stated, the intent of IGBC Green Homes is to assist in the creation of high performance, healthy, durable, affordable and environmentally sound residential buildings. The features mentioned in this chapter also appear very convincing as regards the benefits of Green Homes under this system.

Section 2.3 contains information of the **LEED India** Green Building Rating System, which as mentioned, helps to guide and design high performance commercial buildings, which include offices, retail and service establishments, institutional buildings, hotels and buildings of four or more habitable stories. Impressive list of buildings certified under this system is given in chapter 2.4. These include Bangalore International Exhibition Centre, Rajiv International Airport, Hyderabad, Microsoft building, Hyderabad. Findings of a Case Study of a building- Turbo Energy Limited, Paiyanur are given.



---

The Annexure of the Part I contains the detailed Green Rating for Integrated Habitat Assessment with all the 34 criteria, Scoring Points and Evaluation procedure of GRIHA.

**Part II** of the Resource Material explains the concept of Green Building in further details and gives broad information of similar practices in Australia, Canada, Germany, India, Israel, Malaysia, Mexico, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States. Section 2 of this Part is re-iteration of information as contained in Part I related the GRIHA rating system.

Section 3 of the Part II contains information relating to Development of Solar Cities in India. This is a part of the policy for promoting renewable energy. About 60 cities/towns were selected to be developed as “Solar Cities” during the 11th Plan. Section 4 has been contributed by the then Director of the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy. Information in this section is arrayed in highlighted box forms. These include list of the programmes and schemes of the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy, broad contents of Energy Conscious Architecture, Energy Efficient Solar/Green buildings, Climatic Zones of India, etc. With this information the reader comes across the concerted efforts being taken for promoting renewable energy and

harnessing solar power for various uses and the financial support provided by the Government. Information presented in graphic form in this section including that of Roof top SPV system is very useful as such a system can be installed in any building, big or small. The Ministry of New and Renewable Energy has announced incentives/design consultants for dissemination of information, organizing seminars for builders, planners, consultants, housing finance organizations, and there is subsidy for installation of SPV systems. This is also a very useful part of the Part II.

Section 5 of the Part II has a good write up of the various components of a Green Building. They include 1) Design aspects including orientation of building, window design, sunshades, 2) Building insulation, roof treatment, evaporative cooling, 3) Landscaping, 4) Earth air tunnel, 5) Solar chimney, 6) Wind tower, etc. There are different features for each of the climatic zones in which India is divided. There is also good technical information on energy-efficient lighting, and section of energy-efficient Air Conditioning system and installing Renewable Energy Devices/Systems.

A distinct feature of the Resource Materials of the RCUES is that in addition to the academic and technical details, they also contain useful information needed for putting into

---

practice the suggested advice/good practices. As such, the following contents are very useful parts of the Resource Material.

- 1) List of architects/experts/institutes/organizations with experience in designing energy-efficient homes/buildings.
- 2) State-wise list of Nodal Agencies for new and renewable energy.

Homes and offices are the places where energy saving measures can be best adopted. It is the household that benefits from the practice. Nation consists of millions of households. A small energy saving in a household amounts to a large energy saving for

the nation. With this objective section 6 of the Part II contains valuable information and tips.

This Resource Material of the RCUES on Green Buildings and Eco Housing is a valuable addition to the literature on a vital aspect of our development. The Resource Materials of RCUES are generally for limited circulation and information sharing. The reviewer feels that if this valuable compilation and also other topical Resource Materials are published as regular books in association with well established publishers, they will become every popular publications and would serve their purpose on a larger scale. **F.B. Khan**



## Our Contributors

❑ **Osaghae, Felix Sado Osayande**

*Dr. Osaghae, Felix Sado Osayande is with the Institute of Public Administration & Extension Services, University of Benin, Ekehan Campus, Benin City, Nigeria.*

❑ **Jairaj Phatak**

*Dr. Jairaj Phatak, I.A.S. (Retd.) is Visiting Professor to All India Institute of Local Self-Government, Mumbai.*

❑ **Moti Lal**

*Moti Lal is Ph.D. Scholar, Faculty of History, School of Social Science, Indira Gandhi National Open University, Maidan Garhi, New Delhi-110068.*

❑ **Basavarajeshwari K.**

*Basavarajeshwari K. is Research Scholar, Centre for Decentralisation and Development, Institute for Social and Economic Change, Dr. V.K.R.V. Rao Road, Nagarabhavi, Bengaluru-560072.*

❑ **Purbita Gupta**

*Purbita Gupta is Research Scholar, Department of Rural Management and Development, Tripura University, Tripura-799022.*

**Contd...**

❑ **Jayanta Choudhury**

*Jayanta Choudhury is Assistant Professor, Department of Rural Management and Development, Tripura University, Tripura-799022.*

❑ **Aruna Khamkar**

*Aruna Khamkar is Ph.D Student, Department of Civics and Politics, University of Mumbai, Mumbai-400098.*

❑ **F. B. Khan**

*F. B. Khan is Advisor (Legal and Urban Services and Publications), All India Institute of Local Self-Government, Mumbai-400051.*



## 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 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 assignments in various areas of urban development and problems of local bodies with a view to improve and develop organisational, managerial and operational efficiency.

In view of the 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.

## **All India Institute of Local Self-Government**

M. N. Roy Human Development Campus, Plot No.6, 'F' Block,  
TPS Road No.12, Bandra (E), Mumbai – 400051.

Tel : +91-22-26571713 / 4, 6180 5600 Fax : +91-22-26572115

E-mail : [aiilsgquarterlyjournal@gmail.com](mailto:aiilsgquarterlyjournal@gmail.com), [info.algq@gmail.com](mailto:info.algq@gmail.com)

Website : [www.aiilsg.org](http://www.aiilsg.org)