



Local Government Quarterly

October - December 2019

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

Brought out by its
International Academy of Urban Dynamics



- ★ Comparative Study of Financial Administrations of Grassroots Level Rural Local Government Institutions of Bangladesh and India
- ★ Good Governance and its Implications in India
- ★ The Implementation of RTI Act at Grassroots: A Case Study of Berla Gram Panchayat in Haryana
- ★ Emergence of an Agricultural Land Market in Rural Maharashtra
- ★ Operational Dynamics of Policy Implementation for Rural Development Programmes: An Overview
- ★ Drinking Water Sources, Urban-rural Variations and Changes in India

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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.

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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

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Local Government Quarterly

Published by the

All India Institute of Local Self-Government



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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

Urban Resilience – City Leadership is vital

'Mumbai, Kolkata could be wiped out by the sea by 2050, warns new report' stated the headline of a news daily in October this year. As expected, it sent alarm bells ringing among some sections of the population, especially in these coastal cities. The report further stated that sea levels projected by 2050 are high enough to threaten land currently housing 150 million people to a future permanently below high tide level. India along with Bangladesh, China, Vietnam, Indonesia and Thailand will be significantly affected.

In yet another damaging development, reports pointed out that contrasting rainfall patterns in the State of Maharashtra - excess rains and flooding in some parts, and deficient rains in others - may bring down kharif crop production by half.

The above incidents serve to highlight the high degree of vulnerability of our cities in the face of extreme climate events. The frequency and intensity of extreme climate events such as high intensity localized precipitation, flash floods and prolonged droughts is on the rise and there seems no respite. Therefore the resilience or lack of it, of our cities is being tested repeatedly.

The prospect of the cities of Mumbai and Kolkata drowning in sea water, if the report quoted above is to be believed, is not some possible event likely to happen in the distant future, several centuries down the road. It is frighteningly near – just some thirty years away, an event many of us in our own lifetimes are likely to witness. Actually if the current level of environment damage were to worsen further, the disaster could strike even earlier; and therefore the need for urgent action.

The causes of sea level rise, flash floods, and extended droughts have all been discussed in public domain for some years as also the measures to mitigate these disasters. One is hopeful that given the aid of new cutting edge technologies and the

ingenuity of the human mind, we will overcome these potential apocalyptic events or atleast push them to several hundred years in the future.

Yet while we are in this must-win race to heal the planet as quickly as possible, we must learn to cope with several extreme climate events that will visit us with greater intensity and frequency in the meanwhile. In other words, we need to build in resilience into our cities, towns and villages. In the context of cities and communities, one may define Resilience as their ability to anticipate, withstand, respond to, survive, adapt and grow inspite of chronic stresses and acute shocks that they might experience. Chronic stresses could be long-standing issues such as bad air quality, poor public transport and its related outcomes, water shortage, and improper waste management. Acute shocks could be sudden events namely earthquakes, floods, outbreak of epidemics, and so on.

The way to build resilience in the case of chronic stresses is to constantly build and reinforce awareness programmes. These are particularly needed in areas of improving urban mobility through use of public transport, reforming solid waste management through reuse and recycling, segregation, safe disposal, and other pressing urban issues. Measures must include constant deployment of technology tools which can be particularly useful in mobility (electric mobility, app based carpooling, etc.) and solid waste management (recycling technologies, alternative materials which are biodegradable). There is also great scope for innovation as a tool to build resilience. For example, staggered office timings could reduce congestion; reserving important roads for public transport could discourage private vehicle use.

Creation of resilient infrastructure such as earthquake resistant buildings will be an important tool for minimizing the impacts of disasters and for saving lives.

Building resilience to combat sudden acute shocks calls for building an organisation of dedicated, well-trained, adequately equipped, and motivated force such as India's National Disaster Relief Force. This force has rendered commendable service under adverse conditions not just in India but in neighbouring countries too and is thus a model organisation.

But above all, building resilience of cities and communities calls for leadership. Many of our cities and towns have multiple agencies with overlapping responsibilities without effective single point leadership and accountability. We have clear leadership at the level of the nation, of the state and of the district, but not a clear one at the level of city/town. While the Mayor is technically the head of a city

or its First Citizen, his/her roles and responsibilities are limited and often ceremonial. The tenure of a Mayor, sometimes as short as one year, varies across the country as does the method of election. Most of us can recall the Mayor of New York, Rudy Giuliani who played a key role during the terror strike crisis the City went through. He served as the Mayor of New York between 1994 and 2001 and won various accolades for his contributions to improving the quality of life of the city. Anne Hidalgo Mayor of Paris since 2014 is another name that comes to mind. Earlier she served as the Deputy Mayor of the city for about 13 years. She is known for various innovative measures to improve air quality and to promote public transport under the 'Paris Respire' initiative. These are just two of the names recalled worldwide in the area of city leadership. We too need a structure of unified city leadership with reasonable tenure and authority in order to build and sustain city resilience.

As we battle various hazards and work towards a better quality of life for our citizens in a humane, equitable and sustainable manner, appropriate organisation must be put in place at the local level including competent, committed and empowered leadership. Or else we may soon be living in submerged cities boating from a 'floating home' to a 'floating office'.

Comparative Study of Financial Administrations of Grassroots Level Rural Local Government Institutions of Bangladesh and India

Gopinath Annadurai, Maruf Ahmad

Abstract:

Self-sufficiency of any local administration comes with the financial wellbeing of the same and how empowered it is to manage the resources effectively as well as efficiently. It must also be kept in mind that in a federal democratic setup, constitutional provisions to achieve the financial wellbeing through devolution of powers is of immense importance. Moreover, in order to analyze the potentials of those constitutional provisions to achieve its mandate in a local self financial administration there are certain parameters which can be useful namely, Legal conformity of the local finance administration in its resources, Ways and means in which the funds can be mobilised at local level, The possession of power to use the resources or utilize the ways and means of mobilizing the resources, Financial liability of the local self-governments, Accountability of the functionaries, Organizational structure of the administration. On this

background, this paper aims to compare the financial administration of grassroots level local self-governments in India and Bangladesh with quantitative and qualitative data, and it also tries to analyse the structural insufficiency in achieving the constitutional mandate of comprehensive decentralisation.

1. Introduction

Although India and Bangladesh are two different countries, they tend to be similar in many ways. India and Bangladesh not only belong to the same subcontinent but also till 1947 for many centuries were under the same political circumstances. Especially the local governance system of both nations had very close relationship. The self-functioning panchayat raj system without any interference of the central system which was functioning earlier lost its self-governing capacity to the strong and wide government that came later. The British colonies that entered for trade slowly and steadily

intruded into the governance. The British Imperialism that came up in the 15th Century set up its first government in Bengal region. Then it spread over the Indian subcontinent. A new governing system to collect tax, to keep the people under control and to monitor them was formed. Different governmental laws came into practice, and step by step, the growth of control over the capital and administration took place. Also the growth of election methods happened. This situation prevailed in India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and other sub-continent in more or less the same manner till 1947. The nations that were formed after the separation established their local governing systems according to their needs, views and ideology. Till the mid-1950's the old colonial local governance system was continued by the government of India, and in the post community development era thought of bringing reforms in the age-old system by appointing expert committees to take stock of the situation such as the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee, and Ashok Mehta Committee. The various proposals of these committees' were implemented by different state governments. Finally, the 73rd and 74th Amendments to the Constitution of India came about in 1992; thus the Indian local governance system was constitutionally ratified.

Likewise, the Bangladesh local governance system during the period under Pakistan was under the Basic

Democracy Order (BDO) of 1959. After the protest in 1969 against BDO, this system was disbanded. After the independence of Bangladesh in 1972, experiments continued with the system of local governance for about thirty years with the change of government based on Article 59,60 of the 1972 Constitution of the People's Republic of Bangladesh.

Therefore a comparison of local government systems existing in these two countries would help us to understand how two different countries which shared the same historical and political background have taken two different positions with different governing systems. The real power of any governance system relies on effective financial management, especially in countries like India and Bangladesh, where majority, or two-third, local bodies belong to rural areas, and the development interventions are highly needed. A good comparative understanding of the financial management system existing among local bodies of two countries with common past but with diversity will help us to have thorough knowledge about the ground reality as to whether any diversity or uniqueness existing in India and Bangladesh in terms financial administration.

2. Objectives:

The core objective of this study is to analyse the characteristics of local

finance administration and compare the grassroots level rural local governance system of India and the Republic of Bangladesh.

3. Methodology:

Descriptive research method has been followed. It includes a desk review of related literature, and fieldwork. The secondary data consists of the Constitution of India and that of Republic of Bangladesh, related acts, gazettes, legal documents and existing literature on local governance. Primary data includes semi-structured interview with Union Parishad officials.

4. Philosophy of analysing local self-finance administration:

Before stepping into the process of comparison, it is important to look into the basis on which the financial administration of the local governing system has to be reviewed. Below are mentioned the tools for it:

- i. Legal confirmation
- ii. Opportunity to raise funds
- iii. Authority to raise funds
- iv. Financial liability
- v. Accountability
- vi. Organisation

Legal Confirmation:

The financial resources that have been distributed among the local body have to be stable, permanent, lawful,

rightful and moreover, legalised. If not the financial resources will be under constant threat with the change in the government, ideology and many other influential factors. Hence legal confirmation is unavoidable

Opportunity to raise fund:

The prosperity of local financial administration depends on how far it has got opportunities to raise funds for its functioning. As it is the last tier of the governmental organization, it does not have full control over its borders. It has been divided by the central government. It can be done in different ways. The central government could raise sufficient funds and give shares to the local body, or it could let the local bodies to raise their own funds and could get a share as a tribute in return, or else the financial resources could be shared among themselves. The third way is found practical in countries like India and Bangladesh.

The method of sharing the financial resources, that is, on what basis it is shared, up to what extent and what are available resources and how it is shared is important. And this is based on two major processes:

1. Internal revenue generation
2. External revenue generation

Internal revenue generation is how an organisation gathers the needed resources within its borders from the allocated departments.

External revenue generation is to share the authority over the borders, to get fund shares from the higher government, and also to borrow loan from various other organisations and companies.

The authority to raise funds:

Opportunity and authority are two different things that have close relationship between themselves. Having enough resources or choices to meet needs is called opportunity, whereas the possession of the power to use those resources or choices is called authority. The local organisation's function does not stop with having proper documents/proofs of resources; it should also have the power to mobilise the resources. The body should have the authority to fulfil the needs. For example, to take action against people who fail to pay tax, authority to safeguard and streamline the resources, to have control over, etc. At the same time, this authority should be regulated and controlled, or else it would lead to violation and anarchy.

Financial Liability:

Financial management is not just mobilising the resources but properly governing, utilising and improvising the mobilised financial resources. It includes safeguarding the public property, welfare of the people, village development. All these must be properly defined.

Financial resources and its amount, responsible departments and its characteristics should go on the same boat. If the resources are low and there are more responsibilities, then the burden will eventually increase and lead to a crisis that would stop them from fulfilling their responsibilities. If it is the other way round then it would lead to wastage and misuse of resources. And only when local governing system works for the welfare of the people and solely immerses itself for the development of the area it becomes eligible to collect tax for the people and gets the ethical rights to mobilise the resources from the particular area.

Accountability:

Local governance self-finance organisation should be accountable to the people it governs and the higher government by which it is governed. It must be answerable to both. Financial administration should be explicit. It should have the proper mechanism for it.

Organisation:

The administrative body is the one that gives life to the above characteristics. It should be designed to control and exercise authority to encounter others. It is essential that it has the required percentage of people's representatives and authorities from respective fields, where work and

power are equally distributed. They have to be trained enough to do their work efficiently and for their self-sustainability. They have to be rewarded for living their life well for a balanced and well-defined working system.

5. Constraints in comparing both countries:

Both these countries which had the same historical continuity are now with two different political, societal, economic, cultural faces. To barely compare both these countries is unscientific and impossible. In spite of the background of both the countries being different how these countries' local governing bodies work for the

financial administration of their borders can be analysed and understood based on the above-mentioned characteristics and parameters.

6. Structure of Local Government:

Bangladesh:

Bangladesh is a democratic republic with two spheres of government - national and local. Local government is divided into rural, urban and hill districts, which all have similar functions. Urban authorities are single-tier and rural governments have three tiers. There are also three district Parishads.

Local Government in Rural area:

Level	Name	Quantity	Method of Election
Uppermost tier	Zilla Parishad	64	Indirect Election
Central tier	Upazilla Parishad	492	Direct Election
Lowest tier	Union Parishad	4573	Direct Election

Source: www.clgf.org.uk/bangladesh/ / Country profile 2011-18

India:

India is a federal republic with three spheres of government namely, Central, State and Local. In India, powers are divided into state and central by the Constitution; according to it, Local governance is a state

subject. Local Government is divided between rural and urban authorities. In rural level, three-tier Gram panchayat system is established. Also in urban level, three-tier municipalities are established.

Local Government in Rural area:

Level	Name	Quantity
Uppermost tier	District Panchayat	630
Central tier	Panchayat Union	6,614
Lowest tier	Village Panchayat	2,53,268

Sources: <https://lgedirectory.gov.in> (Report Generated on 02/02/2019 01:02:43 PM Local Government Directory)

7. Rural local institutions:

As our study is focusing on the financial administration of grassroots level rural local government institutions, we have to precisely concentrate on Union Parishad of Bangladesh and Village Panchayat of India.

8. Analysing local self-finance administration:

8.1 Legal Confirmation:

Bangladesh:

The Constitution of Bangladesh, 1972 to safeguard democratic values has made provisions for establishing local government as an inseparable organ. The transference of power to the local government institutions has been ensured by the Constitution in Article 59, chapter 3. It says "Local government in every administrative unit of the Republic shall be entrusted to bodies, composed of personal accordance with law". Article 60 gives power to local bodies to impose taxes for local purposes, to prepare their budgets and to maintain funds. As per the direction of the Constitution, the government has updated the structural and functional capacities of local government in rural areas with Union Parishad Act 2009. Union Parishad is working based on this Act.

Under Article 142, Parliament is empowered to amend these acts dealing with local governance, by way

of addition, alteration, substitution or repeal, bypassing an Act of Parliament with the votes of not less than two-thirds of the total number of Members of Parliament. Alongside the Supreme Court was given the power of judicial review.

India:

India's local administrations were not passed as laws till 1992; they were functioning under the Directive Principles of State Policy that was attached to the Constitution. Only in 1992 the 73rd and 74th Amendment that was passed gave constitutional recognition to this. Only under these 73rd and 74th Amendments, all states constructed their local governing bodies in their legislative assembly with conformity acts.

The 73rd Amendment Act 1992 provides general guidelines for the effective and efficient working of PRIs, which the state should use to implement their own act. Section 243H of the 73rd Amendment Act gives power to the state legislature, to authorise the panchayats to generate their own income and collect levy, and also to provide grants to the panchayats from the consolidated fund of the concerned state.

According to Article 368 of The Indian Constitution, Panchayat Raj institutions relate to federal structure of Constitution. Hence any amendments

regarding this Act have to be passed by both the houses of the Union Parliament by a majority of total membership, and a two-third majority of members present and voting in each house. And also it has to secure ratification from at least half of the state legislatures.

8.2 Opportunity to raise fund:

Bangladesh:

Part 52 of the Union Parishad Act 2009 lists out various sources of funds for the Union Parishad such as grants,

profit/income from local sources, loans, taxes and fine amounts. There is a provision for making standard tax schedule, and the Bangladesh government has made an ideal tax schedule for Union Parishad in 2013. It is a detailed one. It directs Union Parishad on which sectors and what commodities should tax be collected and what all could be exempted from the tax being collected. For every Union Parishad, there is a fund in the name of the Council. The money received from its various sources shall be deposited in this account.

Sources of funds listed out in “Union Council Act 2009”.	List of important taxes, levy and fees in “Union Parishad Model Tax Schedule, 2012”.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grants by Government and other authority • Loan sanctioned by the government • Income received from all local sources • Fine money • All the taxes, ratios, tolls and fees collected by the council • Gift or grants from the trust • Surplus fund 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taxes on buildings and land • Taxes on construction and rebuilding of buildings • Taxes on the property • Taxes on business, occupation or profession • Taxes on cinema, drama exhibition and other amusement and entertaining • Taxes for the respective village police • Market tax • Levy for electric light facility • Levy for park recreation • Levy for Water supply • Levy for Drainage facility • Fee on animal slaughter • Registration (& renewal) fees for tutorial schools, coaching centres • Registration fees for private hospitals, clinics, paramedical institutes etc • Fees on licenses and permits granted by the council for business, occupation or profession • Approval fee for construction of a permanent building

Source: By author based on Union council act 2009 and Union Parishad Model Tax Schedule, 2012

India:

In India, income generation methods are different from state to state. It is decided by concerned state government acts. At the same time, 243H of 73rd Amendment Act of Indian Constitution assures the income sources for LGI in general. Article 243-H of the Constitution enjoins on the state legislature to:

- ▶ Authorise a Panchayat to levy, collect and appropriate such taxes, duties, tolls and fees under such procedure and subject to such limits;
- ▶ Assign to a Panchayat such as taxes, duties, tolls and fees levied and collected by the State Government for such purposes and subject to such conditions and limits;
- ▶ Provide for making such grants-in-aid to the Panchayats from the Consolidated Fund of the State; and

- ▶ Provide for the constitution of such funds for crediting all amounts of money received, respectively, by or on behalf of the Panchayats and also for the withdrawal of such money from there, as may be specified in the law.

According to this, the amount of tax to be collected varies from state to state. For instance in Tamil Nadu, the income-generating sources are of four types.

- Own Resources
- Assigned / Shred Resources
- Grants and
- Loans

Own resources consist of own taxes, fees and other non-tax revenues. Own taxes generally comprise house, property, vehicle and professional tax. Village Panchayat gets its share from (1) Taxes levied, collected and passed on to local bodies by state government (2) Taxes levied, collected and shared by the State government with the village panchayat.

Tamil Nadu Village Panchayat Resources:

Own Resources		Assigned / Shred Resources	Grants
Own Taxes	Other Resources		
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• House Tax• Profession Tax• Vehicle Tax• Tax on Agricultural land for a specific purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Income from properties like Shops• Licence fees• User charges• Lease• Others	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Local Cess• Entertainment Tax• Stamp Duty Surcharge• Surcharge on Sales Tax• Minor Minerals	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• House Tax matching grant• Water supply grant• Lighting grant• Rural Development Programs grant

Sources: By author based on Tamil Nadu Rural Development department and Panchayat Raj department report. <https://www.tnrd.gov.in/reports/firstsf/tamil/2-1.pdf>

8.3 The authority to raise funds:

Bangladesh:

Union Parishad has limited power for financial administration. It has very low control over its own resources, important sources like land transfer revenue and lease money are directly collected by the central government and partially returned to Union Parishad as grants. Various special grants are determined by the interest of the central government. However, it has certain powers like imposing taxes and penalties, to protect common resources, the power to give license or approval to slaughterhouse, private pharmacy etc. within its jurisdiction

India:

The 73rd Amendment does not explain in detail about the financial authority to the Village Panchayats; it only ensures the right for the Village Panchayat to generate its own income. Instead, it instructs a finance commission to be set up in each state to decide on the powers and functions of the village panchayat.

- ▶ Regulate the use of land without owner and communal lands
- ▶ The prohibition against the sale on road and other public places
- ▶ Prohibition or regulation of the use of places for slaughtering animals and license

- ▶ Numbering and naming of buildings
- ▶ Village Panchayat shall regulate the advertisement
- ▶ VP has the power to require land revenue staff to collect taxes and fees due to village panchayat
- ▶ Every Village Panchayat shall be able to raise loan from any financial institution for certain purposes as prescribed by the government
- ▶ Village Panchayat may raise loan from another panchayat
- ▶ Penalties
- ▶ License and permission
- ▶ Power of entry and inspection
- ▶ Testing of weights and measures

These are limited local bodies that do not have independent resource rising power of their own. The state governments are enjoined with responsibilities to look after the financial requirements at the local level.

8.4 Financial Liability:

Bangladesh:

Major approved expenditure of the union councils are as follows:

-
- ▶ The expenditure of the officers and employee of the council such as salary and allowances
 - ▶ The expenditure for conducting the functions and duties of the council
 - ▶ The expenditure declared to be responsible for the council by the government
 - ▶ Other expenditure like dues to courts or dues on loan, electoral expenditure

India:

The 9th Schedule of the 73rd Amendment states the sectors that could be allocated under the Village Panchayat. The Village Panchayat can use the funds generated for the development of the listed sectors. At the same time, the subsidies and funds allocated under special schemes are to be used only for the allotted purposes.

TNPR Act mandates following as the duty of the Panchayat, within the limits of its fund:

- ▶ The construction, repair and maintenance of all village roads, water tanks, ponds and wells
- ▶ The lighting of public roads and public places in built-up areas
- ▶ Construction of drains and the disposal of drainage water

- ▶ Cleaning of streets, the removal of rubbish heaps
- ▶ The opening and maintenance of burial and burning grounds
- ▶ Construction and maintenance of public toilets

Other expenditure:

- ▶ Payment of dues on any loans
- ▶ Salaries, allowances and the pensions, provident fund contributions of its officers and servants.
- ▶ With the sanction of government, VP can contribute any fund for the defence of India.
- ▶ With the sanction of Inspector, VP can contribute towards expenses of any public exhibition, ceremony, treatment of disease and charitable works.

8.5 Accountability:

Bangladesh:

Accountable to the Government:

Union Parishad formulates the Budget consisting of the prospective earnings and expenditure statement for the upcoming fiscal year. It should be prepared not less than 60 days before the starting of the financial year. Union Parishad will submit the budget by

holding a budget session with the concerned standing committee and the local public. And it will be sent to the concerned higher officer.

The income and expenditure of the Union Parishad is to be preserved in a prescribed manner. At the end of the fiscal year, final accounts will be submitted in the budget session and be sent to the Upazilla Nirbahi Officer.

Accountable to the people:

Ward Shobba has been created in every ward of Union Parishad. All voters of the concerned wards are members of the WS. It is headed by ward member, advised by a women member and subcommittees. It should hold at least two meetings per year. An audit report of the current year and budget for the next year will be reviewed in this meeting. In the annual meeting, ward member will present annual report of the previous year and let participants know about financial issues and running development activities.

India:

Accountability to the Government:

- The executive authority of the Village Panchayat each year frames the budget showing the probable receipts and expenditure for the following year

- The government appoints auditors for the account of the receipts and expenditure of the funds of the panchayat

- The Tamil Nadu Government has given authority to take action against corruption happening in the Village Panchayat to the respective District Collector

Accountability to the People:

Gram Sabha, a people's body is constituted in every Village Panchayat. It consists of people related to the village registered in the electoral roll. It meets at least twice a year. The budget for the year should be submitted to the Gram Sabha and has to be approved by the Gram Sabha with the majority of people's support.

8.6 Organisation:

Bangladesh:

Unions are divided into nine wards to select general members without reserved seats. Then every three wards consist of one reserved ward for women representative. All the ward members, women representatives, and the Chairman of the Union Parishad are elected based on the adult franchise. Each union Parishad has full-time secretary as an executive officer and an accountant-cum-computer operator appointed by the government. With the approval of the government, Union

Parishad may appoint additional human resources, if it is necessary.

India:

Village Panchayat is basic, formal democratic institution at village level. The members of the panchayat vary from five to thirty-one. They all are directly elected by adult citizens of the villages. The President is called Sarpanch. He is elected by direct or indirect election. Several states provide reservation of a specified number of seats for women, members of Scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The tenure of the Panchayat is five years.

9. Conclusion:

The research sought to understand the characteristics of the local finance system of the two countries. The fundamental policies of the local finance system of both countries are the same, but in terms of quality and quantity, they tend to differ. For instance.

Even though both the countries have given the constitutional status of their local governance institutions, amending this status is easier in Bangladesh than in India. Bangladesh Parliament can make changes of the supreme law of the land in casual and subjective manner with the two-third majority of its members.

Gram Saba of India consists of entire voters of all the wards of a particular village panchayat; similarly Union Parishad of Bangladesh has the same system called Ward Sobha but not in Parishad level rather at ward level.

Even though both the UP and VP are getting grants from its government, the certainty of receiving grants is higher for Village Panchayat than Union Parishad. The major sources of revenue for both countries come from external sources; hence it makes them less autonomous and dependent.

With the appointed executive, auditor and official, central government intervention is higher in Union Parishad than Village Panchayat. However, in practice, both the institutions are acting as implementing agency for their government. Their legislative and executive powers on financial administration are limited.

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Good Governance and its Implications in India

I. Subramanyam

Introduction

Governance is the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It consists of the mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences. Without good governance, no amount of developmental schemes can bring in improvements in the quality of life of the citizens. On the contrary, if the power of the state is abused or exercised in weak or improper ways, those with the least power in the society the poor are most likely to suffer. In that sense, poor governance generates and reinforces poverty and subverts efforts to reduce it. Strengthening governance is an essential precondition to improving the lives of the poor.

The tenth plan document identified good governance as the single most important factor in ensuring that the plan objectives are achieved. Among

other things, decentralization of power and citizen's empowerment, effective people's participation through state and non-state mechanisms, greater synergy and consolidation among various agencies and programmes of government, civil service reforms, transparency, rationalization of government schemes and mode of financial assistance to states, improved access to formal justice system to enforce rights, reforms and strengthening of land administration and harnessing the power of technology for governance have been identified as the key priorities.

Civil Society and Good Governance in India:

During recent years, the issues of good governance have emerged at the forefront of the agenda for sustainable human development.

- Governance is defined as the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources.

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- The core ideals of good governance are fairness and justice in the institution of civil society. Good governance can be characterized by high standard of transparency, accountability and access.
 - Good governance means providing opportunities and the proper delivery of goods and services to the people in a fair, just, effective responsible and open way.

The increased role of civil society marks a shift from government to governance, with governance involving a far larger group of participants and players.

According to the World Bank:

Good governance is epitomized by predictable, open and enlightened policy making, a bureaucracy imbued with a professional ethos acting in furtherance of the public good, the rule of law, transparent processes, and a strong civil society participating in public affairs. Poor governance is characterized by arbitrary policy making, un-accountable bureaucracies, unenforced or unjust legal system, the abuse of executive power, a civil society engaged in public life and widespread corruption.

India is among the ten fastest growing economies since 1998. It's other achievements are: self sufficiency in food grains; efforts at decentralization

of power from the centre to states, districts to villages; independent and proactive judiciary on issues of public interest; primary of human and civic rights; freedom of expression, free press and electronic media and considerable non-governmental and civil society initiatives in various spheres of social and public life.

However, in the area of political and economic governance, these have been matters of serious concern for the policy planners, administrators and political leadership.

Implications of Good Governance in India:

The governments formulate the policies and implement them through their administrative machinery. In this process, there has to be downward, upward, horizontal and vertical communication between different departments of the government and the citizens. The electronic media of communication and computers have eased the process of administration.

E-governance (Electronic Governance) is basically delivery of services and information to the citizens by using electronic devices. E-Governance involves computerization of services provided to the citizens. Another aspect of the E-Governance is computerization of government documents, records and various reports.

E-governance can be defined as the administrative process through computerization, internet, intranet, video conference and other electronic devices. It is the process of policy formulation and implementation with the help of electronic devices. As the ultimate goal of any government is the betterment of its citizens, it should have better administrative system well equipped with efficient and effective communication system. So, that any complaint, enquiry or suggestions made by the citizens are duly considered and they are provided prompt and timely services. For instance, Indians are enjoying the benefits of computerization and automation of Indian Railways, Airlines and bus services for booking and reservation.

In India the E-governance is implemented in the thrust areas such as education, health, poverty eradication and providing public utilities. It is noteworthy that the central Government has taken initiative for establishing a National Institute of SMART (Simple, Moral, Accountable, Responsible and Transparent) Governance at Hyderabad. This institute will be responsible for co-ordination between the centre and the state governments run E-governance projects.

E-Governance through Aadhaar:

The Aadhaar card with built in microchip and magnetic strip can have

all the necessary information related to the card holder and hence, even if a cardholder is illiterate, he would be benefited with e-governed services. This facility will have something for everyone. For example, for a student, it will work as birth-certificate, address and photo identification proof for applying to various courses and colleges, for a unemployed, it can work as employment exchange number to get the benefits of job offerings and unemployment allowance. It is also helpful for employed persons, businessman and rural population. This will be a multi-purpose card which will help in accessing services not only offered by government but also from private sector as well.

E-Democracy:

Democracy, has two points of reference – the citizens from whom the power emanates and the elected representatives, who exercise this power on behalf of the electorate. Thus, a democracy should ideally serve the primary functions of “top down” provision of information from the legislature and the executive and a “bottom up” channel of communication from the people to the government and the parliament to ensure the twin goals of representation and engagement.

Democracy requires people's involvement but traditional institutions have failed to generate that support.

Though there are many reasons for this, much of this widening gap between the government and the citizens is based on lack of knowledge and understanding of working of the Government bodies and the apathy of the power to be to educate the people.

Right from the online campaigning and online voting, lobbying, activism, political news citizen discussions, politics and democracy has been transformed to being wired and going online. The internet has enabled networked communities to evolve and citizens are increasingly using the new technologies or organize themselves to have their voices heard, and to develop tools in order to influence government policy and programs at the political and public administration level.

The governance has to undertake new roles in new era. Knowledge and skill are to be upgraded to the demands of market system. The new emphasis on the development of human resources, capital, education and health care needs the creation of new institutions for governance in India. Good or bad governance depends on quality of performances of governmental institution.

Pillars of Good Governance:

- The ethos of freedom struggle and the suffering, sacrifice of the millions of country men militate against bad governance.

- Our constitution is the very sentinel of dignity of the individual and unity of our country. Our constitution manifests the values of justice, liberty, equality and fraternity, values of egalitarian and equalitarian civil society have been enshrined in our constitution.
- We have bi-cameral parliament which represents multiple and heterogeneous India. Different castes, classes, gender, faith and political ideologies are represented in our parliament and other democratic representative institutions.
- Our judiciary plays a vital role in safeguarding our constitution and the freedom of our countrymen. Many of its judgments have come down to us like breath of fresh air.
- Our free press and media is watch dog of democracy. Even during emergency, freedom of press could not be suppressed. Press and media play vital role in free flow of knowledge and information.

Democracy implies rule of law and a balance among the executive, the legislature and the judiciary to curb arbitrary exercise of power.

Positive Implications:

Electronic Governance has proven its usefulness in implementation of various welfare schemes for citizens

like weather forecasting for the farmers, fisherman and tourists, e-learning projects, telemedicine services, e-service centres, e-voting etc. The benefits of E-governance may be as follows:

- E-governance is an innovative way of administration. It facilitates easy monitoring and tracking of files. There is no place for red-tapism.
- E-governance means transparency, accountability and efficiency on the part of the government administration. It would be helpful in confidence building among the citizens and the government machinery.
- It is helpful in collecting required data and information from any corner of the world. An effective computer network system can be helpful in solving the problems immediately.
- In India the electronic service centres could provide better services to the poor, tribal people living in rural remote areas.
- Telemedicine centres could provide necessary medical services.
- E-governance will be fruitful for the farmers as they would be able to get information regarding prices of commodities in different markets, new varieties of seeds, new

techniques and methods of cultivation, crop protection guidance.

Negative Implications:

- Digital revolution is responsible for “Digital Divide” in our country. Some states far ahead of other states in application of other states in application of electronic devices for administration.
- Use of computers in our country is very low compared to developed countries.
- E-Governance in India is opposed by the traditional bureaucratic mindset which is not ready to accept the changes in the administration in fear of losing power and employment. It will take sometime.
- The major drawback in implementation of E-governance in our country is infrastructural deficiencies, e.g. lack of telephone lines, shortage of power, low bandwidth capacity, etc.
- Computer prices are too high. This is one of the reasons of lower use of computers in India. The rates of internet connectivity are comparatively high.
- The slow progress of E-governance in India may be attributed to financial deficiencies.

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- Illiteracy, lack of training, misunderstanding and lack of confidence in government policies are the major problems before E-governance in India.
 - In spite of the above mentioned drawbacks the government has no option but to continue the process of electronic governance to provide better services to the citizens at minimum costs enhancing its efficiency.

CHALLENGES

Political Governance:

1. Criminalisation of public life, politics of vote bank, communal violence and corruption constitute major challenges for improving governance in the country.
2. Recourse to competitive populism, the use of money power, particularly during elections and compromising decisive political action.
3. Disruption in parliamentary proceedings which delays legislative work.

Economic Governance:

1. About 26 per cent of population still below the normative poverty line.
2. Population growth still high, unsustainable and persisting adverse sex-ratios in some states.

3. Hunger and deprivation still an unfortunate reality.

Corruption and Good Governance:

The overriding issue of corruption has emerged as problem number one in the country. It is now being accepted all over that one of the major drawbacks of the process of development planning has been corruption in rural development works, even at the high levels of bureaucracy and political leadership.

Lack of Accountability and Transparency:

Lack of accountability of the implementing agencies either to the government or to the people has been the single major cause for misappropriation of funds in development programmes

Suggestions:

- The government should make the procedures and rules and regulations simpler and transparent.
- Information regarding various schemes should be communicated to the beneficiaries so that they are benefited timely.
- Computer use in India is comparatively lower because of higher prices of computers. It may be suggested that low priced computers be made available on

large scale so that a common person could purchase a P.C.

- Infrastructure base for the promotion of E-governance should be strengthened on priority basis.
- Some of the critics of E-governance are of the opinion that it is expensive and would lead to unemployment.
- It should be noted that IT oriented services have provided notable job opportunities and only with the help of information technology we can fulfill the expectations of our citizens.
- Computer literacy campaign should be undertaken to impart computer education to the masses.

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The Implementation of RTI Act at Grassroots: A Case Study of Berla Gram Panchayat in Haryana

Rajvir Dhaka

Introduction

A constitutional status had been accorded to the institution of Gram Sabha by the 73rd Constitutional Amendment 1993. Besides, it stipulated the creation of a uniform three-tier structure of Panchayati Raj, directly elected Panchayats at the Village, Block and District levels. Moreover, the Amendment Act also gave one-third reservation to women and reservation to the SCs and STs in proportion to their share in population. It also included the Eleventh Schedule, having 29 subjects, in the Constitution of India. Above all, the Panchayats were empowered by it to make and implement the plans for Economic Development and Social Justice on those of these subjects which were devolved on them by the State Legislatures. The objective behind this exercise was to make Panchayats inclusive institutions of self-government.

Consequently, a new system of Panchayati Raj had been introduced by various states through the enactment of

conformity legislations in 1994. But soon it was found that the decentralization of powers had also led to decentralization of corruption. The amount sanctioned for various rural development schemes and the funds of the Gram Panchayats from their own income were being allegedly siphoned away by the Sarpanches of Gram Panchayats and the functionaries of Development and Panchayat Department at the village and the block levels. Hence the MKSS (Majdoor Kisan Shakti Sangathan) headed by Aruna Roy, a former IAS officer, had to start Jan Sunvayis (People's Hearings) of the Panchayat leaders and officials for exposing their corruption. It was in fact, a form of Social Audit which the MKSS had to start for checking corruption and misuse of money by the Gram Panchayats. After it had been found that this was not sufficient, the MKSS decided to launch a mass movement for the making of an Act for the Right to Information, which gradually spread to various states. The

enactment of the Right to Information Act (2005) and the institutionalization of the Right to Information regime have to be seen as the logical culmination of its struggle.

Keeping in view the above stated background of the RTI Act, the Government of Haryana also decided to set up the RTI regime in the Panchayati Raj Institutions despite the fact that some political leaders, bureaucrats and scholars had expressed an apprehension that illiterate or semi-literate Sarpanches of the Gram Panchayats would not be able to play their role in an effective manner. It appointed Sarpanch as the SPIO, the Gram Sachiv as the ASPIO and the Block Development and Panchayat Officer as the First Appellate Authority in the Gram Panchayats in 2006. It is pertinent to mention here that the Panchayati Raj System in Haryana has become Gram Panchayat centric on account of the delegation of all the 29 functions listed in the 11th Schedule by the Haryana Panchayati Raj Act (1994) to it. Whereas the role of the Panchayat Samitis has got marginalized by the fact that the Act did not care to do functional differentiation in the roles of Gram Panchayat and Panchayat Samiti. Besides, it gave merely advisory, coordinators and supervisory role to the Zila Parishad. Consequently, all the 29 subjects were usurped by the Gram Panchayats with the help of the political leadership and the

development bureaucracy as they felt that it would be easier to manipulate the Gram Panchayats than the Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads. But the powers of the Gram Panchayats were further usurped by the directly elected Sarpanches as they could not be removed by its members by passing a No-Confidence motion against him/her. The fact that the Institution of Gram Sabha had virtually remained non-functional in Haryana, despite getting a constitutional status, the authority of the Sarpanch remained unchecked. Consequently, the office of the Sarpanch of the Gram Panchayat became more important than even those of the Chairperson of Panchayat Samiti and the President of Zila Parishad. This logically led to the large scale instances of misuse of powers by the Sarpanches allegedly in connivance with the Gram Sachivs, the Block Development and Panchayats Officers as well as the officials of the District Rural Development Agencies. The situation got further aggravated on account of allocation of substantial amounts of funds to the Gram Panchayats by the Central Finance Commissions, the State Finance Commissions, HRDF (Haryana Rural Development Fund), Centrally Sponsored Schemes, Social Welfare Schemes of Haryana Government and by the own Income of the Gram Panchayats from the Village Common Lands and other sources. The decision of the Haryana Government to appoint

Sarpanches as SPIOs and the Gram Sachivs as the ASPIOs has to be understood in this perspective.

Since the uneducated Sarpanches were finding it difficult to perform their role as SPIOs, the Government of Haryana made an Amendment in the Haryana Panchayati Raj Act (1994) in 2015 which prescribed a minimum educational qualification of matriculation for General castes males, of middle pass for the Scheduled Caste Males and the General Caste Females and of the 5th pass for the Scheduled Caste Females for contesting for the elections of Gram Panchayats, Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads in the state. It was hoped by it that the educated Panchayati Raj leaders in general and the Sarpanches in particular would be able to perform their role under the Haryana Panchayati Raj Act (1994) effectively. Perhaps, the Government was also prompted to make this Amendment for strengthening the RTI regime in Gram Panchayats of the state. The assumption behind this exercise was that educated Sarpanches will be able to perform their role in a better manner in the discharge of their functions and exercise of their powers in general and in the performance their role as SPIOs in particular.

Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this study is to find out as to how far the Sarpanches elected in 2016 in Haryana have been

able to play their role as SPIOs in an effective manner by taking advantage of their educational qualifications. Since the Haryana Institute of Public Administration (HIPA), Gurugram, which has been assigned the role of Capacity Building of the RTI regime in the State is located at Gurugram so it was decided to conduct this case study for tracing the empirical reality of working of the RTI regime in Gram Panchayats and for suggesting ways and means for streamlining it. This method was used for making an in-depth probe in the working the RTI regime at the grass roots level. The Gram Panchayat of village Berla (in Badhra Block of Charkhi Dadri district of Haryana), has been selected for this purpose because the writer was familiar with the area chosen.

Specific Objectives of the Study:

- To assess the reach of the RTI in the selected village.
- To evaluate the attitude of the elected representatives towards the RTI regime.
- To understand the problems being faced by them in its effective implementation.
- To study the efforts made by the Sarpanch in spreading awareness on the RTI regime in its true spirit.

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- To identify the obstacles being faced by the members of the Gram Sabha in making use of the RTI regime.
 - To suggest ways and means for enhancing the effectiveness of the RTI regime at Gram Panchayat level.
 - To suggest simple and effective steps that could be adopted at the grass-root level for setting-up a better system of delivery of information to the people.
 - To identify best practices which can be replicated in other Gram Panchayats of the district as well as in other districts of Haryana.

Profile of the Study Area

The village Berla has a population of around 9000, it is the second highest populated village among the Gram Panchayats of Badhra Block of Dadri district, which has been carved out as the 22nd district of Haryana in 2018 as a part of the strategy to have smaller districts in the state for better governance. The geographical area of Berla is 22 square km². The density of population in it is 313 persons per km².

The nearest town is Badhra, which is not only a block headquarters but also a sub-divisional headquarters. Berla is situated at a distance of 8 km. from Badhra. The Gram Panchayat has

a Post Office with the Pin Code 127308. Its district headquarters is located at a distance of 34.5 Km.

Demography

The population of Berla as per the 2011 Census is 6974. Among it, 3698 (53%) are males and 3276 (47%) females. More than four-fifths of the population belong to the General Castes (83.13%) and the remaining one-fifth (16.85%) to the Schedule Castes. The total number of households in Berla is 1285 and on average five persons live in each of these.

Literacy and Education

According to the 2011 Census, as many as 4555 persons (69.3%) are literate in the village. Among them, 2804 (61.6%) are males and 1751 (38.4%) are females.

There are three government schools in Berla, one of which is of Senior Secondary level. Besides, there are two primary schools for the girls. Moreover, there are three private Senior Secondary schools in the village but there is no college here.

Major Occupation

The major occupation of the residents from the Gram Panchayat is agriculture. An area of approximately 8800 acres of land is under agriculture

in the village. According to the 2011 Census, 82.22 % of workers describe their Main Work (Employment or Earning more than 6 Months) as agriculture .Of out of these 862 are cultivators (owner or co-owner) while the remaining 298 are Agricultural labourers. As many as 17.78 % of the workers in Berla were involved in other activities for livelihood.

Income of the Gram Panchayat

The Village Common Land which is given in auction every year for cultivation, is the major source of income of the Gram Panchayat Berla. Besides, Chulha Tax is also collected by it from each household. The village pond is also auctioned for Fish Rearing by the Gram Panchayat every year. From all the above sources, the total income of the Gram Panchayat is about 12 lakh per annum. Besides, it also gets about Rs 48-50 lakhs per annum as Grant from the State Government. In 2016-17, the Gram Panchayat received a grant of Rs 52,85,437.

Data Collection

A survey has been done to collect the basic information about the RTI regime in the Gram Panchayat area. A questionnaire was used to collect information from the Sarpanch (SPIO), and other members of the Gram Panchayat as well as from the Gram Sachiv, (ASPIO). Other government officials associated with the Gram

Panchayat such as the auditor and e-Mitra, were also interviewed by us with its help.

As far the members of the Gram Sabha are concerned, data was collected by interviewing them in an informal manner through focussed group discussions with its members. Gram Panchayat records were also checked for this purpose. A survey of various basic amenities like water supply, drainage, electricity, bus station, hospitals and PHC too had been conducted by us.

Besides, we also gathered data from the offices of the Gram Panchayat and the office of the BDPO.

Findings

Nature of RTI Applications

Very few RTI applications had been filed by the information seekers in Gram Panchayat Berla. These mainly pertained to the work accomplished by it during its tenure. The applicants had sought information relating to construction work done in the village by the Gram Panchayat and about the funds that had been allocated by it for the same. The detailed information on income and expenditure of the Panchayat which is available in the passbook of the bank account of the Gram Panchayat had also been demanded by them. One of the RTI applications had been made to seek all

the records of the Gram Panchayat elected in the previous tenure (2010-2015). The RTI applicant had made an appeal to the BDPO (the First Appellate Authority) to supply the same, had filed the Second Appeal to the State Information Commission (SIC) since he was dissatisfied with the response of the First Appellate Authority. The SIC, had issued a Show Cause Notice to the Sarpanch directing him to give reasons for the delay in giving complete information. Another RTI application had demanded quite voluminous details on the sample of material used in construction work, funds allocated by the Gram Panchayat for the construction of Public Toilets built, list of beneficiaries under MGNREGA and on other matters.

Awareness about the RTI amongst SPIO and the Gram Sachiv (ASPIO)

The Sarpanch is found to be quite well aware of the RTI regime because he had received training at Haryana Institute of Rural Development, Nilokheri on the same. Apart from this, his army background, and a good level of education received by his family also contributed to his capacity building on the RTI regime.

He has expressed the view that the RTI Act had been implemented for increasing transparency and for keeping a check on corruption. But he also most lamented that most of the RTI applications are frivolous and are being

used to harass the members of Gram Panchayat. He has also been disposing of the RTI applications effectively.

However, the Panches are not adequately aware of the provisions of the RTI Act. No online or offline information has been made available by the Gram Panchayat despite the existence of the suo moto disclosure clause in Article 4(1)(b) and Article 4(2) of the RTI Act, 2005.

According to Article 4(1) of the RTI Act, 2005, the records need to be duly catalogued and indexed. But the record-keeping system in the Panchayat has been found to be deficient. Moreover, the records are being kept at the house of the Sarpanch instead of the Panchayat Ghar because he is apprehensive about their safety in that place.

Perception of the Members of Gram Sabha

Most of the Gram Sabha members are not adequately aware of the provisions of RTI Act (2005). Most of them, perceive the RTI Act as a device for harassing the elected representatives. Besides, they are also not aware of its scope as well as provisions and hence they have a negative perception of it. The members of the Gram Sabha have also been found to be totally unaware of the information related to the Panchayat Accounts that is available on PRIA

Soft. Even the educated youth of the village find it difficult to access the same due to the complex nature of the software.

Limitations of the Study

The findings of this study on the effectiveness of RTI regime in Gram Panchayat Berla may or may not be applicable to other Gram Panchayats of the State as the levels of the education and awareness of the Sarpanches vary from Panchayat to Panchayat. It will be a fallacy to generalize on the basis of the findings of this study which has a very limited universe.

Recommendations

Going by the ground reality observed during the course of this study there is an immediate need for sensitizing the panchayat functionaries on various provisions of the RTI Act. In particular, the Sarpanches and the Gram Sachivs should be given adequate training for responding to the RTI applications. For this purpose, the Government should launch Awareness Campaigns at the cluster level not only for making people aware of the RTI but also for dispelling their misconceptions about it. The concerned authorities in the State Government should also make organized efforts to deal with the common grievances of the people in this context and work for strengthening their faith in the RTI regime.

As a common administrative gaffe the gram sachivs' workload is not rationally assigned. The Gram Sachiv, presently associated with Berla Gram Panchayat, has charge of as many as 15 Gram Panchayats. This has overburdened him and it has consequently adversely affected his performance. The Gram Sachivs should not be assigned the work of more than two Gram Panchayats so that their work efficiency is ensured.

Proper thought needs to be given for the facilities and allowances available to gram sachivs. For example, the present rate of monthly travel allowance of Rs. 20 is a pittance and a farce in view of the travelling a sachiv has to undertake in discharge of his duties normally spread over a large geographical area of the Gram Panchayats under his charge. To make the amount rational the Travelling Allowance of Gram Sachiv should be increased adequately.

For the sake of transparency, another hallmark of RTI regime, all Gram Panchayat records, including the Agendas of the Gram Panchayat Meetings should be made online for ensuring all round fairness in working. An institutional nodal point should be created at the block level to train and guide the Sarpanches of Gram Panchayats on the RTI regime. Since the Sarpanch generally remains busy in mobilizing funds for the Gram

Panchayat, he/she is left with little time to complete the needed paper work. Hence a person should be appointed to assist the Sarpanch in maintaining proper records and to help her/him in preparing the answers of RTI applications.

Concluding Remarks

Thus, it may be safely concluded that the RTI regime has failed to strike roots in the Gram Panchayats of Haryana owing to the apathy of the members of Gram Sabha on the one hand, and the in capacity of SPIOs (Sarpanches) & the overburdening of the Gram Sachiv, on the other hand. Hence, policy changes and course correction are needed without further delay. Otherwise, the RTI regime could continue to be a farce. It may, however, be added as an End Note that this study of limited universe should be followed by an interdisciplinary study which could be representative of Haryana State as a whole. But it should be based primarily on the methods of Focused Group Discussions and Participatory Observation because the responses of the SPIOs (Sarpanches), ASPIOs (Gram Sachivs) and the Information Seekers (the Members of Gram Sabha) may not be fully reliable.

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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, space, etc.

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Emergence of an Agricultural Land Market in Rural Maharashtra

Ankush Paraji Aware

With the help of data of land transactions which took place from 2000 to 2014 in five villages of Maharashtra, this paper highlights some important features of emerging land market of agricultural land in rural areas of Maharashtra.

Agricultural land is the backbone of agrarian economy. It provides an important means of subsistence and gives a sense of pride to the owner. It carries tangible and intangible benefits for the land holder. Land is not only an important productive asset, but is also closely associated with power and prestige in an agrarian society (Shah 2002). In olden times agricultural land was considered as a reliable source of income; hence selling cultivable land was a rarity (Sarap 1996). Prior to 1990 several authors and economists have pointed out the inactive nature of market for agricultural land due to these reasons (Raj 1970, Bardhan 1973).

Agrarian circumstances have been changing since the 1990s. Growing

agrarian crisis and adoption of new economic policies have drastically altered the agrarian economy. Most of the agrarian communities all over the world are facing high risk and uncertainty in their income flow (Malmberg and Hawton 1999). In India in addition to fragmentation of agricultural land due to inheritance, uncertainty of income and volatile market conditions have made agriculture an economically unviable enterprise (Deshpande 2015).

Due to the above reasons, selling agricultural land is no more considered as a downgrading of social status, and buying land does not enhance social prestige as it used to be prior to the 1980s. Social and emotional values attached to land are diminishing rapidly. Farm land has now turned into a mere commodity to be transferred from one individual to another purely based on market conditions. This is how a land market is slowly developing in rural areas.

In this already dynamic milieu, a new phenomenon has been observed in the rural areas of Maharashtra after 2007. People with no relation with agriculture are buying agricultural land in rural areas for investment purpose. Market forces and cultural changes are leading to the transfer of ownership of agricultural land from agriculturalists to non-agriculturalists. The new owners are not interested in cultivating the land; instead they use it as yet another asset class to maximize the profit on investment.

Agricultural land is an important commodity. It is limited in supply. With modernization the demand for land is growing for construction of roadways, railways, industry, urban housing and other such activities. Hence it is virtually certain that unlike other commodities, prices of agricultural land will always change upwards. So the investors, especially those who are not residents of the village (non-native) and for whom agriculture is not the means of livelihood, are using agricultural land for maximizing returns on investment. The present paper highlights some features of the emerging agricultural land market.

Five villages from the Ahmednagar District of Maharashtra were selected to study the changing nature of the farm land market. Two of the five villages have no irrigation and farming is strictly based on the monsoon. Two villages

have regular irrigation facility. The fifth village is different from the other four in that it is located along the state highway¹. The paper analyses all land transactions in these villages during the period 2000-2014. The information regarding land transfers that took place from 2000 to 2014 was taken from the records of the village revenue office.

Agricultural Land Transactions in Non-Irrigated Village A1

Village A1 is 20 km away from Ahmednagar district headquarters. The village is surrounded by hills and is in the rain shadow area. The annual rainfall is scanty and most farmland lacks any permanent source of irrigation. The total area of the village is 935.06 hectare. Out of the total area, 670.80 hectare land is cultivable.

Transfer of ownership has happened in cultivable land only. Twenty three percent of total agricultural land of the village has been transferred from 2000 to 2014 in the village. Sixty two percent of the new land owners during this period are non-residents of the village. Of the total land transactions during the period, more than seventy eight percent took place after 2007. The percentage of non-natives of village A1 among the buyers between 2007 and 2014 is eighty two. This percentage shows that after 2007 agricultural land is being transferred mostly to non-residents.

Table 1 Agricultural Land Transactions in Village A1

Sr. No	Year	Total Land Transacted in a year (Figures in Hectares)	Percentage of land purchased by Non-Natives in the village	Number of Sale deeds in the Year	Proportion of Non-natives in the total sale deeds of the year (Figures in percentage)
1	2001	1.68	20.23	6	16.66
2	2002	1.2	33.33	4	25
3	2003	4.16	50	8	12.5
4	2004	3.16	00	4	00
5	2005	6.26	00	8	00
6	2006	16.75	85.43	6	33.33
7	2007	50.79	97.61	16	68.75
8	2008	7.78	8.61	7	14.28
9	2009	6.08	63.81	6	50
10	2010	11.9	16.80	10	90
11	2011	5.81	56.79	8	62.5
12	2012	20.91	47.96	18	44.44
13	2013	8.79	42.88	15	33.33
14	2014	6.64	51.50	11	54.54
	Total	151.91	61.73	127	35.43

*The term Non-natives is used for the people who are not residents of the village.
(Source- The Register of Land Transactions {which is termed as Ferfar Register in Maharashtra} of village Bardari)

If we delve into further details of the land sold to non-residents, it turns out that these owners have sold their land to new buyers from the city within a year or two². This is how agricultural land is being slowly transferred from the locals to outsiders.

Agricultural Land Transactions in Village A2

Village A2 does not have a permanent source of irrigation. The agricultural land in the village is not very fertile. The village is surrounded by hills and the annual rainfall is scanty. The location of the village is also not close to the highway. All these factors

make the land in the village less attractive for buying. And yet, after 2007 the number of land transactions per year has grown exponentially.

Out of the total land transacted since 2001 a majority (64%) of the new buyers are outsiders or non-natives. More than seventy percent land transactions in the village A2 took place after 2007. It proves that the dormant land market has been activated in the village since 2007. The profile of the buyers also proves that they are not residents of the village. Among the new landlords seventy percent are non-natives who have bought the land in the village. People from business and

Table 2 Agricultural Land Transactions in Village A2

Sr. No	Year	Total Land Transacted in a year (Figures in Hectares)	Percentage of the land purchased by Outsiders in the village	Number of Sale deeds in the Year	Proportion of Outsiders in the total sale deeds of the year (Figures in percentage)
1	2001	12.85	36.49	17	35.29
2	2002	18.11	41.02	10	30
3	2003	8.3	38.55	10	20
4	2004	22.33	60.85	12	33.33
5	2005	12.06	89.71	7	71.42
6	2006	10.53	14.71	15	6.66
7	2007	32.23	86.13	22	72.72
8	2008	74.97	89.15	26	77.27
9	2009	21.73	76.80	24	45.83
10	2010	29.91	52.45	28	39.28
11	2011*	36.16	28.84	35	34.28
	Total	279.18	64.00	206	

(*The researcher was unable to get data of land transaction after 2011 of the village)
(Source- The Register of Land Transaction of village Madadgaon)

professional background are buying the land (Personal Interview). The new land owners do not buy land for cultivation but for the purpose of investment.

Agricultural Land Transactions in Irrigated Village B1

The water of a dam is used for irrigation in the village B1. As compared to village A1 and A2 the percentage of outsider buyers is less in the village. The availability of irrigation

for agriculture has prevented distress sale of land in the village. Thirty one percent new landowners are outsiders. Even though the land owned by outsiders is less as compared to village A1 and village A2, the same trend is visible among the new buyers who sell the land after some time³. Some of the buyers are doctors from the district headquarters. They have nothing to do with agriculture as an occupation. For them land is only an investment avenue.

Table 3 Agricultural Land Transactions in Village B1

Sr. No	Year	Total Land Transacted in a year (Figures in Hectares)	Percentage of the land purchased by Outsiders in the village	Number of Sale deeds in the Year	Proportion of Outsiders in the total sale deeds of the year (Figures in percentage)
1	2001	2.77	68.23	9	66.66
2	2002	18.53	4.31	21	4.76
3	2003	12.41	14.74	10	18.18
4	2004	19.18	55.05	14	35.71

5	2005	24.83	30.68	22	31.18
6	2006	12.84	33.56	10	46.66
7	2007	4.77	16.56	08	25
8	2008	10.04	65.63	11	63.63
9	2009	6.07	26.35	09	11.11
10	2010	13.94	14.06	29	27.58
11	2011	11.24	31.93	17	41.17
12	2012	15.16	52.63	29	41.37
13	2013	5.37	13.9	11	18.18
14	2014	14.33	31.12	25	40
	Total	171.48	31.91	225	36

(Source- The Register of Land Transaction of village Nandgaon)

Agricultural Land Transactions in Irrigated Village B2

The village is 30 kilometers away from the district headquarters. The agricultural land in the village is fertile. The village is irrigated. As compared to non-irrigated villages land transacted in the village is less. Diverse trends of land transactions are found in the village.

Some of the new buyers have sold their land in the suburban area and have bought land in the village. It means the new owners are old farmers who have benefited from urbanization and purchased land for investment as well as cultivation⁴. A rise in the number of land transactions has been noticed in the village after 2007.

Table 4 Agricultural Land Transactions in Bagyati Village B2

Sr. No	Year	Total Land Transacted in a year (Figures in Hectares)	Percentage of the land purchased by Outsiders in the village	Number of Sale deeds in the Year	Proportion of Outsiders in the total sale deeds of the year (Figures in percentage)
1	2004	4.23	100	5	100
2	2005	5.6	48.57	10	40
3	2006	6.48	51.08	9	55.55
4	2007	7.14	47.05	10	40
5	2008	10.09	76.51	14	71.42
6	2009	16.32	60.04	16	68.75
7	2010	7.46	34.18	19	42.10
8	2011	2.08	73.07	8	62.5
9	2012	2.67	67.04	5	80
10	2013	11.79	58.77	12	75
11	2014	9.28	100	11	100
	Total	83.14	64	119	63.02

(*The Village was bifurcated in 2003 so earlier records of land transactions have been deposited in the storeroom) (Source- The Register of Land Transaction of the village Dhamori Budruk)

Agricultural Land Transactions in the Village Located along State Highway

The Village C1 is located along a state highway. There is no permanent source of water for agriculture in the village. The topography of the village is the same as that of the other two non-irrigated villages. Still transfer of land in the village is much higher since 2007. Prior to 2007 average annual land transaction was less than nine hectare,

but after the period it has substantially increased up to twenty hectare per year. A similar trend, of selling the land after a few months or a year, which was found in village A1 was visible in village C1 too. It has been found that the new buyer, especially if he happens to be non-native, often sells the land to another non-native after a period⁵. Out of the total land transactions since 2003 more than eighty percent took place after 2007.

Table 5 Agricultural Land Transactions in the Village C1

Sr. No	Year	Total Land Transacted in a year (Figures in Hectares)	Percentage of the land purchased by Outsiders in the village	Number of Sale deeds in the Year	Proportion of Outsiders in the total sale deeds of the year (Figures in percentage)
1	2003*	8.64	29.62	18	16.66
2	2004	10.88	29.77	15	20
3	2005	9.64	33.92	13	30.76
4	2006	6.68	10.77	09	22.22
5	2007	6.7	28.95	17	52.94
6	2008	33.46	84.63	26	80.76
7	2009	36.38	59.48	37	59.45
8	2010	24.41	79.43	26	46.15
9	2011	17.89	67.69	22	86.36
10	2012	16.48	50.84	28	46.42
11	2013	15.52	65.39	31	45.16
12	2014	9.81	21.71	24	29.16
	Total	194.49	58.53	266	48.49

(*The Village revenue office was divided in 2003 so earlier records of land transactions were deposited in the storeroom.) (Source- The Register of Land Transaction of village Imampur)

Table 6 and 7 show that the number of land transactions after 2007 has increased substantially. Average annual land transaction has almost doubled in four villages after 2007. It proves that the land market has been activated in rural areas. Except one village, proportion of

land transaction as compared to total arable land of the village is more than twenty percent (see table 7) within a period of fourteen years. Large agrarian tracts have changed hands within a limited period. It means the turnover of land in rural areas is rising.

Table 6 Land Transactions Before and After 2007

Sr. No	Name of Village	Average Land transaction per year before 2007	Average Land transaction per year after 2007
1	Village A1	5.53	14.83
2	Village A2	14.03	39
3	Village B1	15.09	10.11
4	Village B2	5.43	8.35
5	Village C1	8.96	20.08

(Figure derived from above tables)

As compared to irrigated villages land transactions in non-irrigated villages are more in absolute number as well as area wise. Productivity of land in irrigated villages is more as compared to non-

irrigated villages. Non-availability of water makes agricultural activity unviable and economically unsustainable. Hence the proportion of sale of agricultural land in non-irrigated villages is high.

Table 7 Comparison of Cultivable Land in the Villages and Total Land Transactions since 2001

Sr. No	Name of Village	Total Cultivable Land in the Village	Percentage of Land Transacted in the village since 2001 (Figures in Percentage)
1	Village A1	670.80	22.64
2	Village A2	-	-
3	Village B1	1160.92	14.77
4	Village B2	355.66	23.37
5	Village C1	632.39	30.75

(Source: Data derived from Land Transactions of above villages and Namuna Ek Ghoshwara Register of Each Village)

The land transactions in the above five villages show that nature of the new buyers is changing. A majority of new buyers are non-native of the village. Considering the widespread agrarian distress nobody will purchase agrarian land for cultivation. The aim of new buyers is to invest money for future sale. Thus an agricultural land market has developed in the villages and the land has emerged as an avenue for investment.

The social class of the new buyers also varies. Many of the buyers have no agrarian background. In village C1 the person with the highest land holding is a Marwari, having various businesses in the city. So his intention of buying land is not cultivation but investment.

A new class of local real estate agents has emerged in villages. These agents work as a link between native

sellers and non-native buyers. The availability of such agents has made it possible for non-natives to purchase land in an unknown milieu.

A farmer purchases land because of its productivity; but if an investor buys it then he does not care for the quality of land, he just looks at connectivity and financial prospects of the land. Due to the later, the price difference between arable land and barren land has diminished. The price of every kind of land has increased tremendously. It has become almost impossible for a farmer to buy adjoining land which is for sale. Thus the outsiders enter into the picture. The supply of land is limited and its commercial usage is rising rapidly. This makes agricultural land a precious commodity for investors. It is unlikely that land prices will drop suddenly like stock prices. Hence land is the best investment avenue. It cannot be taken away. One need not pay heavy taxes on the purchase of land. The maintenance cost of the agricultural land is also modest. The actual price of land and the governmental price are different. Therefore agricultural land has emerged as a new, safe and profitable option for investors. It has activated land market in rural areas.

After Independence the Indian State sought to redistribute land. But in the neoliberal era market forces are again redistributing land through a consensus based on economic bargaining. A new

class of non-farming land owners is emerging which is not buying land for cultivation, but for investment. Land has become an asset which is bought with money accrued through legal and illegal means.

Notes

- 1 The villages depending on rain water for agriculture are - Bardari and Madadgaon are renamed in the paper as Village A1 and Village A2. The villages having irrigation facility-Dhamori and Nandgaon-are renamed as Village B1 and B2 and fifth village, Imampur, located along the state highway has been renamed as Village C1 in the paper.
- 2 On 12 September 2007 a person from outside the village bought the land and within a month he sold it to another person (see fer no. 473 and 476 of village Ferfar Register). Likewise 362 and 415, 370 and 455, 403 and 457, 530 and 549, 577 and 578, 658 and 681, 737 and 758, 739 and 789, 491 and 737 Fer number land transactions have taken place in the village. In all these land transactions agricultural land has been sold by the buyer within a short time.
- 3 Following Fer no show that land purchased by the new owner is sold within a year or two and it happens that all these sellers and buyers are outsiders. Fer no 2670 and 2996,

2973 and 3031, 2841 and 3039, 2842 and 3040, 3042 and 3049, 2677 and 3140, 3050 and 3147, 3173 and 3186.

- 4 All the new owners who have purchased land in the village are former land owners in the vicinity of the urban area. They have purchased land, with following Fer no 857, 858, 1133, 1211, in the village.
- 5 A person, non-native, bought the land 4.64 hectares on 16 January 2009 in village C1. He sold the same land to another buyer on 19 December 2009. Many such kinds of land transactions have taken place in the village.

Sources from Government offices

Land Transactions data from Revenue offices of Bardari, Madadgaon, Nandgaon, Dhamori Bruduk, and Imampur of Ahmednagar District of Maharashtra was collected.

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Operational Dynamics of Policy Implementation for Rural Development Programmes: An Overview

Sushanta Sekhar Mohapatra

1. Introduction

At the outset it is essential to conceptualise policy implementation in order to provide an insight into the operational dynamics of policies, programmes and projects in the broad framework of rural development. Policy implementation is the most crucial aspect of public policy as it provides a linkage between desired goals and the outcomes.

The success of a public policy depends on how successfully it is implemented. Brinkerhoff and Hoff (2002) state that successful policy outcomes depend not only upon designing good policies but upon managing their implementation. Implementation has long been recognized as a distinct stage in the policy process, unique for representing the transformation of a policy idea or expectation to action aimed at remedying social problems (Lester &

Goggin, 1998). Reflecting a process involving change over time, implementation is characterized by the actions of multiple levels of agencies, institutions, organizations, and their actors and is influenced by context throughout. The large set of actors in the public policy process, such as politicians, civil servants, lobbyists, domain experts, and industry or sector representatives, use a variety of tactics and tools to advance their aims, including advocating their positions publicly, attempting to educate supporters and opponents, and mobilizing allies on a particular issue. (Dusza Karl 1989) In India, rural development has been an important component of development strategy and therefore various programmes and policies have been implemented by organisations and agencies starting from national and local level. However, policy implementation has not been effective enough to achieve desired results.

In this paper an attempt is made to elucidate the operational dynamics of policy implementation in respect of rural development programmes in order to find out the underlying issues that hinder the implementation efforts. Here the overview is based upon the prevailing pattern and practices of Odisha, though the experience in some other states is more or less identical.

2. Policy Implementation: a conceptual overview

The term policy implementation has been defined by many scholars from various perspectives. Implementation is an important stage of the policy-making process. It means the execution of the law in which various stakeholders, organizations, procedures, and techniques work together to put policies into effect with a view to attaining policy goals (Stewart et al., 2008). Implementation can be viewed as a process, an output and an outcome, and it involves a number of actors, organizations and techniques of control. It is the process of the interactions between setting goals and the actions directed towards achieving them (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973). Barrett and Fudge (1981) describe the implementation process "as a sequence of events 'triggered' by a policy decision, involving the translation of policy into operational tasks, to be carried out by a variety of actors and agencies, and substantial coordinating activity to

ensure that resources are available and that things happen as intended". Policy implementation reflects a complex change process where government decisions are transformed into programs, procedures, regulations, or practices aimed at social betterment.

Three factors affecting contemporary implementation processes are explored: networked governance, socio-political context and the democratic turn, and new public management (Amy DeGroff and Margaret Cargo 2009). Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) attempt to provide a conceptual framework to the process of implementation by stating, "Policy implementation encompasses those actions by public and private individuals (or groups) that are directed at the achievement of objectives set forth in prior policy decisions". As noted above, the term implementation has been defined and analyzed by different writers from different perspectives. Notwithstanding their differences, these approaches and models have enriched and contributed to the theory and practice of policy implementation. As a matter of fact, the seminal contribution of Pressman and Wildavsky heralded the beginning of first generation studies on policy implementation. The first generation studies were primarily concerned towards describing numerous barriers to effective policy implementation (Stewart et al., 2008). However, first generation studies have been criticized for being theoretical,

case-specific and noncumulative (Goggin et al. 1990), and the theory building was not at the heart of first generation research (Pulzl & Treib, 2007).

The second generation studies were more concerned with explaining implementation success or failure (Stewart et al., 2008), and made contributions towards developing analytical frameworks/models to guide research on implementation (Goggin et al., 1990). Second generation studies are broadly classified into top-down and bottom-up approaches of policy implementation (Stewart et al., 2008). This period was seemingly marked by the debate that was later dubbed as the top-down and bottom-up approaches/ models of implementation research (Pulzl & Treib, 2007). For the first group, effective implementation requires a top-down system of control and communications, and resources to do the job. On the other hand, the exponents of the bottom-up approach suggest that the implementation process involves 'policy-making' by those who are involved in putting policies into effect. The bottom-up model also sees the implementation process as involving negotiation and consensus building. In the discharge of policy delivery functions, implementers have varying bands of discretion over how they choose to apply the rules. According to some writers, implementation takes place in the context of interaction of organisations. Such interaction

produces power relationships in which organisations can induce other less powerful organisations to interact with them. Those organisations, which depend for their sustenance on other more resourceful organisations, have to work in such a way as to secure and protect their interests and maintain their relative autonomy, so that implementation does not suffer. According to Bardach, implementation is a game of 'bargaining, persuasion, and maneuvering under conditions of uncertainty.' In this model, organisation is seen as a structure composed of groups and individuals, all seeking to maximize their power and influence. This model suggests that policies extend beyond the formal political institutions. Implementation is, therefore, seen as a political game, which individuals play for the purpose of maximising their power. Thomas B. Smith (1973) made some observations with regard to third world countries. He maintained 'Third World governments tend to formulate broad, sweeping policies and governmental bureaucracies often lack the capacity for implementation. Interest groups, opposition parties and affected individuals and groups often attempt to influence the implementation of policy rather than the formulation of policy.' Further he also observed that policy implementation is seen as a tension generating force in society. Tensions are generated between and within four components of implementing process: idealised policy; implementing organisations; target group and

environmental factor. The tensions result in transaction patterns which may or may not match the expectations of outcome of the policy formulators. These transaction patterns may become crystallized into institutions. Both the transaction patterns and institutions may generate tensions which by feedback to the policy makers and implementers, may support or reject further implementation of policy.

3. Operational Dynamics underlying Implementation:

As explained above, there can be a number of factors and forces that shape the nature and effectiveness of programme implementation. In India policy implementation is the outcome of the interaction and interplay of several organizations and agencies of the government, non-governmental organizations, banks and the stake holders. The implementation process necessarily gets tied up with the dynamics of relationship between different implementing agencies in the field. It requires cooperation, coordination and commitment at all levels of implementing machinery starting with the ministries at the Central and State level through the various organizations in the field at district, block or village level. An attempt is made to figure out the organizations and agencies and other factors that impinge upon the implementation of rural development programmes,

3.1 District Rural Development Agency (DRDA)

DRDA has been the principal organ at the district level to oversee implementation of different anti-poverty programmes. The DRDA Guidelines 1999 primarily defines the role of DRDA as a supporting and facilitating organization and being a catalyst in the development process. The Guidelines also indicate the need for developing a greater understanding of processes necessary for poverty alleviation as well as developing capacity to build synergies among different agencies such as Panchayati Raj bodies, line departments and banks for most effective results. All executive and financial powers of the DRDA are exercised by the Executive Committee, headed by the Chief Executive Officer and comprised of all district level officers and such other officers as considered necessary for planning and implementation of the programmes. This Committee is fully accountable to the Governing Body as well as the Government. As per suggestions of the Central Government, the Chairman of the Zilla Parishad is also the Chairman of the Governing Body in Odisha. The DRDAs are in overall charge of planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the rural development programmes. The functions of the DRDA are:

- a) To provide information regarding the parameters, dimensions and requirements of the programmes to

the district and block level agencies and to apprise them of their tasks in this regard;

- b) To coordinate and oversee the survey and preparation of the Perspective Plan and Annual Plans of the block and finally a district plan;
- c) To ensure the effectiveness of the programmes by regular evaluation and monitoring;
- d) To ensure the inter-sectoral and inter-departmental coordination and cooperation;
- e) To publicise the achievements made under the programmes, disseminate knowledge and build awareness about the programmes;
- f) To send periodic reports to the state government in prescribed formats.

The DRDA is not the implementing agency, but is expected to oversee the implementation of different poverty alleviation programmes of the Ministry of Rural Development, Departments of Rural Development and Panchayati Raj of the State Government. DRDA has a separate identity, but functions under the chairmanship of the Zilla Parishad. It is expected to be professional and be able to interact effectively with various other agencies. It is also expected to coordinate with line departments, the

Panchayati Raj institutions, the banks and other financial institutions, the NGOs as well as technical institutions, with the objective of articulating the support and resources required for poverty alleviation programmes. The output ultimately depends on the ability of the DRDA in bringing about a convergence of approach and of action among different agencies involved in programme implementation.

3.2 Inter-Departmental Coordination:

It is found that there is a diversity of delivery channels implicit in an extremely heterogeneous and complex organizational structure. It has a contextual, an institutional and managerial dimension. The contextual setting is provided by the programmes being undertaken; institutionally, it comprises a diversity of delivery channels and its managerial thrust is towards appropriately directing and coordinating institutional interactions (Ray, 1992). There are numerous institutional linkages - both vertical and horizontal. Departments and agencies of government at various levels and banks are involved in the planning implementation and monitoring of various programmes and projects. Institutions and agencies are specialized structures and they have their own history and institutional culture. Each of them has an independent chain of command and as such has a distinct operational system. Therefore

implementation of rural development programmes involves organisational dynamics of a complex nature and as such involves the problem of coordination and integration of various organisations - vertically and horizontally. While horizontal integration is concerned with functional complementarity between various sectoral programmes framed by different departments or agencies, vertical integration is related to relationship between government departments or agencies at various levels - centre, state, district and local. It is imperative to have greater coordination among these departments and agencies so that implementation output would be satisfactory. Here the issues involved are: whether any coordinating mechanism exists; to what extent lower level of administration participate in the decision making process; to what extent the lower levels of administration can exercise discretion in taking decision locally. Further, there is an important matter of great import, i.e. the linkage between the governmental machinery and the rural beneficiary. It involves creation and sustenance of a mechanism for participatory approach to ensure people's participation in rural development process. It is quite clear that there exists a considerably enlarged machinery of administration to plan and implement rural development programmes - right from the national level to the local level. At the national

level, Planning Commission was responsible for formulations of plans for the development of the country. Planning Commission has been replaced by the NITI Aayog. Then there is the Ministry of Rural Development that coordinates various programmes of rural development and matters relating to panchayati Raj. At the state level, there is the State Planning Board as well as Department of Rural Development and the Department of Panchayati Raj. Moreover, Development Commissioner is there to act as the coordinating functionary for rural development programmes at the state level. However, it is at the level of district and block that the problem of coordination and integration becomes an issue of concern. The manpower of the bodies engaged in programme implementation are drawn from various departments and agencies and as such do not constitute the formation of new administrative structure and style of functioning. There are rather attempts at adaptation of administrative machinery to new tasks underlying rural development. Hence it is obvious that it is very difficult to effectively coordinate the rural development functionaries. At present, in Odisha and several other states, the District Collector has to interact with many institutions and functionaries. As the Chairman of the DRDA, he is expected to forge relationship with all of them and to coordinate their activities effectively so as to bring desired results. There is

provision for Coordination Committee under the chairmanship of the District Collector. The success of such a Committee depends upon the interest and efficiency of the Collector. In view of his ever expanding responsibilities, the Collector is not in a position to do justice to this job of development administrator. Similarly the block administration is not properly equipped with manpower or expertise to ensure continuous supervision and effective coordination. Even the linkages between the block administration and the DRDA are not effective. The Block Development Officer (BDO) has difficulty in extracting the work from the staff of the various departments and agencies at block level because they are outside the unity of command hierarchy and in some cases the administrative rank of the BDO is relatively low. The principle of unity of command, which is very essential for administration, has broken with the emergence of rural development administration at district and block levels. The extension officers are supposed to obey the orders of two masters and as such they find themselves in a dilemma as to which of their superiors to obey. Extension personnel have occasionally exhibited a tendency to play one against another and thus to evade responsibility. Reconciliation between the horizontal responsibility of the area specialist and the vertical responsibility of the subject matter specialist has not yet been satisfactorily brought about and is long overdue'(Maheshwari 2000). Thus the

rural development bureaucracy has been woven around backward and forward linkages. At different levels, the problem of coordination is writ large.

3.3 Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs):

Panchayati Raj institutions have been associated with the implementation of rural development programmes since its inception in independent India. However, the 73rd Amendment Act, 1992 has provided constitutional recognition to PRIs and empowered them to function as units of self-government. Article 243G of the 73rd Constitution Amendment Act has empowered State Governments to provide requisite powers and functions to the Panchayati Raj institutions so that they can (a) function as institutions of local self-government and (b) adopt plan and implement schemes for economic development and social justice including those 29 subjects enlisted in the Eleventh Schedule of the Constitution. As state governments are given the discretion to devolve powers to PRIs, the nature of devolution varies across the states. In Odisha, 21 activities have been identified and devolved to the panchayats. An important feature of the Act is empowerment of the Gram Sabha. Accordingly, the state governments have empowered them variously. In Odisha, it has the following powers in respect of development activities.

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- i. approve the plans, programmes and projects for social and economic development before such plans, programmes and projects are taken up for implementation by the Grama Panchayat;
 - ii. identify or select persons as beneficiaries under the poverty alleviation or similar other programmes; Provided that every Grama Panchayat shall be required to obtain from the Grama Sasan (Gram Sabha) a certification of utilization of funds by that Panchayat for the plans, programmes and projects referred to above;
 - iii. consider and approve the annual budget of the Gram Panchayat including the supplementary or revised budget Similarly, a Panchayat Samiti exercises powers and performs the functions of Samiti as given below —
- A) planning, execution and supervision of development programmes, scheme and works in the Block relating to Community Development including those pertaining to "Tribal Development Blocks" for the time being re-organised by Government as such end of such other programmes, schemes and works as Government may from time to time by general or special order, direct in respect of any Samiti. Likewise every Zilla Parishad has the power to prepare, execute and supervise the district plan relating to —
 - a) monitoring and supervision of programmes like Jawahar Rozgar Yojana to be directly implemented by gram panchayats and panchayat samitis;
 - b) implementation of anti-poverty programmes and monitoring and supervision thereof;
 - c) discharge of responsibilities and functions as assigned to the DRDA from time to time;
 - d) distribution of untied funds.
- These powers and functions entrusted to PRIs assume greater proportion if we have to appreciate the significance given by the Central Government to these bodies in implementation of centrally funded schemes or centrally sponsored schemes. Even the State Government schemes are being implemented through the PRIs at various levels. The 73rd Amendment Act has mandated decentralization in all its dimensions, but in practice, the political dimension is found to be successful and it is in this context that the operational dynamics of programme implementation gets complicated. As a matter of fact, PRIs represent the third tier of Indian federalism and to that extent it is a

healthy development. But in respect of programme implementation, it has added a critical dimension to operational dynamics in view of political affiliation of elected representatives of the panchayat bodies. As PRIs have been instrumental in successful implementation of development programmes, the elected representatives at different levels have been actively associated with the implementation process. Even the local MLAs and MPs, being members of PRIs at block and district level are taking active interest in planning and implementation of various programmes. The partisan approach to development agenda thus further complicates the inherently complex nature of inter departmental coordination and integration.

3.4 People's Participation in Implementation process:

People's participation has been considered to be the sine qua non of development administration by policy planners. It is felt that programme implementation cannot be effective without the participation of people in every aspect of policy making - planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Hence various rural development programmes have inbuilt mechanism or provisions for ensuring people's participation. People's participation is very important to achieve socio-economic uplift for all

sections of people because (i) active involvement of the community helps in preparation of effective development action plans by making assessment of the felt needs and constraints of the people (ii) It helps in mobilizing resources for effective plan implementation. Besides, it also minimizes the cost of supervision and monitoring. (iii) involvement of people in the process of development planning also acts as — pressure group from below, thereby creating a suitable environment for formulation of effective plans and its better implementation. (iv) it can reduce unequal distribution of power in rural areas and create an inclusive environment, thus favouring the deprived and the marginalized. The ultimate objective is to put the people in the centre of the rural development process. Instead of being the object of development they are to be subject of development. Recognizing the importance of people's involvement in policy implementation, the 73rd Amendment Act has empowered Gram Sabha, as noted in earlier paragraphs, to have a decisive say in implementation of rural development programmes. Social audit is another mechanism that empowers the stakeholders to audit a scheme or project. Social audit is a compulsory component of all Central and State schemes in order to maintain transparency and accountability for successful implementation of

programmes. At village level social audit is conducted by Social Audit Committee, nominated by the Palli Sabha. It includes members from SC, ST community and women. The BDO, Project Director, DRDA or the Collector are associated with the process of social audit at different stages. Thus this aspect of people's involvement also adds to the overall dynamics of programme implementation.

3.5 Other agencies at work:

Since the sixth five-year plan (1980-1985), a new role for non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the rural development sector has been identified by the government. They are being associated with implementation of a number of programmes at some level. These groups are supposed to show how the village resources along with human resource, skill, local knowledge that is greatly underutilized could be used for their own development. These agencies play the role of mediator between people and government. NGOs are actually the facilitator of development, education and professionalization. Further, NABARD, nationalized and commercial banks and cooperative banks are also directly involved in the implementation of rural development programmes insofar as they provide credit to farmers, artisans and poor rural people under various programmes.

4. Concluding Observations:

Policy implementation involves various activities or tasks which are functionally related and dependent. It is a sort of networking of relationships. The implementing authorities are supposed to take note of these tasks and relationships and ensure that policy tasks occur in proper sequence and on time. Policy implementation at the highest level is not characterized by effective coordination and cooperation. Implementation of development programmes in India has exerted strains on the varying capacities of the governmental and other institutional machinery. Further, as Bardach noted, policy implementation is a game, which individuals play for maximisation of their power. Therefore it is suggested that

(a) Implementation authorities have to allocate tasks to personnel in such a way as to ensure teamwork. For the purpose of assigning roles and responsibilities it is necessary to develop position classification encompassing status, role, and duties of the staff; reporting relationships; and accountability criteria. (b) in case of making major decisions, it is desirable that difficult decisions should be reserved for senior staff at higher levels in the organisation. Second, delegation of authority should be the rule because authority is needed at each level for assigning responsibilities to the staff to perform their duties and tasks. Third, it

is essential to have consensus building among all those constituents, which are involved in the implementation process.

United Nations (1996) has also suggested that, for the successful implementation of rural development programmes, such institutional arrangements be adopted that promote collaboration and cooperation among key agencies and interests; build consensus, educate the public through community level campaign and mobilize local resources. What is important in policy implementation vis-a-vis operational dynamics is that: (i) there should be suitable organizational structuring and positioning of organisations with clear authority and the responsibility vested in them, (ii) the range of control and autonomy accorded to implementers for planning coordination and implementing programmes should be properly delineated. At the institutional level, it has been a fact that the DRDA has been found wanting in implementing the rural development programmes effectively. On account of greater emphasis on the Zilla Parishad in the post-73rd Amendment period, the DRDA would be powerless. In several states including Odisha it has been overshadowed by the Zilla Parishad. Further, the Collector is also more concerned with law and order administration than development administration. Another issue of great import is that lack of unity of command hierarchy in the development

bureaucracy has been affecting the inter-departmental coordination at the district and block level. Hence it would be a sound and better proposition if a post of District Development Commissioner (DDC) is created to look after and coordinate all developmental activities in the district. The G.V.K.Rao Committee (1985) recommended such a step with a suggestion that the DRDA be merged with DDC. Zilla Parishad should implement the rural development programmes with the assistance of the DDC, who would be the Chief Executive of Zilla Parishad. Suitable institutional arrangements linking the DDC with the block administration and Panchayat Raj institutions can be worked out for better coordination and effective programme implementation. It is significant that Maharashtra has a separate Rural Development Service, members of which function only in the field of rural development. Other states should replicate this. On the basis of experience of the last 25 years, it is imperative that suitable administrative reforms should be introduced to better the dynamics of agencies and relationships underlying rural development administration.

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Drinking Water Sources, Urban-rural Variations and Changes in India

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Abstract

Water is essential for life. The amount of fresh water on earth is limited, and its quality is under constant pressure. Preserving the quality of fresh water is important for the supply of drinking-water, food production, and recreational water use. Water quality can be compromised by the presence of infectious agents, toxic chemicals, and radiological hazards (WHO). According to the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the majority of public water systems (91%) are supplied by ground water; however, more persons (68%) are supplied year-round by community water systems that use surface water. This is because large, well-populated metropolitan areas tend to rely on surface water supplies, whereas small, rural areas tend to rely on ground water. The improvement of the access to safe drinking-water can

result in tangible improvements to health. This paper examines the sources of drinking water, urban-rural variations and changes in Indian States and Union Territories using Indian Census data 2001-2011. Results with respect to drinking water sources within the premises, near the premises and away from the premises reveal that as regards households with availability of drinking water source within the premises, Chandigarh and Punjab are among top 5 and Manipur and Chhattisgarh are among bottom 5 states in all the three categories - rural, urban and total. The urban-rural difference in terms of percentage points is higher in Sikkim and lower in Chandigarh. The percentage increase is significant in Dadra & Nagar Haveli during specified Census decade. The urban-rural difference in percentage points indicates that all the households in rural areas are overwhelming the urban areas in terms of availability of

* Presented in the National Seminar on Water Resources and Climate Change: Knowledge, Technology and Policies (WRACC-2019), Tamil Nadu Open University, Chennai during on 30 September 2019.

drinking water sources near the premises. It is suggested that the government and voluntary organizations related to housing amenities especially drinking water supply may intensively concentrate on the States and Union Territories of India such as Manipur, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, Jharkhand and Madhya Pradesh.

Keywords: Drinking water, residential difference, sources, etc.

Introduction

Water is one of the most important substances on earth. All plants and animals must have water to survive. If there was no water there would be no life on earth. Apart from drinking it to survive, people have many other uses for water. The importance of water is apparent through several facts - that water boosts energy, delivers important nutrients to all our cells, especially muscle cells, postpones muscle fatigue, and helps weight loss. Water is used for many purposes such as domestic - cooking, drinking, bathing, and washing; agricultural - farming, gardening fisheries; industrial - manufacturing, for steam generation; recreation - swimming, rafting and boating; and hydropower generation. There have been many studies on nature, utility, and impact on existence, of adequate supply and of lack of water. It becomes necessary to study the availability, accessibility and sources

of drinking water in States and Union Territories of India as some of the areas are facing drinking water scarcity leading to many health problems.

Literature Review

The importance of water is realized by every species of the world. Water is essential for life. From the time that primeval species ventured from the oceans to live on land, a major key to survival has been prevention of dehydration. The critical adaptations cover an array of species, including man. Without water, humans can survive only for a few days. Water comprises between 75% body weight in infants, to 55% in elderly and is essential for cellular homeostasis and life (Nicolaidis, 1998).

Drinking water is the most important source of health. The sources of drinking water should be identified with a view to protecting the quality of water supply to as many people as possible in the long run. Every year, some 1.6 million people die due to diarrhoea because of contaminated drinking-water (WHO, 2005). In developing countries, a majority of households are still deprived of running water; hence, drinking-water must be collected at source, which is often located many hundreds of metres away from home and transported to the household where it is stored until consumption. Researchers have repeatedly observed that the microbiological quality of water in

transportation and drinking vessels in the home is lower than that at the source, suggesting that contamination may occur at different stages during the process from collection of water to consumption (Pruss, Kay, Fewtrell and Bartram, 2002; Lindskog and Lindskog, 1988; Wright, Gundry and Conroy, 2004; Gundry, Wright, Conroy, Du, Genthe and Moyo, 2004). Bacterial counts in water at source and water stored in the household showed that the contamination is greater in cases where the faecal coliform counts in the water at source are low (Wright, Gundry and Conroy, 2004). Consequently, in-house contamination may reverse the health benefits that are gained by improvements in community water supply. The practice of open storage of drinking water allows for faecal contamination to occur inside the household. Contamination by hands and domestic animals have been shown to be the predominant causes of declining quality of water (Jensen, Ensink, Jayasinghe, van der, Cairncross, Dalsgaard, 2002; Schmidt W, Cairncross, 2009).

Objectives

- (1) To study the percentage of households having access to safe drinking water and changes in the same in India.
- (2) To examine the percentage of households by location of source of drinking water in India.

- (3) To understand the urban-rural variations in sources of drinking water in India.
- (4) To suggest the rural and urban areas of States & UTs of India, that need to be focused upon for provision of drinking water through various policies and programmes.

Data and Method

This paper uses the data from Census of India 2001 and 2011. The bi-variate analysis was carried out to realize the objectives of the study. The variables used in this study are:

Indian States and Union Territories

- (1) Percentage of households with availability of drinking water source within the premises, India, States and Union Territories, 2001 (Total, rural, and urban)
- (2) Urban-rural percentage of households with availability of drinking water source within the premises, India, States and Union Territories, 2011
- (3) Change in percentage of households with availability of drinking water source within the premises, India, States and Union Territories, 2001-2011
- (4) Percentage of households with availability of drinking water source near the premises, India,

States and Union Territories, 2001
(Total, rural and urban)

- (5) Urban-rural percentage of households with availability of drinking water source near the premises, India, States and Union Territories, 2011
- (6) Change in percentage of households with availability of drinking water source near the premises, India, States and Union Territories, 2001-2011
- (7) Percentage of households with availability of drinking water source away from the premises, India, States and Union Territories, 2001 (Total, rural and urban)
- (8) Urban-rural percentage of households with availability of drinking water source away from the premises, India, States and Union Territories, 2011
- (9) Change in percentage of households with availability of drinking water source away from the premises, India, States and Union Territories, 2001-2011

Results and Discussion

The availability of sources of drinking water have been broadly classified into three, i.e., within the premises, near the premises, and away from the premises. The percentage of households with drinking water

available within the premises, near the premises, and away from the premises by location of residence (urban/rural), urban-rural percentage points difference in 2011 and percentage change in all these three variables during 2001-2011 among Indian States and Union Territories and Tamil Nadu districts were used to realize the objectives of the paper.

Availability of Drinking Water Sources within the Premises

About 47 % of the households in India have availability of drinking water sources within the premises. It ranges from 16.1 % in Manipur to 86.2% in Chandigarh. The states such as Punjab (85.9 %), Lakshadweep (83.7 %), Goa (79.2 %), and NCT of Delhi (78.4 %) stand among top 5 while Chhattisgarh (19%), Odisha (22.4%), Jharkhand (23.2%) and Madhya Pradesh (23.9%) stand among bottom 5 Indian States and Uts.

As far as rural-urban profile is concerned, in the case of rural areas, top 5 states are Chandigarh (85.4%), Punjab (81.7%), Lakshadweep (79.8%), Kerala (72.9 %), and Daman & Diu (72.6 %) while the bottom 5 are Sikkim (2.1%), Mizoram (6.4%), Manipur (8%), Chhattisgarh (10.3%) and Jharkhand (11.7%). In case of urban areas, Punjab (92.7%) stands first followed by Uttarakhand (88.7%), Chandigarh (86.2 %), Goa (85.1%), Pondicherry (85.1%), Tamil Nadu

(54%), Mizoram (53.5%), Nagaland (52.1%), Chhattisgarh (49.7%), and Manipur (31.8%).

The percentage points difference between urban and rural households ranges from 0.8% points in Chandigarh to 77.7% points in Sikkim followed by Rajasthan (57.2% points), Jammu & Kashmir (49.3% points), Jharkhand (47.4% points), Mizoram (47.1% points), Punjab (11% points), Kerala (10.4% points), Lakshadweep (5.1% points), Daman & Diu (4.8% points).

The percentage increase of such households during 2001-2011 is highest in Dadra & Nagar Haveli (232.9%) followed by Daman & Diu (80.2%), Himachal Pradesh (70.2%), Tripura (70.2%), Mizoram (59.2%), NCT of Delhi (4.7%), Punjab (0.5%), and Lakshadweep (0.2%). However, Mizoram showed a decrease of 2.8 % during 2001-2011 (Figures 1A1-1A3).

The percentage point difference between urban and rural households and percentage increase (between 2001 and 2011) are highest in Chennai and Kanyakumari respectively in the case of households with the availability of sources of drinking water within the premises.

Availability of Drinking Water Sources near the Premises

About 44.3 % of the households in India have availability of drinking

water sources near the premises. It ranges from 10% in Punjab to 58.1 % in Tamil Nadu. The states such as Chhattisgarh (54.59 %), Mizoram (46.7%), Manipur (46.2%), and Madhya Pradesh (45.6%) stand in the top 5 while NCT of Delhi (15.4%), Lakshadweep (14.3%), Kerala (14.1%) and Chandigarh (11.7%) stand bottom 5 among Indian States and UTs.

As far as the rural-urban profile is concerned, top 5 States and UTs in rural areas are Tamil Nadu (74.8%), Mizoram (61.6%), Chhattisgarh (59.3%), Jharkhand (51.9%), and Manipur (51.3%), and the bottom 5 States and UTs are Goa (20.6%), Lakshadweep (19.9%), Kerala (16.3%), Chandigarh (13%) and Punjab (12.7%). In urban areas, Tamil Nadu (40.2%) stands first followed by Chhattisgarh (37.4%), Manipur (36.2%), Mizoram (33.2%), Madhya Pradesh (30.1%), Kerala (11.5%), Haryana (11%), Jammu & Kashmir (10.2%), Uttarakhand (7.8%), and Punjab (5.7%).

The percentage point favourable to rural areas is lowest in Chandigarh (-1.4) followed by Daman & Diu (-3.1), Kerala (-4.8), Punjab (-7), Lakshadweep (-28), Mizoram (-28.4), Jharkhand (-28.8), Rajasthan (-33), and Tamil Nadu (-34.6). However, only Lakshadweep (28.8%) shows favourable to urban areas. The percentage decrease is pronounced more in Daman & Diu (59.1%)

followed by Dadra & Nagar Haveli (50.1%), Goa (42.8%), Chandigarh (40.6%), Tripura (39.8%), Rajasthan (9.9%), Chhattisgarh (9.6%), Nagaland (8%), and Tamil Nadu (4.4%) during 2001-2011 (Figures 1B1-1B3).

It may be noted that Tamil Nadu State stands top in all the three categories - total, rural, and urban followed by Chhattisgarh, Mizoram, and Manipur among top 5, and Punjab and Kerala among bottom 5 States and UTs. The urban-rural difference percentage points indicate all the households in rural areas are ahead of the urban areas in the availability of drinking water sources near the premises. The percentage of decrease is more in Daman & Diu and less in Tamil Nadu.

Availability of Drinking Water Sources away from the Premises

About 17 % of the households in India are having availability of drinking water sources away the premises. It ranges from 1.1 % in Puducherry to 37.8% in Manipur. The States such as Odisha (35.4 %), Meghalaya (32.7%), Tripura (32.4%), and Jharkhand (31.9%) are among those with the most households while Daman & Diu (1.5%), Lakshadweep (2%), Chandigarh (2.2%) and Punjab (4.1%) have the fewest households with sources away from the premises.

As far as the urban-rural profile is concerned, in rural areas are Manipur (40.7%), Tripura (39.6%), Odisha (38.5%), Meghalaya (37.9%), and Jharkhand (36.4%) show the highest number of households, whereas Lakshadweep (0.3%), Chandigarh (1.6%), Puducherry (2.1%), Daman & Diu (2.8%) and Punjab (5.7%) show the fewest. In urban areas, Manipur (32.1%) has most households with sources away from premises followed by Nagaland (20.7%), Odisha (18.5%), Jharkhand (17.8%), West Bengal (16.1%), Lakshadweep (2.5%), Chandigarh (2.2%), Punjab (1.6%), Daman & Diu (1.1%), and Puducherry (0.7%).

The urban-rural difference percentage point favourable to rural areas is highest in Tripura (-25.9) followed by Jammu & Kashmir (-24.3), Rajasthan (-24.2), Meghalaya (-24), Madhya Pradesh (-21.6), Tamil Nadu (-2.5), Daman & Diu (-1.7), and Puducherry (-1.4).

Only Lakshadweep (28.8%) shows percentage increase in the households with drinking water sources away the premises. The percentage decrease is pronounced more in Daman & Diu (59.1%) followed by Dadra & Nagar Haveli (50.1%), Goa (42.8%), Chandigarh (40.6%), Tripura (39.8%), Rajasthan (9.9%), Chhattisgarh (9.6%), Nagaland (8%), and Tamil Nadu (4.4%) during 2001-2011 (Figures 1C1-1C3).

The urban-rural percentage points difference indicates all the households in rural areas are overwhelming the urban areas in the availability of drinking water sources away from the premises. The percentage of decrease is more in Daman & Diu and less in Tamil Nadu. Lakshadweep is the only state showing increase in the percentage of households with availability of source of drinking water away from the premises during 2001-2011.

Conclusions

Drinking water is more important for the survival of not only human beings but also all the living organisms of the universe. It is important and interesting to study the proportion of households with the availability of drinking water source within the premises, near the premises, and away from the premises using the Census data so as to enable policy makers and programme implementers for appropriate interventions.

Regarding households with availability of drinking water source within the premises, Chandigarh and Punjab are among top 5 and Manipur and Chhattisgarh are among bottom 5 states in all the three categories - total, rural and urban. The urban-rural difference percentage point is higher in Sikkim and lower in Chandigarh. The percentage increase is significant in

Dadra & Nagar Haveli during 2001-2011. As far as the households with availability of drinking water source near the premises is concerned, Tamil Nadu stands top in all the three categories - total, rural, and urban followed by Chhattisgarh, Mizoram, and Manipur among top 5, and Punjab and Kerala among bottom 5 States and Union Territories. The urban-rural percentage points difference indicates the households in rural areas having drinking water sources near the premises are higher than those in the urban areas. The percentage of decrease across 2001-2011 is more in Daman & Diu and less in Tamil Nadu.

With respect to proportion of households with availability of drinking water source away from the premises, Odisha has the most while Puducherry, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep, Chandigarh, Punjab and Jharkhand among the lowest are in all the three categories - total, rural and urban areas. The urban-rural difference percentage points indicate the households in rural areas are greater than those in urban areas in the availability of drinking water sources away from the premises. The percentage of decrease is more in Daman & Diu and less in Tamil Nadu. Lakshadweep is the only state showing increase in the percentage of households with availability of source of drinking water away the premises during 2001-2011.

Based on the findings of the study it may be suggested that the government and voluntary organizations related to housing amenities especially drinking water supply may intensively concentrate on the states, union territories of India such as Manipur, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, Jharkhand and Madhya Pradesh.

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FIGURES

Figure 1A1: Percentage of households with availability of drinking water source - within the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories. (Total, 2011)

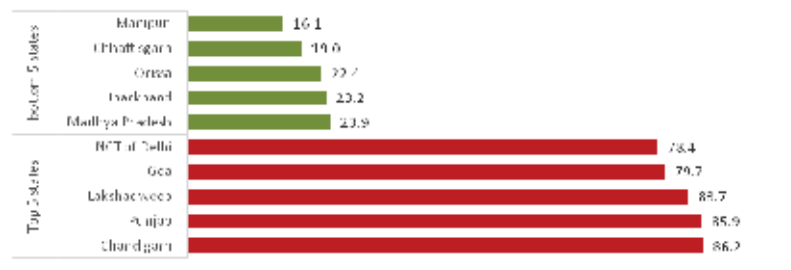


Figure 1A2: Percentage points of urban-rural difference of households with availability of drinking water source - within the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories, 2011

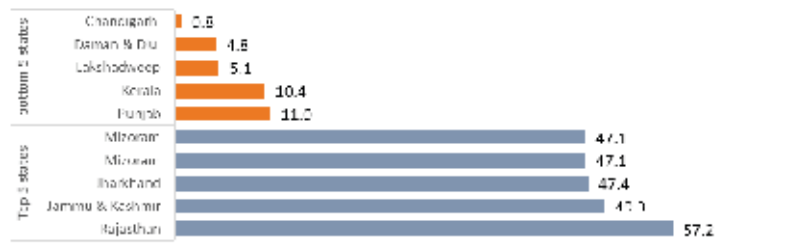


Figure 1A3: Percentage change of households with availability of drinking water source within the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories, 2011

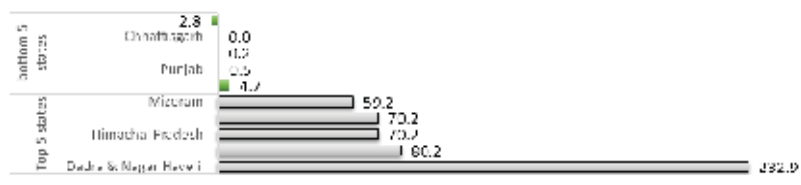


Figure 181: Percentage of households with availability of drinking water source - near the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories (Total), 2011

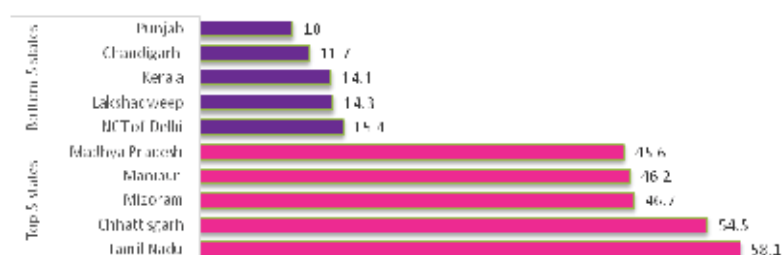


Figure 182: Percentage points of urban-rural difference of households with availability of drinking water source - near the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories, 2011

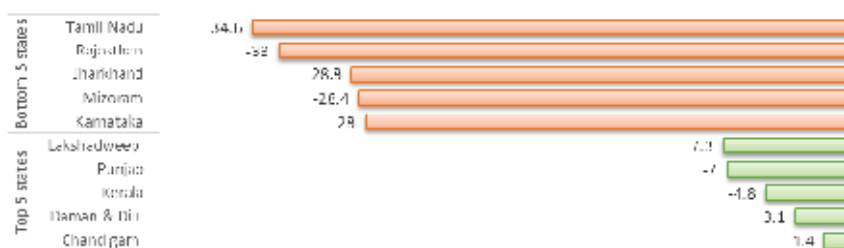


Figure 183: Percentage change of households with availability of drinking water source - near the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories, 2011

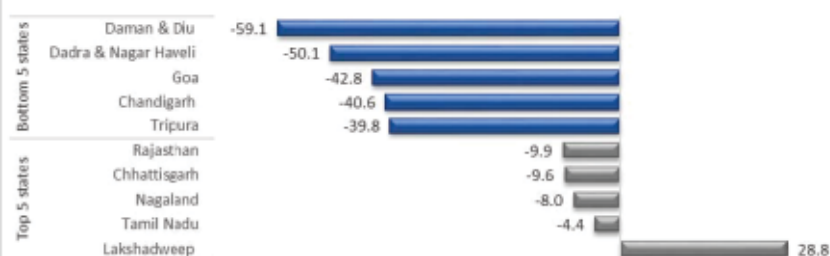


Figure 1C1: Percentage of households with availability of drinking water source - away the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories (Total), 2011

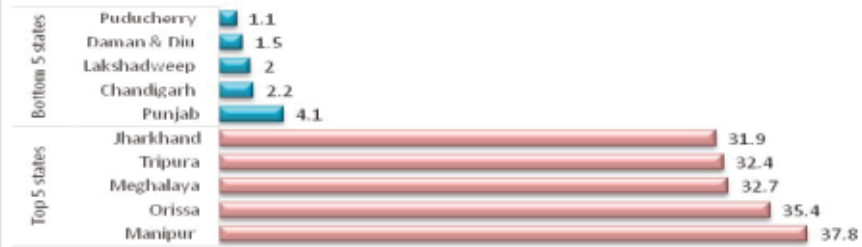


Figure 1C2: Percentage points of urban-rural difference of households with availability of drinking water source - away the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories, 2011

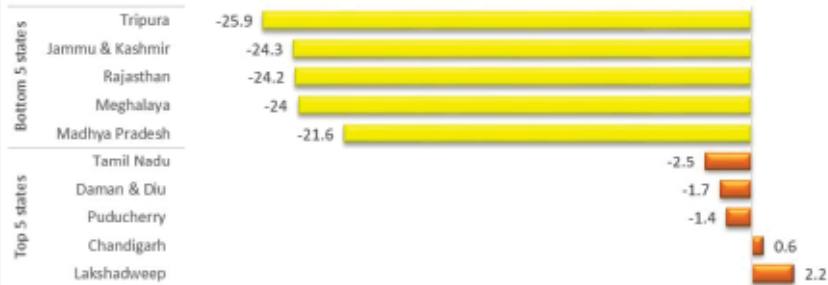
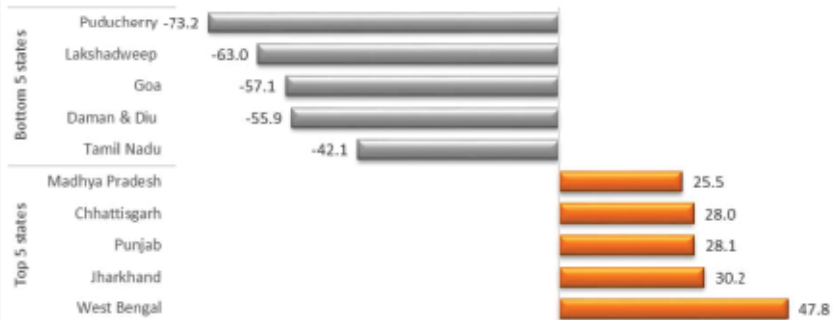


Figure 1C3: Percentage change of households with availability of drinking water source - away the premises, top 5 and bottom 5 Indian states and union territories, 2011



Report Review

Global Climate Risk Index 2020

In 2018, 2081 people in India lost their lives due to catastrophic climate events. This is the highest for any country in the world. In the previous year 2017, India ranked second highest in such deaths. These findings are reported in the Global Climate Risk Index 2020 compiled by Germanwatch e.V. a Bonn based independent think tank. The Report was released at the Conference of Parties COP25 in Madrid recently. The Report states that the Index is compiled based on data from Munich RE.

At the beginning of the Report, under the title Brief Summary, it is stated that the Index analyses the extent to which countries and regions have been affected by impacts of weather-related loss events. The Index is the 15th edition. A useful part of the Index is that it uses updated recent data for the year 2018 as well as for the period 1999

to 2018. Noting that the impacts of extreme weather events hit the poorest countries hardest, the report warns that these escalating impacts can no more be ignored. At the same time heatwaves in Europe, North America and Japan point to the impacts of climate events on high-income countries. It states that COP25 must address the issue of finance for addressing loss and damage as well as strengthening adaptation measures.

Thereafter are listed out some Key Messages. Among them that Japan, the Philippines, and Germany are the most affected countries in 2018; that more than 12000 extreme weather events killed about 4,95,000 people between 1999 and 2018 causing a loss of US\$ 3.54 trillion in PPP terms; that heatwaves were a major cause of damage in 2018 and that chances of the same in Europe are 100 times of what they were a century ago. Some other messages serve to put the issue in perspective.

The rest of the Report is divided into six sections, the last one containing references. These are crisp and precise, not very voluminous and data is well organised into tables. Table 1 in Section 1, for example, lists out the top ten most affected countries in 2018 in terms of their CRI (Climate Risk Index) ranks. Alongside, for each country are given four indicators -

Deaths per lac of population, absolute loss in US\$ PPP, loss as percent of GDP and HDI ranking of each country. India comes out as the 5th most affected country after Japan, the Philippine, Germany and Madagascar. Other countries in the top 10 are Sri Lanka, Kenya, Rwanda, Canada and Fiji. This section goes on to describe the actual impacts on these countries.

Section 2 addresses the role of Climate Change in extreme weather events. It quotes various studies and reports to explain the phenomenon. It highlights studies on the attribution of extreme events to climate change, “i.e. to what extent anthropogenic climate change has contributed to the events' likelihood and strength. In the field known as Probabilistic Event Attribution (PEA), based on climate model experiments, studies compare the probability of an extreme weather situation, in today's world with human-caused greenhouse gas emissions, to a world without human induced climate change.” The Section carries an interview with Friederike Otto, leading scientist in the field of event attribution and Acting Director of the Environmental Change Institute at the University of Oxford, on this subject of attribution, its usefulness and limitations as a science. Also depicted in a coloured map is the list of countries most affected during 1999-2018.

The Third Section takes the discussion forward, focusing more closely on Heatwaves, Climate Change and Extreme Weather Events. Looking back at 2018, it notes “Temperatures far above the long-term average were witnessed foremost in the Northern Hemisphere, wreaking havoc on human health, agriculture, ecosystems and infrastructure. As highlighted in Chapter 1, extreme heat caused a significant number of deaths in Japan and Germany as temperatures soared past 40°C.” The Report defines a heatwave as a period of abnormally hot weather, spanning at least 5 consecutive days with a temperature of 5 degrees above normal. While the effects of a heatwave may be less obvious or apparent than those of floods and storms, the Report notes, its effects in terms of human casualty may be just as high. It gives numbers to support this observation. There are detailed analyses of the impacts of heatwaves on human health and disease, agriculture and food security, and forestry.

A few paragraphs in the Section are devoted to India Heatwaves. It notes that India suffered from one of the longest ever recorded heatwaves in 2018, with large number of deaths, when temperatures climbed to up to 48°C. Prolonged drought and resultant widespread crop failures, and water shortages caused migration. Factors contributing to the heatwaves are

described as “increasing temperatures, the "El Niño Modoki", an irregular El Niño in which the Central Pacific Ocean is warmer than the East Pacific, and the loss of tree cover, reducing shade as well as the moisture in the soil.”

This Section contains interesting paragraphs on adaptation measures. It calls for care to protect against maladaptation – a measure intended as adaptation but unintentionally ends up increasing vulnerability to Climate Change. For example, “the widespread installation of air conditioning systems has to be considered maladaptation.” It calls for adoption of appropriate agriculture practices and crop choices which are low on greenhouse gas emissions. All in all, these thoughts on adaptation could be very useful for policy makers and other environmentalists.

The Section 4 is titled 'Addressing Climate Risks and Impacts: a Stocktake of 2019 Developments' Quoting two Special Reports of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), (one on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate and the second on impacts of climate change on land) it states that 'both extreme weather events and slow onset processes have tended to be underestimated in the past and have already caused devastating consequences worldwide today.

Significant increases in the near future are predicted. The reports show, with a high level of confidence, that climate change, including increases in the frequency and intensity of extremes but also the shrinking cryosphere in the Arctic and high-mountain areas, has led to predominantly negative impacts on food security, water resources, water quality, livelihoods, health and well-being as well as on the culture of human societies, particularly for indigenous peoples.' This should serve as a powerful wakeup call for all. It also refers to other reports that highlight the increasing risk of sea level rise and the significant dangers to coastal cities like Shanghai, Bangkok and Mumbai. Even after accounting for success in achieving the moderate emission cuts over 150 million people are living in areas which will be below the high tide levels by mid-century. Finally it expects COP25 to address various issues including those of averting, minimizing and addressing loss and damage, and importantly to lack of climate finance in addressing loss and damage. It concludes by saying 'More support, in terms of finance and capacity building through strong partnerships, is required in that regard in order to prepare those countries for the effects of climate change that do not possess the capacity to do so on their own and in order to share successful approaches.'

Section 5 records the methodological approaches used in compiling the report, while the last section 6 lists out references.

The report is a valuable document which serves to point out the severe hazards of climate change induced

extreme weather events and maps the vulnerabilities of various countries and regions and is therefore a wakeup call not only for those in government, but for urban planners, civil society and indeed for the common citizen; because she is the most vulnerable.

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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.

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