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STUDY MATERIAL

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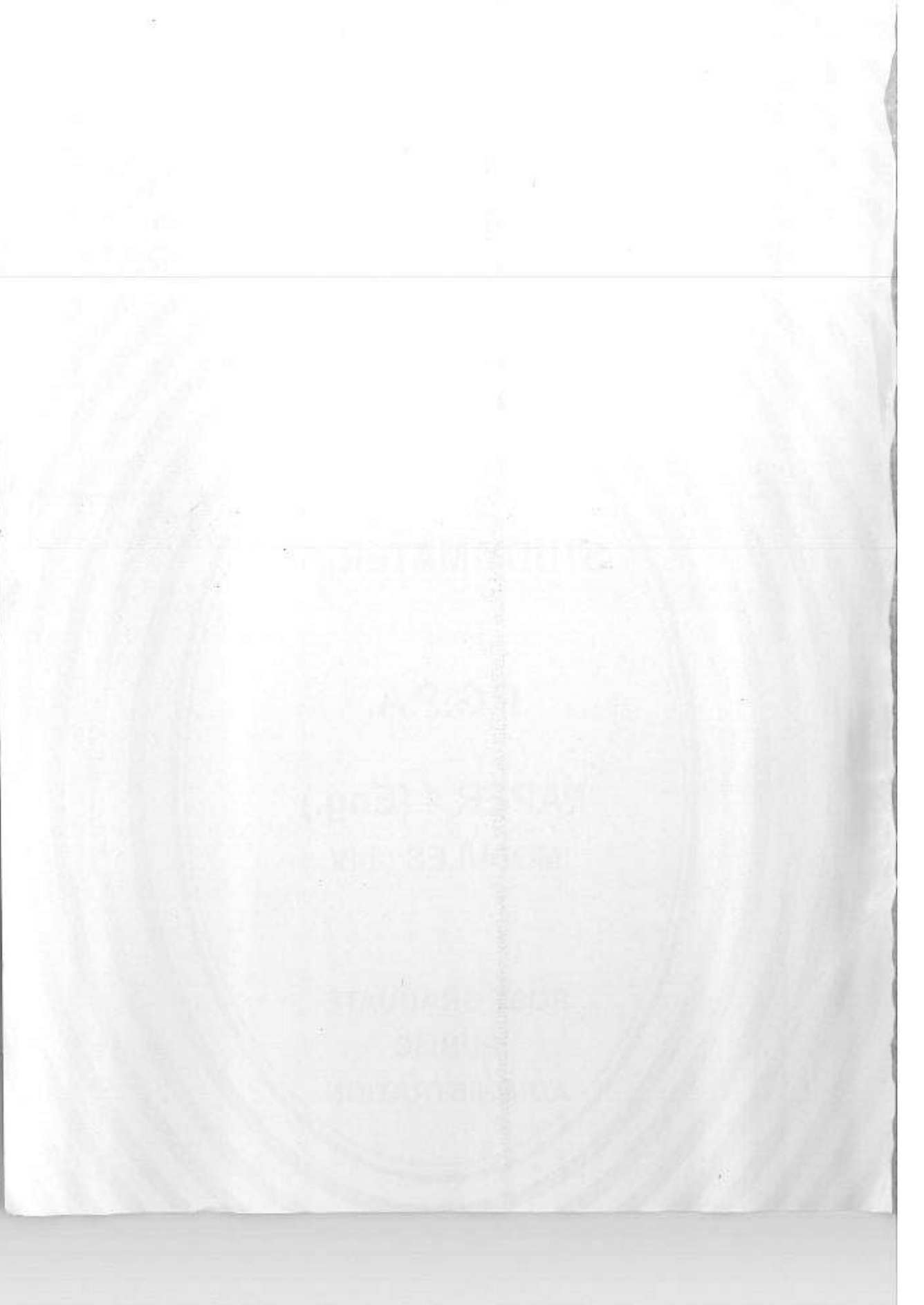
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MODULES : I-IV

POST GRADUATE

PUBLIC

ADMINISTRATION



PREFACE

In the curricular structure introduced by this University for students for Post-Graduate degree programme, the opportunity to pursue Post-Graduate course in Subjects introduced by this University is equally available to all learners. Instead of being guided by any presumption about ability level, it would perhaps stand to reason if receptivity of a learner is judged in the course of the learning process. That would be entirely in keeping with the objectives of open education which does not believe in artificial differentiation.

Keeping this in view, study materials of the Post-Graduate level in different subjects are being prepared on the basis of a well laid-out syllabus. The course structure combines the best elements in the approved syllabi of Central and State Universities in respective subjects. It has been so designed as to be upgradable with the addition of new information as well as results of fresh thinking and analysis.

The accepted methodology of distance education has been followed in the preparation of these study materials. Co-operation in every form of experienced scholars is indispensable for a work of this kind. We, therefore, owe an enormous debt of gratitude to everyone whose tireless efforts went into the writing, editing and devising of proper lay-out of the materials. Practically speaking, their role amounts to an involvement in 'invisible teaching'. For whoever makes use of these study materials would virtually derive the benefit of learning under their collective care without each being seen by the other.

The more a learner would seriously pursue these study materials, the easier it will be for him or her to reach out to larger horizons of a subject. Care has also been taken to make the language lucid and presentation attractive so that may be rated as quality self-learning materials. If anything remains still obscure or difficult to follow, arrangements are there to come to terms with them through the counselling sessions regularly available at the network of study centres set up by the University.

Needless to add, a great deal of these efforts are still experimental—in fact, pioneering in certain areas. Naturally, there is every possibility of some lapse or deficiency here and there. However, these do admit of rectification and further improvement in due course. On the whole, therefore, these study materials are expected to evoke wider appreciation the more they receive serious attention of all concerned.

Professor (Dr.) Subha Sankar Sarkar
Vice-Chancellor

Second Reprint : January, 2020

Printed in accordance with the regulations of the Distance Education Bureau
of the University Grants Commission.

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POST GRADUATE : PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
[P.G./P.A.]

Paper-IV

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THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

PHILOSOPHY

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Unit 1 □ Evolution of Development Administration

Structure

- 1.1 Evolution of Development Administration**
- 1.2 Genesis of Development Administration (1950 & 1960s)**
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1.1 Evolution of Development Administration

History has always been pregnant with ideas. Students of comparative public administration have been engaged in a continuous search for those ideas, which are more or less fundamental in order to understand and respond to rapid change in the diverse administrative systems of the contemporary world. Their profound interest, consequently gave birth to two new concerns — development economics & development administration. The development perspective of public administration can be credited to the American administrative theory contributions to the comparative public administration in the establishment of a base for the latter. Thus the purpose here is to make an attempt to explain newly emergent phenomena or newly recognised problems transgressing the boundaries of the classical public administration. With an intent to overcome such gap in administrative theory, the concept of development administration was introduced by Weidner, and stressed by Riggs, and some others. In some ways or the other each period of analysis exhibits limitations in regard to the analysis of problems addressed in the later stage of development of the discipline. This approach of analysis saw the appearance of the concept of development administration mainly after the World War II due to the problems faced by the nations of

Asia, Africa and Latin America which emancipated itself from the colonial rule in 1940s.

1.2 Genesis of Development Administration (1950 & 1960s)

In a sense, development administration is as old as the classical administration just as public administration is itself development administration in the philosophical sense. But as a sub-category it is a new emergence, indeed a post-second world war (1939-45) development. Besides, the success in dealing with the effects of depression, the Marshall Plan for the reconstruction of Western Europe, and the process of decolonization provided the requisite background amounting to the coining of the term development administration. It was Truman who, for the first time, used the term 'underdeveloped', signifying the division of the world into those who were developed, and those who were not. He also placed on those, who were developed, the responsibility to help to develop those, who were not. The success of massive American aid through Marshall Plan inspired a model of development that was also perceived to be appropriate for those countries too that were emerging from colonial rule. The West emerged as a role model both as an end and as a process by which this goal could be achieved.

At this juncture various international agencies came up to promote development & public policies in both rich & poor countries to respond to the demands of developmental goals & process. Besides, the academic world gave birth to two new concerns – development economics and development administration. One focused on devising economic policies, the other on strengthening state capabilities to implement them. But it was realized that many of the recipient states did not have the capability to make use of the aid that was being given. Strengthening state capability through improvement of administration became high on the scheme and a new field of endeavour known as development administration took shape, overriding the traditional public administration.

It was thought that post-colonial developing nations would adhere to the path of nation-building with the help of bureaucracy, i.e., development here would be bureaucracy-led-development. In course of time it has been observed that bureaucracy does not fit with the requirements of modernisation. Conservatism, rather than change is the essence of traditional bureaucracy. It also does not suit the needs of traditional societies that are currently going through a process of change. Bureaucracy has also been found as an urban oriented and elitist in nature and unrelated to the needs of rural community of the developing countries. It has been suggested that development here will begin with debureaucratisation and steady institutionalisation of popular participation in the management of development programmes.

It was an Indian scholar, Goswami, who used the concept for the first time. Later on many scholars have contributed for its enrichment. Among them W. Riggs, an outstanding scholar in the field defines development administration as the organised efforts to carry out programmes or projects thought by those involved to serve developmental objectives. Donald Stone defines it as 'the blending of all the elements and resources into a concerted effort to achieve agreed upon goals.'

As mentioned above, development administration in the 1950s & 60s was virtually identified with economic growth. Classical economists' view on development had been the important basis of the development theory in the 1950s with emphasis on increase in the GNP or per capita income. The economic growth model was based on the Keynesian macro-economic approach which paved the way to developmental thinking and sought to transform the ascriptive, particularistic and functionally diffused underdeveloped societies into the one having modernisation achievement orientation, universalism and functional specificity. Besides, Economics, disciplines like political science and sociology, which viewed the underdeveloped society as a closed traditional one, also contributed towards the concept of development administration.

In 1950s & early 60s the Instrumental Theory of Administration and popular government occupied the front row of the development administration model. This theory generated a normative approach viewing administrative or bureaucratic reforms as a precondition to development. The government became

a crucial instrument in designing and administering goals for achieving developmental objectives. The major thrusts were to strengthen bureaucracy by professionalising it and giving it a management orientation. An additional thrust was to change the attitudes and behaviour of the bureaucrats to make them development oriented. It was assumed that a broad agreement existed about the goals of nation-building and socio-economic development in the country and all that was needed was an effective administration to translate them into reality. It led to the concept of planned development having the assumption that developing countries could achieve their target with the help of the bureaucrats empowered with Western technology of administration.

In the same period (1950s & early 60s) millions of dollars were spent as an aid to public administration. Stress was also on the training of administrators to capacitate them to cope with the complex problems of development. In the training programmes, techniques like role-play, case method, T-groups etc. were made use of. The technical assistance programme insisted on creating training institutions in many countries of Asia, Africa & Latin America on the one hand and imparting to the people from these countries in one donor country on the other. The broad perspective was to create a technically oriented, professionally competent, politically & ideologically neutral bureaucracy. The rationale behind this technocratic attitude as summed up by Esman was as follows—

1. Deterministic sequence of stages can be seen in economic growth and modernisation.
2. Development can be assisted by transfer of resources and technologies from advanced to underdeveloped countries. Imported capital speeds up growth while technology increases efficiency & makes modernisation possible.
3. Development decisions should be in the hands of benevolent technocratic planners, protected by enlightened, modernizing leaders.
4. Bureaucracy is the primary organ and epitome of modern administration. It can be an effective and steadfast instrument of modernising elites, when its members are adequately trained and equipped with appropriate technologies.

However, there was an adaptation gap between the training programmes and the needs of the recipient country. The bureaucracy-technocracy programme in public administration received some serious threats due to its emulative development administration for building up administrative capabilities in a prescriptive manner. The technical assistance approach to development administration has been criticized on the ground that it concentrated on structural change rather than on attitudinal change. To overcome various problems of the early development theorists, like Gullick, Taylor etc. American Society for Public Administration formed the comparative Administrative Group (CAG) in 1961 under the chairmanship of Fred. W. Riggs. CAG emphasised on the problem areas and tried to resolve them by carrying out various researches. The financial support to the CAG was given by the Ford Foundation for research, conducting seminars and publishing monographs. The group was interested in the analysis of the relations between administrative system and its socio-political, economic & cultural contexts. They sensed that the traditional/classical concepts of administration, as a tool of explanation, in the third world societies were non-flexible, constricted and parochial, hence not suitable for explaining and prescribing norms for the cross-cultural situation as these concepts were incapable to answer the different paradigmatic behaviour of administration. Moreover, the suggestions of conventional organisational theory were suitable only for "maintenance needs" rather than for "development needs".

The Ecological school challenged the planned and managed transformation of the technological-managerial school. The former insisted on connecting the organisational structures to other social structures. It resulted into the idea that sociological context of administration is more relevant than mere organisational change and personnel manipulation. The nomenclature of the group suggested that they were focussed on a comparative analysis of the administrative systems of the erstwhile third world. So undoubtedly the era of 60s sought for new concepts or analytical constructs which have cross-cultural validity. In other words it was the period when the relationship between public administration and social, economic, political & cultural environment were examined. In brief, public administration was seen in ecological perspective, which was mainly the brainchild of Fred. W. Riggs. The ecological approach provided a vision that reflected interest in the examination of the relationship of non-administrative

factors to administrative ones. Administrative aspects it is argued can not be explained and analysed in their abstract forms where effective behaviour, despite the existence of formal political and administrative institutions, is still guided in modern traditional societies, to a great extent, by traditional structures & pressures, family, region, religion, caste and persisting socio-economic practices. Therefore an attempt is made to understand the socio-cultural and administrative factors as related to the implementation of technical assistance programmes.

The period of 1950s & 1960s saw the shift of approach in Development Administration. In the early days of 1950s administrative values like efficiency, economy & rationality were prescribed, which had normative (ideal or should be) inclinations. But with the introduction of comparative public administration, the approach changed into empirical (what it is) mode. Along with this, this period also marked a shift in focus from nonecological to ecological one. Even within the empirical approach emphasis has shifted from ideographic (individual country studies) to homothetic (generic & pattern seeking) studies. But the basic orientation of the era remained the same — the quest for ideal patterns & the identification of difficulties & obstacles to be overcome & problems to be resolved.

Development Administration was inaugurated in the 50s as a modernisation paradigm to initiate the development efforts in the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America along capitalist line. Bureaucratic rationality, battery of administrative reform tools and the skills of management were expected to be the prime motivators for development management. By the late 60s and early 70s, development administration suffered a setback, as the modernisation effort of development administration failed to remove poverty and social inequality. The gap between the rich and the poor increased. An 'Alternative' development vision was introduced with the new agenda items, like, 'environment', 'gender equity', 'child development', and other situation specific problems. Decentralization was thought to be a positive endeavour to make use of local resources and local knowledge. Administration in macro space sought to blend local level leadership and higher level support. Involvement of grassroots people was acknowledged as a real resource for development.

1.3 The Era of Human Development Concept (1970s & 1980s)

The influence of CAG was thought to be a positive endeavour to make use of local resources and local knowledge. Administration in macro space sought to blend local level leadership and higher level support. Involvement of grassroot people was acknowledged as a real resource for development which had shone as a star on the academic firmament, began to wane in the 1970s & it lost its financial support from the Ford Foundation. In addition more important questions began to be raised about the intellectual components of development administration & the reasons why the developing countries neither accepted nor adapted to its message. The very term development underwent seachange by 1970s. In this ear development goals were conceived in terms of meeting basic human needs by the models of dev. ad. The shifts in the approaches to the study of the theory & practice of development administration was evident in 60s, prominent in this ear. Unidirectional prominence of the early decades faded away. The report of the commission on International Development on Technical Assistance programme in 1969 made it gradually clear that the focus of the 1960s on administrative modernisation depicted as a technocratic-bureaucratic process to newly independent states needs a review & reclassification. It became increasingly evident that the task of nation-building and the goals of development were issues of keen contestation in the countries concerned. Hence, 70s & 80s saw some of the fundamental approach to development administration to emerge, keeping in view the development aspects (and development administration) like gender equality self-reliance & people's participation. Those approaches are as follows—

A. Basic needs approach to Dev. Ad.

The role of human factor in development process began to fascinate the students of development administration. Unlike the GNP indicator, meeting the basic needs of food, clothing & shelter along with education and public health became the indicator of development. Hence development acquired a social & economic dimension during the U.N. Second Development Decade (1971-81)

instead of economic growth. It was realised by the developmentalists that a very minority section of the population was benefitted from the earlier approach of development. The need for new economic framework & simultaneously a new approach to developmental administration was felt. The objectives of development were identified as reduction & removal of poverty, inequality, hunger, disease, unemployment, illiteacy & malnutrition De-bureaucratization & participatory management for the welfare of individual were regarded as the suitable policy to execute. The development of people were focused upon through regional, local & sectoral structures rather than central organisations. The implication is the design of a strategy to improve the socio-economic condition of the life of the rural poor people living in the periphery. Some scholars have suggested the following plan for development :—

- a) People's participation in plan formulation & implementation.
- b) Development of communicational co-ordination & integration of channels between the people & the administration of the third world.
- c) Decentralization & devolution of power & authority with the creation of autonomous administrative institutions & agencies at various levels.
- d) Strengthening of local self govt. & creation of intermediary organisation.

The study by Pai Panandikar and Kshirasagar has pointed out that 'a more carefully and deliberately adapted bureaucracy possible be more flexible and capable of being positive towards the development requirements'. This introduces the idea that 'development bureaucracy is committed to the cause of development'. Development Administration is essentially change-oriented, decision making has to be much more situational, innovative and creative. It requires risk taking and achievement orientation. Organisational rules and procedures, therefore, should not be allowed to get precedence over target achievement. The changing role of bureaucracy in development administration is identified as 'development bureaucracy' and non-Weberian model of bureaucracy which is structurally and behaviourally geared to the tasks of development, as per the needs of the people.

B. Participatory Approach to D. A. in

This approach is also known as people centred approach that stresses upon the promotion of psychological strength & empowerment of the people so as to enable the people to relate them with the administrative on a partnership basis. The key elements of participatory approach include the distribution of development benefits, in economic as well as social sectors.

Participation has to be a genuine feature of development administration. It is meant to restructure administrative process so as to ensure people's participation in all aspects of development. This approach leads one to appreciate the prospects of decentralisation.

Decentralised decision making is facilitated by creating separate, fairly autonomous units of administration at the field level. Local government units built on the basis of people's consent and involvement has been found more suitable for development administration.

If the personnel structure of bureaucracy is absolutely status-based it may not suit the needs of balanced development. A development bureaucracy can not be an insulated introvery organisation isolated from the common mass and the political leadership. Development has to depend on political management and on will of the people channelised through the political system itself. Development bureaucracy is needed to work very closely with the people under a general rubric of service ethic. Popular participation in development has to be looked at as a resource; bureaucracy must gain popular support for carrying on its development tasks. The conventional view of people as passive beneficiaries has to be replaced by the renewed notion of people as active participants.

Thus behavioural changes are needed to make bureaucracy change-oriented, result oriented and people oriented. In this context training of civil servants has assumed much significance in most developing countries. Popular participation in administration has become a relity in may places. Concepts like decentralised planning, participatory management etc. have become popular. This will definitely help in crushing the unhealthy nexus between politicians and the bureaucracy to the extent of cornering the benefits of development.

Alternative development models have been hardly applied in reality. In 1996 HDR it was revealed that third world was suffering from increasing disparities between rich and poor and there was a marked degradation in human

development situation. The report talked about the failure of the government to lay stress on structure and quality of development, leading to lop-sided growth. Employment situation did not improve as per expectation. Gender empowerment was still to achieve desired pace. According to Nef and Dwivedi, development administration suffered from four crises :

1. Crisis of methodology
2. Crisis of development theory
3. Crisis of political theory
4. Crisis of administrative theory

The functional, structural, systemizing and behavioural norms were not followed leading to methodological crisis. Development administration in turn became a field in search of a discipline.

The crisis of development theory can be traced to the breakdown of development orthodoxy and presentation of different approaches of development by variety of development scholars in third world.

The their crisis mounted because of the conservatism of political system People's involvement had not become a reality in true sense of term.

The fourth crisis was related to the fact that administrative reform became more a fad than a real attempt to bring about genuine socio-economic transformation.

The rise of 'New Right' philosophy of governance laid emphasis of state minimalism and market friendliness which gave a shock to state-led development approach.

1.4 Comprehensive Development Framework

The Comprehensive Development Framework is an approach by which countries can achieve more effective poverty reduction. It emphasizes the interdependence of all elements of development - social, structural, human, governance, environmental, economic and financial. It encompasses a set of

principles to guide development and poverty reduction, including the provision of external assistance. The Comprehensive Development Framework (CDF) encompasses a set of principles to guide development and poverty reduction, including the provision of external assistance. Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRS) underpinned by the CDF are the way forward to enhance country ownership and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. We intend to continue to direct the energy of our institutions to make this a reality.

The four CDF principles are :

- Long-term, holistic vision
- Country ownership
- Country-led partnership
- Results focus

The CDF is essentially a process it is not a blueprint to be applied to all countries in a uniform manner. It is a new way of doing business, a tool to achieve greater development effectiveness in a world challenged by poverty and distress. In the short run, the CDF establishes mechanisms to bring people together and build consensus, forges stronger partnerships that allow for strategic selectivity, reduces wasteful competition, and emphasizes the achievement of concrete results. It will help donors become more selective in what they do. In the long run, the CDF enhances development effectiveness and contributes toward the central goal of poverty reduction and reaching agreed targets such as the millenium Development Goals.

Eliminating poverty, reducing inequity, and improving opportunity for people in low-and middle-income countries are the World Bank Group's central objectives. The CDF is an approach by which countries can achieve these objectives. The CDF advocates a holistic long-term vision, the country in the lead, both "owing" and directing the development agenda, with the Bank and other partners each defining their support in their respective business plans; stronger partnerships among governments, donors, civil society, the private sector, and other development stakeholders in implementing the country strategy, and a transparent focus on development outcomes to ensure better practical success in reducing poverty.

Albania	Lao PDR
Armenia	Lesotho
Azerbaijan	Liberia
Bangladesh	Madagascar
Benin	Malawi
Bhutan	Mali
Bolivia	Mauritania
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Moldova
Burkina Faso	Mongolia
Burundi	Mozambique
Cambodia	Nepal
Cameroon	Nicaragua
Cape Verde	Niger
Central African Republic	Pakistan
Chad	Rwanda
Congo, Democratic Republic	Sao Tome and Principe
Congo, Republic	Senegal
Cote D'Ivoire	Serbia and Montenegro
Djibouti	Sierra Leone
Dominica	Sri Lanka
Ethiopia	Sudan
Georgia	Tajikistan
Ghana	Tanzania
Guinea	The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau	Timor-Leste
Guyana	Uganda
Haiti	Vietnam
Honduras	Yemen
Kenya	Zambia
Kyrgyz Republic	

Summary of Findings and Implications

Last November, Operations Policy and Country Service within The World Bank launched a review of 59 countries that have prepared a Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS), Interim PRS, or Transitional Results Matrix (TRM), to assess how well Comprehensive Development Framework (CDF) principles are underpinning PRS and TRM formulation and implementation. One objective of this work is to identify and agree on good practice examples from which countries in the process of consolidating a long- and medium-term country owned development framework can learn. It is also meant to help government, civil society and development assistance agencies come to a greater common understanding for improved policy coherence on such issues as *developing a long-term perspective, country ownership of national development strategy, government leadership of development assistance coordination, alignment and harmonization, and country perspective in focusing on results.*

Toward a greater understanding of the PRS initiative, as an input into the 2005 joint IMF/World Bank PRS Progress Report, and the commitments undertaken in the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness in March 2005, an e-discussion was arranged to invite comments on the paper's conclusions and implications before finalizing them. The discussion was held from March 14 to April 8, 2005.

The CDF is essentially a process: it is not a blueprint to be applied to all countries in a uniform manner. It is a new way of doing business, a tool to achieve greater development effectiveness in a world challenged by poverty and distress. In the short run, the CDF establishes mechanisms to bring people together and build consensus, forges stronger partnerships that allow for strategic selectivity, reduces wasteful competition, and emphasizes the achievement of concrete results. It will help donors become more selective in what they do. In the long run, the CDF enhances development effectiveness and contributes toward the central goal of poverty reduction and reaching agreed targets such as the Millennium Development Goals.

The CDF principles are embedded deeply in the international development agenda. For example, implementing the **Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness** is tantamount to implementing the CDF, in that the Paris Declaration underscores a clear resolve to work towards similar goals: stronger country ownership of

development policies, alignment of external partners assistance, harmonization of procedures, managing for results and mutual accountability. The CDF is also consistent with the **2005 World Summit Outcome**, which calls for the adoption, by 2006, and implementation of comprehensive national development strategies to achieve the internationally agreed development goals and objectives, including the Millennium Development Goals.

The CDF principles have been underpinning the Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) process since its inception, and were formally endorsed as the basis for all of the Bank's work, starting in January 2001 through the Bank's Strategic Framework Paper and later through Strategic Directions Papers. In some Low-Income Countries Under Stress (LICUS), Transitional Results Matrices (TRMs) help launch a PRS approach, also informed by the CDF principles. The 2005 CDF Progress Report shows that many countries that have been following the PRS process the longest have achieved relatively more clarity on their long-term development objectives and strategies to achieve them.

History

In his Annual Meetings speech, *The Challenge of Inclusion*, in Hong Kong in the fall of 1997, the Bank's President, James D. Wolfensohn, outlined a vision of the Bank as an institution committed to forging closer partnerships with other actors to enhance development effectiveness.

Following up on that vision, in the summer of 1998, the Bank carried out a series of consultations, including four round-tables, in the Americas, Europe, Asia, and Africa, on a discussion paper titled *Partnerships for Development : Proposed Actions for the World Bank* (337K PDF). Participants included representatives from governments, bilateral donor agencies, multilateral financial institutions, academia, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and other civil society organizations as well as the private sector. This series of meetings resulted in a follow-up paper entitled *Partnership for Development : From Vision to Action* (150K PDF).

Returning to the theme of closer partnerships for development, Mr. Wolfensohn, in his 1998 Annual Meeting Speech *The Other Crisis*, suggested the need for a more integrated approach to development based on a framework articulated and "owned" by the country itself. That vision, known as the

Comprehensive Development Framework, builds on these ideas :

This CDF principles were widely and explicitly accepted by the international community as a basis for achieving greater poverty reduction and sustainable development. A network of CDF focal points within multilateral, bilateral and UN agencies have been meeting regularly on various aspects of implementation.

Challenges

- Harmonization, at both the institutional and country level, of operational strategies, policies and procedures, is the most important priority for action by external partners. While the World Bank and other MDBs, and the OECD/DAC, have working groups to look at these issues, much remains to be done.
- The limits to country capacity are proving critically important for the whole range of government activity, including strategy formulation and implementation, building partnership and poverty diagnostics. This also includes monitoring progress on development results—with the Millennium Development Goals providing a frame of reference—and for which setting realistic targets for progress and developing effective monitoring mechanisms is proving a considerable challenge.
- Strengthening participatory processes, making them a regular, institutionalized feature, is proving crucial to building country ownership of national strategies. This includes much better engagement with the poor or marginalized groups and with the private sector; a difficult task in all these cases for many countries. It is important that such participation should be conducted under country leadership in a way that promotes the more effective functioning of existing, sometimes fragile, democratic institutions.
- The application of CDF has profound implications for how the World Bank and other development organizations work, their instruments, processes, internal culture, and the behavior of all staff.

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Unit 1 □ People's Participation & Development Administration

Structure

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1.1.1 Social & Economic Factors

1.1.2 Social Status

1.1.3 Income

1.1.4 Education

1.1.5 Occupation

1.1.6 Race

1.1.7 Place of Residence

1.1.8 Sex

1.1.9 Political information

1.1.10 Political involvement

1.1.11 Partisanship

1.2 Methods of People's Participation

1.3 Hindrances to People's Participation

1.3.1 PPWG Objectives

1.4 Bureaucracy, Social Power Structure-Organizational & Structural

1.4.1 Classical writings on Bureaucracy

1.1 Concept of People's Participation

Participation means that people are closely involved in social, cultural, economic and political process, which affect their lives. Participation may be direct or indirect. The important thing is that people have constant access to decision-making process and power. Participation in this sense is an essential element of human development. People may participate as individuals or as groups. As participation asks for greater access to influence and control, it also demands empowerment in political, social and economic terms. Participation in human development perspectives is both means and ends. Greater participation helps to maximize the use of human capabilities and thus act as the means to increase the level of socio-economic development. Participation may be discussed from angles-household participation, participation in economic activities, social and cultural participation and political participation. All have deep interrelations and their level determines the extent of development of a social and political system. In a democracy participation begins with political participation. Political participation is not merely casting of votes; it is a way of living.

Participation means a continuous & active involvement of the people, which is at the same time indispensable for good governance in a liberal democratic political structure. It is defined as — 'deep & continuous involvement in administrative process with the potential for all involved having an effect on the situation.'

For many years the conventional growth oriented, top-down strategy of development was not producing the desired result and at the same time the failures in the field of administration motivated the planners to decipher the complex field problems. Even in routine electoral process also the rate of participation was lowering. During 1960 presidential election about 39 million eligible votes did not vote in the United States of America. In 1964 the number of non-voters was 43 million & in 1968 it increased to 47 million. In the off year congressional elections & in state & local election it was almost 25 percent lower than the presidential election. Most of the people were occasional participants in the political process. It is now being observed that until & unless

the common people are participating in the development process, the developmental programs cannot become successful. In other countries as well this particular trend was present. The reason could be many; one of them might be poor planning & execution of it or might be professionalism-based administration which kept the people more separated from it. Even in the industrialized nations like Britain, the Netherlands the apathy existed among the people. In developed countries it was found that people were more involved in economic activities and participation in the political process lost its significance for them, creating crisis in democracy.

The next decade saw the gradual expansion of state acivity. Public administration was embracing daily life of the individual a well as the community. In every nation starting from the capitalist United States of America to former communist Soviet Union (presently Commonwealth of Independent States) or in the developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America, the need to extend the area of public administration was felt. Now the "Administrative state" was replacing the Laissez Faire state, which was responsible only for maintenance of law & order.

The modern "Administrative State" ws acting as the accelerator economic & social changes; it was also responsible for providing modern amenities of life, education, health, and transport along with the opportunity for employment. Participation in public Administration promotes better understanding between the people and the govt. which influences social integrity.

There were several reasons for the amplification of this state function, among them most important was—

- i) growth of industrialization and urbanization
- ii) change in the political philosophy of the state i.e. a shift from individualism to social welfarism.
- iii) two world wars and the resulting international situation gave rise to several other international institutions such as the World Bank, the IMF which were responsible for advancing the elite ideology of neo-liberal economics.
- iv) vast increase in population was posing a problem of providing food, shelter & other necessities of life.

These factors led to the emergence of 'Great Society', which again in turn helped to form 'Big Government' in almost all industrialized & advanced nations. Now the fundamental principles of the welfare state were transforming the functions of public administration. But this did not affect the level of participation in the political process. Welfare activities became mostly the government's headache.

During later part of the twentieth century a growing concern for people's participation in decision-making is being highlighted which was mostly absent during a few decades ago. During 1970s the scholars felt the need to search for suitable methods in national as well as in international sphere to meet the challenges coming out from illiterate, deficiencies & other kinds of pauperization; several management strategies were introduced to fit local situation. Throughout this decade several community development projects were taken up which integrated rural development and in this way participation as an intervention methodology evolved. At the same time a kind of realization was felt in the society that without the common people's participation decision making is bound to be ineffective. Moreover in the 'post modern' public administration the common people were considered as an integral part.

As a result of this working towards empowerment of common mass was felt indispensable which sought to restructure the government enabling common men & women exercise greater influence over matters of their concern. A tool to promote responsiveness in public administration was the citizen's charter introduced both in Britain & India in the 1990s. It implied people's participation in administration.

The 1993 UNDP Human Development Report comments that : "people's participation is becoming the central issue of our times." Therefore, the community participation is part of a wider strategy to promote savings to target services only towards those who have been identified as being most desperately in need of them and to shift the burden of resource provision away from the public sector towards communities, including communities in greatest need themselves.

With respect to the recent trend of community based development, which came to exist replacing state led development, the South Asian Commission on Poverty Alleviation observed in 1992 that the focus then shifted to development

activities of locality rooted, participatory micro development organizations. At the formal level, this shift was evident in the increasing attention being paid to voluntary & non-governmental organizations, in asserting the positive value of participation of the poor in development and bringing about social changes within a democratic political framework.

The commission also stated that the 'participation' emerged as a corrective process. Regarding this the commission stated — "participation here is seen not in narrow terms pointing towards formal activities effected through representatives. Instead it is defined as a socially vibrant grass roots process whereby people identify with the process as their own, with occasional help from facilitators. The process is inherently educative; leading progressively to a higher level of consciousness, which evolves through newer experiences of facing reality. They are then able to participate as active subjects in the development process rather than passive objects."

Therefore, now people's participation in public administration is part of the larger process which emphasis on the values of accountability, responsiveness and representation. It establishes that people would be provided with the congenial atmosphere so that they can participate both in policy-making & policy implementation. The administrators are also becoming obligated to the public for their actions & concede to people right to information. In most democratic countries the government represents the people's choice and administration has become an instrument for the welfare and service to the people. Now in almost all the countries the public administrators are considered as servants of the public, devoted to the realization of public interests and general well being. Regarding this Richard L. Chapman and Frederic N. Develand stated that :

- i) The administrators have to be more of a moral leader, mediator and coordinator than mere issuer of orders;
- ii) They have to be tactician and politician as they have to take up heavy political pressure;
- iii) They might have to act as an agent of change.

Administrators have to know management, economics, sociology, history, law, politics all at the same time. It is so because they have to manage the complexities emerging out of societal changes. It is because common people

are becoming more sensitized towards politics and the number of people participating in politics are becoming higher and higher day by day. Several factors act as determinates for political participation.

1.1.1 Social & Economic Factors

Along with growing industrialization, urbanization expansion of communication, the achievement of a decent standard of living was felt necessary for the people residing in a democratic country. In an economically stable society people do have more skills, opportunities and motivations necessary for an active political life so that the decisions taken by the political authority become responsive to people's cause.

1.1.2 Social Status

It is an important variable. It is assumed the higher a person's social status, the more likely he will be an active participant in political life. The upper class people are more interested and involved in public affair rather than the middle & lower middle class people who are more concerned about their basic needs. This class position again can be determined by other factors as well like income, education, race and place of residence.

1.1.3 Income

It is an important determinant the higher a person's income, the more likely he will be interested in politics. Studies on this show that highest income group is four times active than the lowest income group. It is so because money provides several opportunities to a person; he can have more free time, he can buy information in the form of books, magazines, newspapers, broadens one's experience through travel & participation in several organizations, in short it supplies the requisites for an active political life.

1.1.4 Education

This variable similarly related to participation. Education provides politically relevant know ledges and skills. Educated people can also give their relevant opinions regarding politics & decision making.

1.1.5 Occupation

Importance should be given to this variable as because it provides the

resources like time, money, skills, access all the more access to politically influential people. High profile jobholders do get more free time to set their schedules, political contacts. These people are usually wealthy, experienced. A few decades ago it was almost impossible to make education, occupation an important variable as because education and the related matters were confined only within a certain group of people.

1.1.6 Race

Race is an important variable particularly in developed countries. Their non-whites used to occupy low social class positions. Many blacks used to believe that govt. unresponsive for their needs & interests whether it is central state or local govt. But the thing has been changed now. Researches on this issue reveal that if the socio-economic characteristics are controlled the percentage of blacks participating in politics becomes equal to that of the whites & sometimes more than the whites. Glaring instances are set by important officials like kofi Anon (persident UNO) condoleeza Rice (chief adviser)etc. it shows how non-whites are ruling world's most powerful nation.

1.1.7 Place of Residence

Historical evidences show that political participation has been higher than in rural places. It was due to modern communication network, income, education, and leisure time available for urbanites. But now a day with the invention of modern transport system and as the modern communication is spreading its tentacles towards the remote areas, the scenario has been changed.

1.1.8 Sex

Inthe past, politics was considered as only a man's affair. The ratio of men taking part in politics was higher than the women. But with the universal franchise and other women's Liberation Movements women now are engaging more & more in politics. According to Gabriel Almond & Sidney verba, the rate of participation among females depends partly on the economic and social modernization of the country in which they live. According to them women in Italy & Manioc are less active than women in United states. These are important variables and are important determinants as well. There is another set of important variable, which together can be considered as psychological explanation.

A Psychological explanation of political participation :

1.1.9 Political information

Participation is strongly linked with information about politics & govt. In order to take part in politics a citizen needs some basic information. The level of political awareness increases with information, formal education & knowledge regarding politics. Thus there is a close link between participation & information.

1.1.10 Political involvement

Involvement is strongly related to participation. Involvement itself carries several meaning & when it comes to politics it involves several dimensions, like how much the people are interested in politics, how closely they follow campaigns, how much they care about the result of elections. A few decades ago only educated people was involved. But now attempts are being taken for the involvement of the common people. Thus the number of participants taking part in politics has gradually increased.

1.1.11 Partisanship

Partisanship refers to how closely a person identifies with political parties. Some people prefer leftist parties. Some others like rightists and there are some other groups of people who prefer to stay independent.

In the planning & programming stages & throughout the implementation of development projects, important information's provided by the participatory process, which ensures the congruence between objectives of development and community values.

Project cost is also likely to reduce by the utilization of man power.

If the local people are more involved, any change brought by the administrators for development will be acceptable to the community.

Participation is a two way learning process where both the administrator and the people become co-learners.

Active participation helps rebuild community cohesion and installs a sense of dignity in the community.

People's participation keeps the governance legitimate. Also people's respect of the laws of the land is strengthened by participate process.

To sum up the case for citizen's participation in administration in William morrow's words—

Contemporary policies...have been marked by a revolution seeking more direct participation by citizens in policy-making. In contrast to the tendency for institutions to represent organized interests, this resurgence of participatory democracy seeks direct access to decision centers and involvement in decision making regardless of any connections or affiliations that the participants might have with organized interests. In fact, the participation movement has stressed representation of unorganized publics that have been given only casual concern in policy arenas.

1.2 Methods of Participation

There are several methods by which the common people can get closer to the administration. Though they are indirect methods still they can influence the people.

Electing the representatives to panchayat, state legislature and also to parliament.

Citizens participating in seminars discussions promoted by political parties, pressure groups, youth forums, planning bodies & government machinery and

By articulating the needs & demands through political parties and other institutions.

Historical studies reveal that colonial legacy, poverty, illiteracy have greatly restricted people's participation in India. The souci-political structure of the nation has also somehow affected participation. Numerous divisions along the religious, ethnicity, linguistic & class lines and also illiteracy, poverty etc. acted as the impediments in developing our social structure. Various community development program also failed to generate initiatives, enthusiasm & the zeal required to make administrative programs more success. In a way people's

program turned into government's program. Introduction of democratic Decentralization through panchayati Raj Institutions could not generate enough initiative.

Adequate citizen knowledge of administrative norms, genuine public support belief in the integrity and honesty, positive evaluation of the job performances of governmental officials all these help the common people to minimize apathy towards administrative systems.

1.3 Hindrances to Political Participation

People's participation in administration is not at all free flowing. There exist several barriers; most important of them is the sluggishness among the people which results into apathy. Again a situation can also be created what selzaick call 'cooption.'

The degree of people's participation greatly depends on the socio-politics activities of the administration of the concerned nation. Previously, in most of the Asian & african nation who got independence mostly in 1940s & 1950s the administrative structure there used to represent a peculiar character as the administrators were mainly interested in revenue collection & maintaining law & order. That time administrative system was not at all accountable to the people. There advantages were provided mainly to the upper & educated people.

After independence these nations particularly India adopted several positive princiles for rapid socio-economic progress & modernization. In this junction probably for the first time stress was given for mass public participation. To implement the scheme, panchayati Raj institution and several other community development programs were introduced in order to improve socio-cultural life in rural areas. But all these efforts failed to produce the desired result.

Another kind of impediment can be produced if people's participation is prudently directed i.e. of unnecessary delay in decision making & red-tapism.

Women are the greatest non-participating majority. Statistically they are deprived of basic amenities of life more than their male counterparts irrespective of the stages of soicla ledder in which they belong. In South Asia their literacy

rate is around 50% of those of males. Same ratio is applicable in case of their employment in organized sector in South Asia. In Sub-Saharan Africa in tertiary education only 1/3rd women are found. In industrially developed countries also they are much less in number in scientific and technical sectors.

Minorities and indigenous people often find it difficult to participate in social and political process, which is governed by the dominant groups. Sometimes difficulties are embedded in the legal framework denying them to have equal access in education and employment opportunities and even in political representation. In USA there is a marked discrimination between the Whites and the Blacks. It is more a practice in everyday life than mere legal hindrance. Most extreme form of non-participation is assured through violence. After Second World War at least 40 ethnic groups have thus been prosecuted as reports HDR — 1993.

People in rural areas participate less than the people in towns. This is true in most developing countries. In Ethiopia 87% of the population live in villages, though only 11% have access to safe water. Thus they become non-participant being denied to have smooth access to the government services, education, health care, and employment and decision-making process.

Participation is much less for **the disabled persons** also though they make up world's 10% of the population.

Participation is a plant that does not grow easily. Obstacles are created by the legal systems, practice of mal-distribution of resources, bureaucratic, social norms, dominance of the powerful vested interests etc.

Changing the power equation is not very easy task. People's organizations, cooperative like associations, decentralized governance can make this impossible a possible end through their constant and patient effort. Therefore it is obvious people should get education first and become aware of their rights, they should have fair right to select their representatives and they must do it consciously. All the more care must be taken to ensure that under the name of participation plans, policies & other governmental programs should not get subverted.

Thus people's participation is a process where bureaucracy's accountability & responsiveness towards the common people is promoted and in doing so

sometimes it gets involved into political malpractices which ultimately turns into political tensions. To avoid all these unnecessary tensions a profound understanding between the people and the administrative body is required. In this connecting father of public Administration aptly observed in 1887 that.

The problem is to make public opinion efficient without suffering it to be meddlesome. Directly, in the oversight of the daily details and in the choice of the daily means of government, public criticism is of course a clumsy nuisance; but in politics and administration, public criticism altogether are safe and beneficent, altogether indispensable.

Therefore people's participation means active involvement & co-operation in the development process, which needs active interests, enthusiasm and proper planning. Participation should come from the grass root level. Keeping this in mind government has introduced Panchayati Raj Institution but since its inception it failed to revive people's real interest towards politics and in recent past it loss its ethos. In this connection Wilson's opinion in favour of instructing and persuading public opinion is worth mentioning. Public opinion is a constraint and a stimulus for a large number of administrative actions.

The Peoples' Participation Working Group (PPWG) was established to promote the implementation of the Government of Vietnam's Grassroots Democracy Decree, people's participation in development programmes and projects.

The Government Decree no. 29 of 1998 with later amendments promulgated through the Decree no. 79 of 2003 established the principles of grassroots democracy at the commune level. These principles are : *"people know, people discuss, people decide, and people supervise."*

This decree entails the right of people to be informed about local development policies and budgets, to be consulted about economic development and other plans, to participate in decisions about community contributions to projects, and to monitor the activities of the elected representatives at the local level. Therefore, this Grassroots Democracy Decree is the legal basis for people's participation in making decisions that effect their lives and development.

1.3.1 PPWG Objectives

The objectives of the PPWG are to promote :

- An enabling environment and capacity building for enhancing people's participation and *promote*
- Coordination of activities for efficient use of resources invested in participation.

1.3.2 Participation (initial working definition by core group)

"Participation is a process to include and empower stakeholders in decision-making that affects people's lives and their development."

There are three main dimensions to participation :

1. Civil Society;
2. Decentralization; and
3. Democracy

People participate by forming civil society organization and taking part in activities that are decentralized to commune and village levels and being involved in democratic processes. Key stakeholders are government agencies and disadvantaged and marginalized people (as individuals and representatives of organizations).

There is the need for good governance for poverty reduction. With regards to participation, the national development strategies referred to above clearly articulate the need to :

- Create conditions for people to fully participate in the development process and to have equal opportunities,
- Strengthen the capacity and create opportunities for all people to bring into full play their talents
- Participate in the development process and to enjoy the fruits of development.

The strategies further point out the need to provide a legal framework for NGOs and for civil society and community organisation at the local level. The aim is to improve the poor people's participation in development processes and improve their capability to overcome poverty.

1.3.3 PPWG Outputs and Activities

Towards this end, activities — mainly in the form of workshops and meetings — the PPWG contributes to the production of three outputs :

- Information, experience and knowledge sharing
- Clarification of concepts and
- Promotion of dialogue

In Indian planned development perspective also the core element that emerges from the success stories is 'people's participation'. The people are expected to undertake initiatives of their own when they become conscientised and critically aware of their life situations and begin to perceive the options for changing that reality. This is the basic premise on which the facilitators worked. They first studied the local situation to assess the socio-economic profile of the people and their needs, the local resource base and its potential, existing social relations, the need for technological, financial and managerial inputs etc. and chalked out a strategy of sensitising the people for self-development. They assisted the people to reflect upon, analyse and understand their socio-economic environment, the factors that constrain development and access to public services. In the process of animation, alternative possibilities of dealing with the constraints are explored and their feasibility examined, using the local knowledge (internal inputs) as well as knowledge from outside (external inputs). Once sensitised, the facilitators provided the people with the necessary support mechanism like technical skill, credit, extension and other services by linking the local groups with the providers. More often than not, such development actions of the people started on a small scale, but the initial successes gave them the necessary confidence to embark upon larger and more sophisticated actions.

The essential ingredients of people's participation for self development, as revealed in the success stories, are : assessment of local resources and local level planning, sensitising people and building local organisations for collective actions and an umbrella support mechanism to facilitate people's development actions. If these processes and mechanisms are to be multiplied on a wider scale, these will have to be institutionalised. The multiplication process requires a major political commitment by the State to provide the necessary political space and a policy framework for a sensitive support mechanism. This will call for, among other things, simplification of ground rules that would facilitate participation of grassroots level organisations in the development process, bringing about flexibility and dynamism among the providers of public services, and

orienting the judicial system for speedy disposal of disputes and to be sensitive to the needs of the poor and disadvantaged.

The 73rd and 74th Constitutional amendments have opened up new opportunities for decentralised management and people's participation in the development process. While, in principle, the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) can be the effective bodies for local level planning and implementation, they may not be so in practice because of a number of constraints. First, all Panchayat members do not necessarily seek to achieve social goals and hence may not be sensitive to the needs of the people. Diversion and misuse of resources have been reported even where the PRIs are involved in the implementation of programmes. It has also been found that the Gram Pradhans who are mostly elected from the main village (71 to 92% in different districts of a State) ignore the development of hamlets. Second, most of the members do not have the necessary background in planning and implementation of development programmes. Third, unless there is a functional link between the various tiers of the Panchayats in terms of administrative and financial control, the required coordination in planning and implementation may not come through. Fourth, the Panchayats need flexibilities in operational rules, authority and financial resources if they are to participate actively in planning and implementation of development programmes.

To ensure that the PRIs act in the most effective manner, the involvement of people and facilitators in planning, prioritisation and implementation of programmes and in monitoring of their activities is essential. To circumvent the problem of disparity in the allocation of available financial resources between the main village and the hamlets, there is perhaps, a need for developing appropriate principles of allocation of resources at the micro level. The second constraint can be removed through training and retraining of the members of PRIs. While some States have already created institutions for the training of Panchayat members, others need to follow. Experienced public administrators, managers of co-operatives and social activists/leaders should be involved in designing training courses and managing training centres. The States should evolve appropriate mechanisms to ensure harmonious working of different tiers of the PRIs. Perhaps, legislative actions would be required.

The objectives sought to be realised through the 73rd and 74th amendments of the Constitution would remain unfulfilled without devolution of adequate financial resources to the PRIs. Their financial needs can be effectively met in two ways, viz; (a) through quantification of the awards of the State Finance Commission for the PRIs in line with the awards of the Central Finance Commission for the States, and (b) by empowering the PRIs to raise resources locally. Though, in some cases the Panchayats have received resources for specific purposes, the process of devolution of resources needs to be institutionalised to realise the full potential of the PRIs in decentralised planning and implementation. The issue of devolution of resources and authority to the PRIs is complex and calls for systemic changes through legislative actions. The State of Kerala has made the pioneering move to formally devolve 40 per cent of development funds in favour of PRIs. But there too, despite a high degree of literacy and political awareness, the process was not entirely free from its share of problems and difficulties. There is, therefore, a need for a more informed debate and mobilisation of the people around the relevant so as to fully operationalise the various provisions of the 73rd/74th Constitutional amendments.

For effective functioning of the grassroots level institutions of some north eastern States, the Central Tribal Belt and other scheduled areas, another issue that needs to be squarely addressed is the conflict between the PRIs and the local bodies like tribal panchayats and hill councils. Sometimes, the power and jurisdiction of these bodies are a matter of dispute and this affects the development of such areas. Perhaps, it would be necessary to give recognition to informal bodies like tribal panchayats, and to delineate the functions and responsibilities of various agencies where more than one development agency is involved.

With these reforms, the PRIs can be an effective instrument for large-scale development interventions at the grassroots level. Since the development actions have to come from the people and since they do not have the necessary financial, technical, managerial inputs and market information, it is essential that access to such inputs be facilitated. To be effective, the local organisations must acquire legitimacy of their standing, particularly in the eyes of the officials and support institutions. An important element in the acquisition of legitimacy is the extent to which the agency officials meet their genuine demands. The

PRIs can play an important role in this regard. They can facilitate such linkages between the people and the organisations which provide these inputs. The existing support mechanisms like credit institutions and extension services are not sensitive enough to the needs of the people. Training of the staff of these organisations needs to be organised to bring about the necessary behavioural changes. Some rules and procedures need drastic simplification so as to facilitate people's initiative and action.

Sustenance of this process and its eventual take-over by the people would also need further institutional reforms to ensure : information exchange, conflict resolutions, joint action, strategic planning and public awareness/education. In a large number of areas, legal and legislative actions would be required to facilitate free flow of development related information, resolution of conflicts arising out of denial of information, contractor disputes and other non-compliances, the use of local resources/raw materials by locals, removal of excessive bureaucratic control over co-operatives, growth of grassroots level organisations for strategic planning etc. The primary objective of such reforms should be to frame simple rules, laws, incentives and disincentives to guide individuals and groups to act for self-development on the one hand and to reduce the transaction costs of such actions on the other.

Accountability of the Ministries and administrators is the first principle of democratic governance and the freedom of access to reliable information is the pre-requisite to operationalising accountability. Two steps are urgently required to ensure transparency and accountability. The first is to reform the data collection system to ensure generation of reliable and disaggregated data base by strengthening the agencies responsible for data collection. In particular, the grassroots level agencies which provide primary data need to be strengthened to ensure quality and reliability of the data.

Accountability could also be brought about through involvement of local groups/panchayats in the implementation of programmes. Thus, if the local people are involved in planning, implementation and management of programmes and if the government functionaries are made accountable to the local bodies like the Panchayats or Village Committees, the delivery systems of development programmes are likely to improve. One way of making this operational is to

release the salaries of staff of schools and health centres through the PRIs and to deliver benefits under beneficiary-oriented programmes through the local bodies like co-operatives and self-help groups.

Decentralisation of development planning and administration has the virtue of permitting development strategies and programmes to be customised to the needs of diverse groups of people. Centrally planned strategies tend to be uniform and monolithic and fail to take into account the differences in the characteristics of various population groups. Our socio-economic diversity, ecological variety and cultural heterogeneity point to the inescapability of decentralised decision making. Decentralisation of development planning and people's participation strengthen the sense of community ownership, the absence of which frequently leads to the failure of many well-conceived programmes. The 73rd and 74th Constitutional amendments have opened up the opportunity of local self-governance. The Gram Sabhas will have to play a leading role in identification of local needs, mobilisation of local resources including human resources, identification of target group beneficiaries and monitoring of implementation of local projects. They should also take up the responsibility of maintaining the community assets like hand pumps etc. In this context, the novel and fruitful experiment of the Kerala Government to organise development planning at the grassroots level through massive campaign of 'plan literacy' and mass mobilisation at the Gram Sabha Level needs special mention. Extensive training of personnel at the grass-root level formed a crucial component of the Kerala experiment. Effective deventralisation will, however, critically depend on operationalising the provisions of the Constitution in letter and spirit, not only through holding Panchayat election, but also through devolution of financial powers and capacity building. This is the onerous responsibility of the State Governments. Most of the States have conducted these elections, though only a few them have initiated new and creative ways of involving the local communities in planning from below by creating District Planning Committees and through capacity building of the elected members.

As early as in June 1982, the Planning Commission addressed the States urging them to take steps towards four important aspects of a decentralised district level planning set-up. These were :

effective functional decentralisation,
effective financial decentralisation,
establishment of appropriate planning mechanism at district level and
formulation of appropriate budgeting and reappropriation procedures.

However, no significant progress has been made in this direction so far. Operationalisation of the Planning Commission's guidelines for effective decentralisation of the planning process calls for systemic changes. One important change required is to link the Finance Commission's awards to States with the State-level Finance Commissions' awards to districts. Since this requires political will and legislative actions, the need for generating informed debate and socio-political mobilisation for effective programme implementation gets reinforced. In a limited way, the Planning Commission has made an attempt to address the problem of devolution of financial powers by recommending direct release of the funds for the Centrally Sponsored Programmes to the PRIs, and by asking the States to indicate the PRI component in their annual plans. However, more fundamental changes are required and the Centre and the States must jointly address the relevant issues.

(v) Democratic decentralisation in planning and implementation with people's participation will, to a large extent help overcome the problems posed by the vertical operation of multiplicity of development programmes and inefficiency in resource use. Pooling of resources allocated by the Centre and States to programmes in education, health, social welfare and poverty alleviation at the local level will facilitate convergence and inter-programme synergy. Though democratic decentralisation provides the necessary framework for better use of resources, there is no one-to-one correspondence between them. It needs to be supplemented by social mobilisation of the people and meaningful partnership of the Government, voluntary organisations, self-help groups and other actors in civil society. Communication and trust need to be promoted between the grassroots level functionaries and the communities for better community Government partnership.

1.4 Bureaucracy

The term bureaucracy was first originated in France and for the first time it was coined by Vincent de Gournay — a French economist. He stated — “We have an illness of France which bids fair to play havoc with us. This illness is called **Bureaumania**.” Another French Philosopher Baron de Grimm stated in 1765, the real spirit of the laws of France is the bureaucracy. Here the offices, clerks, secretaries inspectors etc. are not to benefit the public interest, indeed it appears that they have been established so that offices might exist. It was first accepted by the Dictionary of the French Academy in 1798. A supplement of that explained it as “power, influence of the heads ad staff of government bureau.”

From ‘democracy’ Gournay took ‘cracy’ and added it after the French word ‘Bureau’ which means — ‘a place where officials work’. The term referred to the new group of officers or rules and new method of government in which governing had become an end in itself. The appointments of higher officials, clerks were not for the benefit of public, rather they were merely for their own existence. During 1830s the term came into existence, in England. In 1850 Thomas Caryle called it as “continental nuisance” with an ingenuous feeling. He though England was free from it, which was not correct. In 1895 G. Mosca expressed his feeling in a book **Element di Scienza Politica** which was translated in 1939 as *the Ruling Class*; In this book he stated that, bureaucracy is so fundamental to the governing of great empires that all political systems could be classified as either feudal or bureaucratic. The term itself carries several meanings. It is a synonym for civil service, sometimes it mans the summation of the basic features of modern organisation structure. There are two important definitions—

Rule by officials

Bureaucracy as a particular form of government.

1.4.1 Classical writings on Bureaucracy

It was K. E. Makmillan Weber who rescued bureaucracy from its negative image founding themodern sociological study of bureaucracy. In his book

"Economy and Society" published posthumously in 1921 he propounds a theory of societal changes; he traced the evolution of Western Civilisation in terms of its evolving rationality. He also emphasized that bureaucracy is indispensable for the rational attainment of the goals of a organization.

By contrast the concept of bureaucracy does not occupy a central position in Marx's thought. But he gave a natural thinking on it. according to him bureaucracy is an instrument by which the dominant class exercises its domination over the other not so privileged social classes. His writings on administration are scattered over numerous books, editorials etc. where he related administration to his macro-social concept. He also nullified Hegel's conception of bureaucracy as Hegel believed that bureaucracy is the medium through which particular interests were translate into general interest, whereas Marx was of the opinion that bureaucracy does not know better, since hierarchical and functional differentiaion leads to a mere combination and mutual reinforcement of incompetence. Marx thought in the feudal-capitalist Orussian situation that bureaucracy is a form of society dominated by the state and its tendency is to separate itself from the content.

He observed that bureaucracy captures and hold the substance of the state and it stands between the state and public opinion. Passive obedience to the next higher rank in the hierarchy is the only bond between bureaucratic personnels. His observation regarding the changing role of bureaucracy can be found eminently in the political pamphlet written by him 'The 18th Brumaire of Louis Bonaparte.' In another book 'Capital' he analysed the role of bureaucracy under Feudal capitalist prussian situation and he classical capitalist French situation. In his later books he did not refer his views on bureaucracy, as he was more embroiled in the real momentum of developed capitalism originating in the struggle between the capitalists & the workers.

It was Max Weber who gave a detailed analysis of bureaucracy. According to him every different stages of social development has necessarily different modes of authority, which establishes a belief in its own legitimacy. Three bases of domination correspond with three stages of development — charismatic, traditional & rational-legal. In reality Weber expected an amalgamation of these three types. According to Weber there are certain characteristics of bureaucracy these are —

The officials are organised in clearly defined hierarchy of offices.

They are free and subject to authority only with respect to their impersonal official obligations.

The office is filled by a free contractual relationship.

Candidates are selected on the basis of their technical qualifications & trainings.

The officials are free & subject to authority.

There will be fixed remunerations along with the pension scheme.

System of promotion is also there which is dependent on the judgement of the superiors.

The office is treated as the sole occupation of the incumbent.

Each office has sphere of competence in the legal sense.

The officials are subject to strict & systematic discipline.

The work of the officials entirely spared from ownership of the means of administration.

Written rules & regulations are prevalent there.

There are strict rules of rationality.

These attributes signify the prevalence of certain principles :

Principle of specialisation

Principle of hierarchy

Principle of primacy of rule.

Principle of impersonality

Principle of appointed officials

Principle of full time officials

Principle of work by career officials.

Max Weber enumerated 'precision, speed, unambiguity, knowledge of the files, continuity, direction, unity, strict subordination, reduction of friction & of material and personal costs these are raised to the optimum point is the strictly bureaucratic administration, trained bureaucracy is superior on all these points and as far as complicated tasks are concerned, paid bureaucratic work is not only more precise but in the last analysis, is even cheaper than even formally

remunerated honorific service.' Bureaucracy is the preferred method of control in the society because it is clear of violent & coercive methods for organising human affairs.

There are expert officials who carry out defined functions, chain of command, clear rules & regulations to ensure certainty. He also specified about inward looking tendency. He said — "Every bureaucracy seeks to increase the superiority of the professionally informed by keeping their knowledge and intentions secret. Insofar as it can it hides its knowledge and action from criticism." Thus bureaucracy controls expertise & information. Politics is incomplete without bureaucracy as bureaucracy over — supplies its services & manipulates the political masters.

Though Max Weber contributed a lot on the issue of bureaucracy but was not above criticism of the post-Weberian scholars. According to some scholars it highlighted more on ethnocentricity. Some others said it is a culturally specific theory inapplicable to the developing countries.

Later on several scholars like Robert Merton, Selznick, Alvin Gouldner, Michel Crozier, James Thompson, Peter Blau, William Scott contributed a lot in examining the internal working of bureaucratic organisations and how an organisation's environment plays a role in determining its behaviour.

Since the 1970s a turbulence is going on & even the word public administration is losing its identity as a new concept 'public sector' is being used more & more. The truth is that the days of bureaucracy are over and organisations have catered the post bureaucratic age. Now the basic emphasis is laid on self managing teams.

In the last years of 20th century & in the 21st century the bureaucratic organisations appear to be fragile & vulnerable. It is being discovered to be less & less able to ensure an enriched work of life & for mankind. Latest inventions in the world of information technology are causing a threat to traditional bureaucratic structure day by day.

Unit 1 □ Environment Management & DEV. AD.

Structure

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1.0 Introduction

The earth is the only planet where human being can have a safe sojourn. Here they get all the essential requirements of life of a purposeful living. The congenial atmosphere provides fresh air to breathe along one's lung's capacity, water to quench thirst, soil with full potential for crops and also natural resources for various purposes. Sustenance is possible because of the fresh environment but at the same time it should also be noted that life will become extinct if it gets constantly by disrupted & degraded.

1.1 Meaning

Environment is a broad term. It encompasses all that surrounds us. It includes natural physical entities like air, water, land and its resources, human being, the flora (plants), the fauna (animals) and also their interrelationship. To describe the term environment Biologists take a general way. According to them, environment is the totality of living & non-living things which influence the lives of organisms present in a specific area. Whatever may be the way modern biologists describe environment, but the concept was very much in ancient India as well. Ancient India philosophers used to hold that the entire universe including earth, plants is composed of five elements — Kheti, Op, Teja, Marut, Byom i.e. earth, water, energy, air & void. The Isho-Upanishad also described the fundamentals of conservation ethics - the whole universe together with its creatures belong to nature. Let no one species encroach over the rights & privileges of other species. One can enjoy the bounties of nature by giving up greed.

The ancient scriptures is in conformity with contemporary outlook to same the nature & formulate an effective strategy for conservation of nature & natural resources. Now environmental issues have got such an importance that it exists everywhere starting from government public sector unit to corporate world. Various legislations & other such measures are being implemented to curb environmental problems, most of which is exclusively man-made. There are mainly five kinds of causes.

i) overpopulation, ii) pollution, iii) global environmental changes, iv) depletion of natural resources, v) war & insurgency. They are all interrelated & can cause serious problems to the environment. For example, overpopulation it poses a serious threat to the economic growth through rapid depletion of natural resources of the world. In India the annual growth rate of population is 2.1% whereas in Europe it is only 0.3% and the world average is 0.7%. Even a steady growth of population can be considered as abnormally high and cannot be balanced with the carrying capacity of the world. S Broody in his book. 'The subversive science, Essays toward an Ecology of management', published in the year 1969 on food & world population stated one example:

"let us assume that adma & Eve set up house keeping 5300 years ago and that the population increased at 1 percent per year. In 5300 years, the population P. would number $p = 2e^{0.01} \times 5300 = 2.0 \times 10^{23}$ individuals, weighing 2.0×10^{25} lb, equal to the weight of the catire itself."

Recycling process is the only process in nature by which the pollution problems can be managed. The dead bodies of plants and animals & other organic excretory products are dissolved to more simpler compounds and are used by plants. But new a days these waste products are being accumulated in such a huge quantity that their natural recycling is almost impossible within a short period. Again there is a problem of rapid depletion with exploitation that too without replenishment. These non renewable natural resources like coal, petroleum, diesel, kerosenes etc. are getting minimised day by day. The fear is that not only non renewable resources but also the renewable like water, air, soils, plants, animals they are also under threat. Added to that, there is another environmental problem i.e. intra-specific wars. Here war is not at all the synonym of struggle. Wars & insurgencies lead to the depletion of all kinds of natural resources.

These environmental problems are of recent origin and have generated in a quick succession that is due to the changes in environmant resulting into natural & man-made disasters. Some of them have been described.

Natural disasters like cyclone, typhoon, hurricane, tornado, earthquake, volcanic eruption etc. within a short span of time cause havoe wreckage & total devastation on lives & properties of human beings. Besides this natural disasters there are several man-made catastrophies such as wars, explotions, accidental release of poisonous chemicals or radioactive materials etc. which pave the way for disasters in the long run. Among them two glaring examples can be cited — i) Bhopal gas disaster which happened on 3rd December, 1984 when about 36 tonnes of toxic methye isocyanate (MIC) escaped in a cloud of mist and vapour from a large storage tank (belonged to American multinational corporation), Union Carbide killed about 2, 500 people and disabled parmanently 17,000, injured 200,000 more people. There were several negligencies from people's part — a) the plant was located too close to a major centre of population, b) large amount of MIC or methye isocyanate was stored, c) safety

mechanism did not work properly at the time of accident, d) a plenty of water was introduced in the MIC tank when the accident started, the reason for which is still unknown, e) medical facilities were not available.

Another glaring example is ii) Chernobyl Nuclear Plant disaster — occurred on 28th April, 1986 at Chernobyl in the erstwhile USSR. Two subsequent gas explosions in a graphite controlled, water cooled reactor at the nuclear plant blew off the roof of the power house building and set the graphite on fire. 31 people died immediately after the explosion due to the exposure of radiation. About 100,000 people had to migrate from there. Air, water and soils are polluted due with the nuclear wastes. It is estimated that near about 100,000 people will die of cancer over the next 70 years caused by the radiation exposure from Chernobyl.

All these phenomenon created an impetus to the scholars, & the issue of environmental protection must now become a part of overall management as Environment Management system. Till 1970s environment management was confined to resource conservation at local, community or national level. During 1980s and 1990s the environmental issues became global, though they originate at local or national level but are not confined to that fence only.

As the problem is global therefore policies related to it must have been global and as a result of which a polity that is structural adjustment programs have been introduced specially for the developing countries. There is rising infant mortality rate, high risk pregnancies, low birth weight babies and other such problems are prevailing due to the impact of environmental hazards. Through aid, trade & technology transfer the control over resources has shifted from local to multinational agencies to curtail these problems.

Environment means more than mere natural physical entities. Environment from the perspective of a social scientist can be explained in a broader way.

An **Environment** is a complex of external factors. It acts on a system and determines its course and form of existence. An environment may be thought of as a superset, of which the given system is a subset. An environment may have one or more parameters, physical or otherwise. The environment of a given system must interact with that system in order for it to sustain and develop.

Generally, the **environment** or **milieu** of some object or action consists of the substances, circumstances, objects, or conditions by which it is surrounded or in which it occurs. In non-technical contexts, such as politics, it often refers to the natural environment, that part of the natural world that is deemed valuable or important by human beings, for any reason. The natural environment in literature, history and sociology is the culture that an individual lives or was educated in, and the people and institutions with whom he interacts. The social environment in fiction, especially science fiction and fantasy refers to any fictional universe or setting in which different stories are set. In work environment any kind of meeting or congress, it may signify the prevailing mood or preferences of the participants.

1.1.1 The Kyoto Accord

At the Earth Summit in Rio in 1992, the Parties to the Framework Convention on Climate Change were given the task of coming up with an agreement that would halt the increasing flow of manmade greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. Five years later, the parties had come together in Kyoto to try to work out an agreement. It wasn't an easy task.

After ten days of marathon meetings and late-night negotiations, agreement was reached, and they finally put pen to paper. In the end, after 160 nations had wrangled, fought and played tug-of-war, they passed an important milestone acknowledging a global threat and coming up with a global solution to protect the earth's environment.

This was different from Montreal when in 1987 representatives from all over the world had come together to ban CFCs. Carbon dioxide, methane and other greenhouse gases required a far grander and more monumental effort. This was a lot more than just swapping out the gas in the refrigerator. To control greenhouse gases required whole new technologies, whole new sets of tools and machinery, indeed a whole new lifestyle.

though the scope of the agreement was limited its mechanisms were important because it set standards for further agreements, and created tactics from which the battle could be fought and hopefully won. It recognized that concentrations of certain greenhouse gases had been growing since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, and it recognized the international importance of reversing the steady increases.

1.1.2 The Global Environmental Management Initiative

Since 1990, the Global Environmental Management Initiative (GEMI) has created tools and provided strategies to help business foster global environmental, healthy and safety excellence and economic success. GEMI provides a forum for corporate environmental leaders throughout the world to work together, learn from each other through the activities of work groups, benchmark with peers and create tools that can be used by GEMI members and others.

GEMI is an organization of leading companies dedicated to foster global environmental, health and safety (EHS) excellence through the sharing of tools and information to help business achieve EHS excellence. GEMI currently has 42 member companies representing more than 22 business sectors with comprised annual sales of more than \$ 915 billion USD, global lead court more than 2.5 million and more than 3,034 manufacturing facilities world wide.

Through the collaborative efforts of its members, GEMI also promotes a world wide business ethic for EHS management and sustainable development. GEMI allows the companies to work in a cost effective manner.

It recognized that concentrations of certain greenhouse gases had been growing since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, and it recognized the international importance of reversing the steady increases.

The idea was that 38 nations needed to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions by an average of 2.5 percent below 1990 levels. In reality, the reductions were parceled out according to who emitted the most gases and who could afford the changeover. The United States would reduce emissions by 7 percent below 1990 levels, Japan by 6 percent, and the European Union by 8 percent. The Russian Federation, Ukraine, and New Zealand needed to return to 1990 levels, while Australia and Iceland has to stabilize their releases at 8 percent and 10 percent, respectively, above 1990 levels.

The European Union wanted to get started right away, but the United States pressed to have enforcement of the reductions put off until 2008. This would allow a full decade to allow governments and industries to gradually shift emphasis toward increasing energy efficiency : to upgrade pollution equipment as older machinery wore out, to switch from dirty fuels to cleaner-burning

energy, and the experiment with solar, wind, and other alternative forms of energy.

Getting 160 nations to agree on something wasn't an easy task. European Union delegates has arrived with the ambitions of all industrial nations to cut their emissions by 15 percent below 1990 levels. It seemed easy for them to talk. The collapse of the former East German industries and a massive switchover in Great Britain from coal to natural gas during the 1990s had given Europe a head start on the rest of the world. But Europe relied heavily on emission-free nuclear power, and nuclear power wasn't exactly squeaky clean.

But the real struggle was in the details, Japan insisted it wouldn't go any higher than 5 percent in emissions reductions. A 2 AM phone call from then vice president Al Gore to Prime Minister Ryutaro Hashimoto got Japan to up its ante. Gore argued that Japan couldn't wreck the chances to come to an agreement over a measly 1 percent. The Japanese Prime Minister relented.

The agreement placed limits on six greenhouse gases : carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons, and sulfur hexafluoride. The European Union had wanted to limit the new curbs to just carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide, but the United States succeeded in adding limits to the others. The later chemicals were arguably easier and cheaper to cut.

1.1.3 Environmental Degradation

Environmental degradation, according to van Rizki Tjahya (2006) refers to the diminishment of a local ecosystem or the biosphere as a whole due to human activity. Environmental degradation occurs when nature's resources (such as trees, earth, water, air) are being consumed faster than nature can replenish them. An unsustainable situation occurs when natural capital (The sum total of nature's resources), is used up faster than it can be replenished. Sustainability requires that human activity, at a minimum, only uses nature's resources to the point where they can be replenished naturally :

Sustainable development is a process of developing (land, cities, business, communities, etc.) that *"meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs"* according to the

Brundtland Report, a 1987 report from the United Nations. One of the factors which it must overcome is environmental degradation, but it must do so while not forgoing the needs of economic development as well as social equity and justice. Several United Nations texts, most recently the 2005 world Summit Outcome Document, refer to the "interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars" of sustainable development as economic development, social development, and environmental protection. For some, the issue is considered to be closely tied to economic growth and the need to find ways to expand the economy in the long term without using up natural capital for current growth at the cost of long term growth. For others, the concept of growth itself is problematic, as the resources of the Earth are finite. The 2005 UK Sustainable Development Strategy has the objective of enabling all people throughout the world to satisfy their basic needs and enjoy a better quality of life, without compromising the quality of life of future generations.

The long term final result of environmental degradation will be local environments that are no longer able to sustain human populations.

Another example would be the deterioration of the world's rainforests such as the Amazon. The need for a sustainable development scheme is ever needed, as exploitation of the rainforest is increasing. A solution would be to guard areas of great importance and sustain tree production (plantation sites) this would balance the current deforestation with afforestation and could prevent the destruction of ecosystems and soil erosion due to desertification. However, Brazil is currently in global debt and cannot afford to prevent much of the current deforestation without help from more economically developed countries.

The first major manifestation of this popularization of sustainable development occurred at the United Nations Conference for Environment and Development (the Earth Summit) in 1992.

The conference was prompted by the report *Our Common Future* (1987, World Commission on Environment and Development, also known as the Brundtland Commission), which called for strategies to strengthen efforts to promote sustainable and environmentally sound development. A series of seven UN conferences on environment and development followed. The Brundtland Commission coined the most widely used definition of sustainable development,

which contains two key concepts : The concept of "needs" in particular the essential needs of the world's poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and the idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organization on the environment's ability to meet present and future needs. Sustainable development demands ways of living, working and being that enable all people of the world to lead healthy, fulfilling and economically secure lives without destroying the environment and without endangering the future welfare of people and the planet.

The precise meaning of sustainable development has been widely debated. For example, two years after the Brundtland Commission's Report popularised the term, over 140 definitions of sustainable development had been catalogued. However, the term "sustainability" has since been defined with reference to sound scientific principles.

The position of the United Nations Environment Programme :

The intensified and unsustainable demand for land, water marine and coastal resources resulting from the expansion of agriculture and uncontrolled urbanisation lead to increased degradation of natural ecosystems and erode the life supporting systems that uphold human civilization. Caring for natural resources and promoting their sustainable use is an essential response of the world community to ensure its own survival and well being.

Many people reject the term *sustainable development* as an overall term in favor of sustainability, and reserve *sustainable development* only for specific development activities such as energy development.

Sustainable development is one of the issues addressed by international environmental law.

1.1.4 Sustainable development in the law

A few countries have introduced the principle of sustainable development into their laws. Among them is Poland. The article 5 of the 1997 Constitution reads :

"The Republic of Poland shall safeguard the independence and integrity of its territory and ensure the freedoms and rights of persons and citizens, the security of the citizens, safeguard the national heritage and *shall ensure the*

protection of the natural environment pursuant to the principles of sustainable development."

In principle it means that the Constitutional Tribunal may scratch any law it deems incompatible with the principle of sustainable development. However, as in the last decades the environmental regulations have, with few exceptions, only become stronger, it's unlikely that the Tribunal will exercise this power anytime soon.

1.2 (NSDS) National Sustainable Development Strategies

In France in 2004, along with the lists of human rights set out in the 1789 Declaration of the rights of man and the citizen and in the preamble of the 1946 constitution of the Fourth Republic, an Environmental Charter was added to the Constitution, recognizing among others a duty to preserve the environment and the right to live in a "balanced and health respecting" environment

The Venezuela Constitution of 1999 mentions the desirability of sustainable development.

The proposed Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe also includes sustainable development, as one of the European Unions's objectives.

In the United Kingdom the Planning and Compulsory Purchase Act 2004, imposes on planning officials, a duty to exercise their functions with the objective of contributing to the achievement of Sustainable development (although their definition of sustainable development, in addition to the protection and enhancement of the environment, the prudent use of natural resources, sustainable economic development, also included social cohesion and inclusion.)

Criticism : Many environmentalists have criticized the term "sustainable development" as an oxymoron, claiming that economic policies based around concepts of growth and continued depletion of resources cannot be sustainable, since that term implies resource remain constant. Resources such as petroleum are consumed much faster than they are created by natural processes, and are

continually being depleted. It is argued that the term "sustainable development" is a term invented by business to show capitalism as ecologically friendly, thereby placating people promoting environmentalist values.

However, technologies such as renewable energy, recycling and the provision of services can, if carried out appropriately, provide for growth in the economic sense, either without the use of limited resources, or by using a relatively small amount of resources with a small impact. In the latter case, even the use of small amounts of resources may be unsustainable if continued indefinitely.

Chapter 8 of Agenda 21 calls on countries to adopt national strategies for sustainable development (NSDS) the "should build upon and harmonize the various sectoral economic, social and environmental policies and plans that are operating in the country."

Five years later, the 1997 Special Session of the General Assembly again noted the importance of NSDS and set a target of 2002 of their formulation and elaboration.

In 2002, the World Summit for Sustainable Development (WSSD) urged States not only to "take immediate steps to make progress in the formulation and elaboration of national strategies for sustainable development" but also to "begin their implementation by 2005."

In addition, integrating the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs is one of the targets contained in the United Nations Millennium Declaration to reach the goal of environmental sustainability.

Governments have continued to reiterate their commitment to develop and implement the policies.

The impact of any large scale development interventions such as industrialisation, raw material extraction and processing, mega-irrigation projects, production & processing etc. in the environment influences the quality of life support system. This large scale environmental interventions actively participating in ecological modernization process that has contributed to an unprecedented modification of the global environment. This sort of change was inevitable because development is mandatory be it developed industrialised country or developing country. The developed industrialized countries have achieved high

level of development at the cost of environment & depletion of natural resources. The developing countries on the other hand are still struggling to attain a minimum standard of living though little, they are contributing to environmental damage.

The social scientists attached to the Club of Rome are for instance, Meadows et.al. (1972) argue that if the current trends of industrialization, population growth and depletion of nonrenewable natural resources continue unchecked, the earth would reach The Limits to Growth within a hundred years. another group of scientists known as group of Lisbon observes that the key to responding to global environmental change is not one of merely getting 'carrying capacity' right. Only by linking the multitude of socio-economic networks at various territorial levels around visible targets and common objectives can one realistically hope to achieve social justice, economic efficiency, environmental sustainability and political democracy, as well as avoid the many possible sources (economic, political, ethnic) of global implosion.

On the other according to the view of other social scientists who believe on radical environmental persuasions, the global sustainable development movement usurps a neocolonial ideology and aims to frustrate the development of the south. Rich, Sachs, Merchant, Shiva, Redclift are the authors who espouse this theory. The idea had its origin in historical materialism and in Engel's thesis on the Dialectics of nature and in Mark's contribution to the relationship between the expansion of capitalism and the destruction of natural environment.

The common view is that global environmental protection could be realized by adopting sustainable development as a global ideal, which revolves around six axes —

- i) Reving growth
- ii) changing the quality of growth
- iii) meeting essential needs for jobs, energy, water and sanitation
- iv) conserving and enhancing the resource base
- v) re-orienting technology and managing risk &
- vi) merging environment and economics in decision making.

Most common and simple description of sustainable development is that a nation or society is able to satisfy its social, economic & other such needs without creating any problem for the future generations. Developed & industrialized countries use natural resources randomly without creating any substitute to it to fulfill requirements. Recent research has revealed that we have reached to a climax point beyond which ecological decline would lead to disaster. Sustainable development is also concerned with justice & equal distribution of resources between developed, North & underdeveloped South. Therefore sustainable development is concerned with the protection of environment & with avoiding depletion of non-renewable resources, access to which would be equal to all. The concept must also be concerned with intergenerational distribution of resources.

Some important parameters of environment & development :

Population : Population is the single factor that can contribute alone towards the degradation of environment & depletion of resources. More the population more would be consumption of resources & energy including greenhouse gases which will add adverse effects on environment. Therefore measures are to be taken to curtail down the index of population growth.

Energy : It is another important parameter to tackle environmental as well as developmental issues. In 1992 a clear message of the introduction of energy management came out at Rio-Conference. Industries like Iron & steel, refineries, cement & chemicals they consume good amount of industrial energy therefore the need for having a cost effective method for sustainable energy development was felt separately. At The Rio Conference these issues were taken into consideration though the Framework Convention on Climate Change (FCCC) which was drafted at the Rio Summit has now been ratified. The countries involved to it have committed to achieve stabilisation of Green House gases concentration in the atmosphere at a level which would prevent dangerous interference with the climate system. Later on at Kyoto Conference (1997) world's first climate protection protocol containing legally binding targets for Green House gas reduction by the industrialised countries was made.

Economy : Rate of Gross National Product (GNP) is considered to be an indicator of economic performance of any nation. Increase in the GNP shows

that economic health of the nation is good. Though it means high consumption of natural resources and high rate of extraction, transformation & utilization of non-renewable resources.

Concept of sustainable development was brought into focus by the Brundtland Report (Report of world Commission of Environment & Development, 1987) So, as development and higher GNP are related to environmental damage & energy depletion, therefore an element of resource regeneration and positive approach towards environment have to be taken in developmental programmes.

Poverty : Poverty is a major problem now a days and its eradication measures are also country specific. An effective strategy for tackling this problem is to begin with the economic condition of people. Development must address the issue of eradication of poverty which is linked with employment both of women and youth and other income generation programs.

Land Resources : Land is a finite resource which provides variety of services essential for life support system.

Forests : In the Rio-declaration the issue of environment & development has got a separate house of discussion. also at governmental sector an institutional approach is required for sustainable forest development and production of forest products.

Sustainable Agriculture : Agriculture has to meet the challenging needs of growing population mainly by increasing its production. Both in developed as well as developing countries adjustments are required in agricultural policy for increasing agricultural output.

Protection of Oceans : The marine environment is being constantly polluted by sewage, plastics, metals. Management of such wastes has to be carried out in such a manner that would not affect the productive capacity of the oceans.

Business & Industry : Business & industry are closely linked with environment and resource utilization and both have a major role in environmental degradation & resource depletion. Business, industry and multinational corporation have to recognize the environmental management as the priority area and a key determinant to sustainable development. Most of the industries in developed & developing countries don't have to take measures to stop the proliferation of environmental

pollution. This century factories have to be more environment friendly & have to be driven by sustainable development policies. A United Nations conference on Environment & Development (UNCED) which met in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 did suggest programmes that would promote environmental protection & resource conservation.

Therefore the main thrust of sustainable development is the global environmental protection & economic growth. The sustainable development Commission and Global Environment Facility (GEF), the Global governance, some of the financing wings which were established as a result of the Earth summit (1992) with the aim of disbursing funds for the protection of the global environment are few pointers in the direction of creating an integral management system of global environmental change.

New trends in globalization, including robotization, dematerialization of production and post Fordism are not environmentally neutral. The political economy of these new trends is exemplified by the private investment which has contributed to the decline of factors of production, environment & natural resources. In this private investment & free trade regime one of the institutions that will have a direct effect on the environment is the world Trade Organisation (WTO) which is hailed as the epitome of trade liberalization and can be utilized to protect the environment.

The international environmental policies and institutions together constitute a diverse body of global environmental governance. The strong & active presence of Bretton Woods institutions and their quest for the liberalization of the world economy elucidates that global environmental governance is part of the globalization process. It unveils from an evolutionary perspective of sustainable development; the Earth summit agenda 21 (which contains guidelines on everything from population strategies to disposal of hazardous waste) have laid foundation for the advocacy of global environmental governance within the wider concept of global governance. On the other side the global environmental conventions, treaties & laws which resulted from the deliberations of multilateral environmental forums & negotiations, have contributed to the consummation of sustainable development as a global ideal.

The global environmental movement is explicit about the need to establish

a global resource management regime responsible for protecting the global people from abuse by irresponsible nation states or greedy corporate interests. Managing the global commons therefore requires global environmental policies to be implemented by all nation states. Here, the current environmental policy principles summarized by pschoor & Turner & developed for the organisation for Economic Co-operation & Development (OECD) countries and also applied in the developing countries are as follows :

- i) The 'Polluter Pays' principle i.e. the polluters pay the cost of meeting socially acceptable environmental quality standards.
- ii) The Prevention of Precautinary Principle : this explicitly recognizes the ezistence of uncertainty & seeks to avoid irreversible damages in relation to the imposition of a safety margin into policy, it also seeks to prevent waste generation at source
- iii) The Economic Efficiency/Cost Effectiveness Priinciple : this applies both to the setting of standards and the design of the policy instriments for attaining them.
- iv) The Decentralization Principle : to assign environmental decisions and enforcement to the lowest level of government capable of handling it, without significant residual externalies.
- v) The Legal Eddiciency Principle : this seeks to preclude the passage of regulations that cannot be realistically inforced.

Reflections on these environmental policy principles have produced mixed results in various parts of the world.

Sustainable global cities : A sustainable city requires more than ecology, it calls for a sould economy & the eradication of poverty. Ecological problems & their solutions can be linked to the concept of 'sustainability' which became popular in 1987 with the publication of the OECD's report which is known as Brundtland Report.

Specific Direction towards sustainable Development

Various programs have been undertaken by the Indian govt. to prevent the damage of environment.

Afforestation : To promote afforestation national afforestation & Eco-development Board has been set up to promote afforestation. Eco Task Force has also been constituted to work in environmentally degraded areas.

Regulation for polluting industries : 17 most polluting industries have been identified by the concerned ministry & have been asked to install pollution control equipment or face punitive action including closure.

Water cess : The increase of those industries which consume excess water for discharge of those effluents which are in excess of standards has been stipulated.

Public Liability Insurance Act 1991 : This Act provides for public liability insurance for the purpose of providing immediate relief to persons affected by accident. The act was amended in 1992 to enlarge the meaning of the accident. It should be mentioned that the insurance policy to be taken by the owner dealing with hazardous substances shall not be less than the amount of the paid up capital of the undertaking.

Environment Relief Fund : The most important aspect of the amendment is the establishment of Environment Relief Fund by the central govt.

Later in 1992 the conference on environment and development held in Rio-Janeiro which resulted into Agenda 21, called for action to realize sustainable development a move towards sustainable cities.

After the Rio conference around 300 European cities signed the so called Aalborg charter and pledged to commit themselves to sustainable urban development. Several ideas & initiatives have been developed; there has been the application of energy saving techniques in housing & building and the internationalizing of environmental costs in some consumer prices. Separation of solid waste by individual households and the diminishing of raw materials going into the city & urban waste coming out have also been started. Global cities of the developing countries affect the quality of the cities' physical environment both by poverty & increasing use of energy. Air pollution in the environment creates severe problems which most of the time results into respiratory infections causing chronic cough. Indoor air pollution which is created due to the extensive use of biomass fuels for heating, cooking lighting, pose a serious threat to the environmental pollution. Besides, there is another major problem

concerning safe water & sanitation facilities. An insufficient supply of clean water the contamination of water and inadequate sanitation cause high rates of water related diseases such as diarrhoea and schistosomiasis. Disposal of solid waste is the third major problem which causes malaria & diarrhoea.

In the global cities socio-economic disparities are great therefore urban poors are the main victims. They usually live in slum without proper facilities and polluted rivers & waste dumps. As a consequence their health status is also worse than that of the people who live in the richer residential areas. Therefore any urban development programme which aims for sustainability must take into account that ecological conditions, poor health and poverty are closely interrelated.

Summary : Development has manifested itself in the uncertainty about our environmental future. A new creative & all encompassing understanding of the complex relationship between the global & environmental necessity requires a better understanding of the dynamic forces that steer the future of human destiny. Global environmental consciousness has become a dominant factor influencing the definitions of local & Global and also the relationship between local & global mediated by the global nature of the environment. It has in a sense become increasingly difficult to manage the balancing act that satisfies the requirements of a sustainable world within the core values linking globalization perceived by some as an economic deal & sustainable development ethos perceived by others a global ideal.

1.4 Inter Governmental Aspect of Environment Management

Environmental problems like air, water, noise, soil or municipal waste disposal exist in every country. The nations have identified the causes and tried to eradicate them but that depends on how serious is the commitment for their abatement.

Problems like global warming, ozone depletion, hazardous wastes require international co-operation and serious concern world wide to tackle.

Global warming : Global warming is the slow gradual rise in the temperature of the earth due to emission of excess quantities of a number of radiation trapping gases such as carbon-dioxide, methane, chlorofluorocarbons, ozone, nitrogen oxides which are collectively called "green house gases", these gases prevent radiating back of heat rays as in a glass house for growing green plants. according to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) the average temperature of the earth's atmosphere will rise by 1-3 degrees C over the next century. Hurricanes may be the results of such a change. Power generation, industries, deforestations are responsible for this atmospheric temperature increase. Keeping in view this fact of global warming Rio conference in the convention on climate change pledged to stabilise green house emissions by end of 30th century. In the conference 153 Nation — states committed to reduce emissions of CO₂ & other green house gases.

Experts have suggested several methods which will reduce CO₂ emission & lessen pollution, are as follows :

- i) More use of natural gas than coal because natural gas contains only half the carbon of coal & no sulphur.
- ii) Cleaning up coal for which technology exists, it can lead to lesser pollution.
- iii) Renewable sources of energy would ultimately tackle the problem of CO₂ emission & pollution wind power & solar energy are best alternative choices for that.
- iv) Deforestation reversal is another major step to reduce CO₂ concentration.
- v) Manufacturing fuel efficient vehicles is another step.

Ozone depletion : Ozone depletion is another global problem. Ozone layer in the stratosphere. Ozone layer in the stratosphere forms a shield for earth against harmful ultraviolet radiation from outer space. Depletion of ozone result in the formation of holes in its shield.

The first of recent conventions of environmental issues was the convention on ozone layer protection. Vienna convention as it is called was held in Vienna in 1985. This was followed by Montreal Protocol (1987) on substances that

deplete ozone layer. It was signed by 24 countries & by 1988 signatories rose to 35. In 1990 delegates from 75 countries met in London to sign an accord that strengthened the provisions of Montreal Treaty.

In the early decades industry, trade & business resisted efforts aimed at environmental protection and resource conservation because money spent on such efforts would diminish profit. However, the attitude is changing, the international angle to environment cannot be ignored. It is also understood that global problems like Ozone depletion, global warming cannot be tackled at national level. Leaders of different countries & also the politicians started to look up towards the organisations like United Nations for environmental issues.

In 1972 United Nations's conference held on the above said human environmental issues, at Stockholm. Two strategies emerged in this conference—

- i) To control human environment several principles & action plans were evolved.
- ii) arrangements for financial & institutional help were also made to achieve the goal for regulating human environment.

It declared—

- a) Humans have the fundamental right to freedom, equality & adequate conditions of life in an environment of quality that permits a life of dignity and well being.
- b) Human being have responsibility to protect and improve the environment for present & future generations.

In 1974 a document of United Nations was published known as charter of Economic Rights and Duties of states stated that—

“The protection preservation and the enhancement of the environment for the present & future generations is the responsibility of all states. All states have the responsibility to ensure that the activities within their jurisdiction or control do not cause damage to the environment of other states or of areas beyond the limits of national jurisdiction. All states should co-operate in evolving international norms and regulations in the field of the environment.”

The International efforts at the protection & preservation of environment

became vigorous by the United Nation's conference on Human settlement in 1976 & later on by the world water conference of 1977. There were several other conferences such as—

- i) U. N. Habitat Conference on Human Settlements in Vancouver, Canada in 1976.
- ii) World Water Conference in Mar del Plata, Argentina in 1977.
- iii) In Nairobi U. N. Desertification conference held in 1977.
- iv) For "saving trees & forests" Paris conference held in 1986.
- v) In 1977 United Nations Environment program & United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) organized an Intergovernmental Education Conference at Georgia.
- vi) In 1985, World Commission on Environment and Development which is also known as Brundtland Commission was formed. The theme was sustainable development.
- vii) "Save the Mediterranean" Agreement was signed by fifteen nations surrounding the Mediterranean ocean.

In 1992 United Nations conference on Environment & Development held at Rio de Janeiro which contained almost everything starting from energy conservation, population strategy, management of hazardous waste. The Secretary General of UNCED in his Foreword to the Agenda 21 document states: "that hunger and poverty and both a cause & an effect of environmental degradation ... Industrial countries continue to be addicted to the patterns of production and consumption which have so largely produced the major risk to the global environment."

Rio Declaration was held to reaffirm the declaration of the UN adopted at Stockholm with goal of establishing a new and equitable global partnership to recognize the international agreements which protect the interest of all.

It proclaims.

Principle—1

Human beings are at the centre of concerns of sustainable development. They are entitled to a healthy & productive life in harmony with nature.

Principle—2

States have in accordance with charter of the UN and the principles of international law, the sovereign right to exploit their own resources pursuant to their own environmental & developmental policies & the responsibility to ensure that activities within their jurisdiction or control do not cause damage to the environment of other states or of areas beyond the limits of national jurisdiction.

Principle—3

The right to development must be fulfilled so as to equitably meet developmental & environmental needs of present & future generations.

Principle—4

In order to achieve sustainable development, environmental protection shall constitute an integral part of the development process.

Principle—5

All states & all people shall cooperate in the essential task of eradicating poverty as an indispensable requirement for sustainable development, in order to decrease the disparities in standards of living & meeting the needs of the majority of the people of the world in a better way.

Principle—6

The special situation and needs of developing countries particularly the least developed & those most environmentally vulnerable, shall be given special priority. International actions in the field of environment & development should also address the interests & needs of all countries.

Principle—7

States shall cooperate in a spirit of global partnership to conserve, protect & restore the health & integrity of the Earth's ecosystem. The developed countries acknowledge the responsibility that they bear in the international pursuit of sustainable development in view of the pressures their societies place on the global environment & the technologies & financial resources they command.

Principle—8

To achieve sustainable development and a higher quality of life for all people, states should reduce & eliminate unsustainable patterns of production & consumption & promote appropriate demographic policies.

Principle—9

States should cooperate to strengthen endogenous capacity building for sustainable development by improving scientific understanding through exchanges of scientific & technological knowledge and by enhancing the development, adaptation diffusion & transfer of technologies including new & innovative technologies.

Principle—10

Environmental issues are best handled with the participation of all concerned citizens at the relevant level. States shall facilitate & encourage public awareness & participation by making information widely available.

Principle—11

States shall enact effective environmental legislation. Environmental standards, management objectives & priorities should reflect the environmental & developmental context to which they apply.

Principle—12

States should cooperate to promote a supportive & open international economic system that would lead to economic growth & sustainable development in all countries, to better address the problems of environmental degradation. Environmental measures addressing transboundary or global environmental problems should as far as possible, be based on an international consensus.

Principle—13

States shall develop national laws regarding liability & compensation for the victims of pollution & other environmental damage.

Principle—14

States should effectively cooperate to discourage or prevent the relocation & transfer to other states of any activities & substances that cause severe

environmental degradation or are found to be harmful to human health.

Principle—15

In order to protect the environment, the precautionary approach shall be widely applied by states according to their capabilities. Where there are threats of serious damage, lack of full scientific certainty shall not be used as a reason for postponing cost effective measures to prevent environmental degradation.

Principle—16

National authorities should endeavour to promote the internationalization of environmental costs & the use of economic instruments, taking into account the approach that the polluter should in principle bear the cost of pollution with regard to the public interest.

Principle—17

Environmental impact assessment as a national instrument shall be undertaken for proposed activities that are likely to have a significant adverse impact on the environment & are subject to a decision of a competent national authority.

Principle—18

States shall immediately notify other states of any natural disasters or other emergencies that are likely to produce sudden harmful effects on the environment of those states. Efforts should be made by the international community.

Principle—19

States shall provide prior & timely notification & relevant information to potentially affected states on activities that may have a significant adverse transboundary environmental effect & shall consult with those states at an early stage & in good faith.

Principle—20

Women have a vital role in environmental management & development. Their full participation is therefore essential to achieve sustainable development.

Principle—21

The creativity, ideals & courage of the youth of the world should be

mobilized to forge a global partnership in order to achieve sustainable development & ensure a better future for all.

Principle—22

Indigenous people & their communities & other local communities have a vital role in environmental management & development because of their knowledge & traditional practices.

Principle—23

The environment & natural resources of people under oppression, domination & occupation shall be protected.

Principle—24

Warfare is inherently destructive of sustainable development. States shall therefore respect international law providing protection for the environment in times of armed conflict & cooperate in its further development, as necessary.

Principle—25

Place development & environmental protection are interdependent & indivisible.

Principle—26

States shall resolve all their environmental disputes peacefully & by appropriate means in accordance with the charter of the United nations.

Principle—27

State & people shall co-operate in good faith & in a spirit of partnership in the fulfillment of the principles embodied in this Declaration & in the further development of international law in the field of sustainable development.

The high level intergovernmental meeting on environment of the earth & to manage the environment related issues held in Rio de janeirs, Brazil in June 1992 Viz UNCED, popularly known as Earth Summit. After 5 years in 1997 United nations convened a conference to assess the progress made in five years since Earth summit 1992, it is known as Earth summit + 5. Earth summit +5 was concerned with renewable resources, food protection life span of the people & more over global environment. The participating governments took several

measures & agreed to the followings—

- i) Reconfirm the political commitment to sustainable development from all members of the international community, as well as from all major groups of civil society.
- ii) To reconfirm the financial commitments & targets for official development assistance (ODA) made by industrialized countries.
- iii) To establish an intergovernmental forum on forests.
- iv) Open high level intergovernmental dialogue on fresh water, energy & transport.
- v) To make a stronger commitment at the global level of tourism, eco-efficiency
- vi) To set a more focused work program for the commission on sustainable development.

Earth summit +5 carried out in depth assessment of progress achieved since Rio conference & laid ground for future discussions. Except some areas of disagreement there were several such grounds where negotiations were made on various environmental & developmental issues.

Role of local government in environment management :

In India serious attention regarding environmental protection & sustainable use of resources were issued by various committees of the govt. & planning commission during 1970s. In 1980 govt. of India formed a separate department of Environment for promoting & co-ordinating programs for environment protection. In 1985 a separate ministry of Environment & forests (MEF) was formed to formulate policies & also to implement them. It was responsible for protection, conservation & development of environment Besides the constitution of India also incorporated the issue also in incorporated the issue of environmental protection. Article 48A states — "The states shall endeavour to protect & improve the environment & to safeguard the forest & vildlife of the country" and Article 51A relates to fundamental duty. It says "It shall be the duty of every citizen of India to protect & improve the natural environment including & to have compassion for living creatures."

India set up a National Committee on Environment planning & coordination, it was concerned with development projects, human settlement planning & survey of eco-systems. In 1980 govt. of India appointed Tiwari Committee. It recommended comprehensive reviews & reformation of state acts, new legislations for areas of action & introduction of environment protection in the concurrent list of the constitution.

National Committee on environment Planning & Coordination (NCEPC) was replaced by a National Committee on environment Planning. It was imposed with several function like preparation of annual reports on environment, establishing on Environmental information & communication system, sponsoring environmental research & arranging public hearings or conferences.

At the Stock holm conference, prime minister Mrs. Indira Gandhi said.

“..... Extreme forms in which questions of population or environmental pollution are posed, obscure the total view of political, economic & social situations It is sad that in country after country, progress should become synonymous with an assault on nature Among the rest of mankind, we in India — inspite of Ashoka have been guilty of wanton disregard for the courses of our sustance.

In 1986 the govt. of India passed a comprehensive Environment protection Act as an aftermath of Bhopa tragedy of 1984 to cover many aspects like protection of environment, regulation od discharge of pollutants, handling of hazardous substances etc.

Besides Planning Commission of India also proposes several strategies through its plans. The seventh plan lays down well defined strategy for environment protection. This strategy is the result of realization that environment & natural resources represent the fundamental building blocks for national development & society well being. The main components of this plan were

- a) Environmental impact assessment.
- b) Pollution monitoring & control.
- c) Eco-development
- d) Environmental research promotion.

- e) Resource conservation
- f) Environmental information
- g) Environmental education, training & consciousness.
- h) Environmental policy & law
- i) Internal cooperation
- j) Co-ordination with state govts.
- k) Strengthening of the organisation structure.

Eighth plan further strengthened the environmental policies. In the Eighth plan allocation of funds for the protection of environment were increased & a sttewise allocation was formulated.

In the Ninth Five year plan the objective was to ensure environmental sustainability of the development process through social mobilization & participation to envolve a shared vision & commitment to the national objects & development strategy.

There are several important institutions related to environment issues such as

- Department of science & technology.
- Ministry of Environment & Forests.
- Dept. of agriculture & co-operation.
- Deptt. of Bio-technology.
- Deptt. of sapce.
- Deptt. of Biotechnology.
- Deptt. of ocean development.
- Energy Management Centre.
- National Museum of National History.
- National Environmental Engineering Research Centre.
- National Wastelands Development Board.

● Centre for environmental education.

Environmental requires preventive & curative measures & also legislative actions to be implemented properly by the govt. itself. Environmental policies have to be replaced at the centre of economic & political decision making. The responsibility for developing a sound public policy for environment protection & resource conservation lies with the govt.

In our country a significant step was undertaken when environmental litigation was permitted by the courts as a fundamental right of citizens. In a judgement the Apex Court stated that "procedure being merely handmaiden of justice it should not stand in the way of access to justice to the weaker sections of Indian humanity & therefore where the poor & disadvantaged and concerned this court will not insist on regular writ petition & even letter addressed by a public spirited individual or a social action group pro bono publico would suffice to invite the jurisdiction of this court." As a result the courts are admitting large number of environmental cases. The first landmark judgement of supreme court was delivered in 1985, the court directed the U. P. govt. to stop limestone quarrying in the sub Himalayan hills of Dehradun district.

In this respect the efforts made by the West Bengal govt. can be cited. The govt. announced its policy statement on industrial development in september 1994.

It is in the light of the possibility of a conflict between pro-development & pro-environment goals that the govt. adopted a reconciliatory approach in its policy statement which is like the followings.

- i) Activities will be intensified to control water, air, noise pollution.
- ii) Rivers, water bodies in the state will be protected from encroachment & should be maintained for ecological balance.
- iii) Environmental problems created by the industries will be controlled in a 10 year program.
- iv) The coastal zone in the state stretching from mednapur to the Sunderbans will be preserved & protected.

- v) Action plans will be prepared in phases for improving the physical environment of cities & towns.
- vi) Afforestation, wasteland development, protection of wildlife will be accelerated.
- vii) Special emphasis will be given for water & waste management through scientific processes.
- viii) Efforts will be made to encourage relationship between public private, govt. industry Non governmental organisation/community based organisations-govt.-private, in order to seek co-operation.
- ix) Legislations & regulations relating to environmental protection & conservation of natural resources will be amended in the larger interest of the society.
- x) A co-ordinating machinery among govt. deptts. namely forest, agriculture, irrigation, urban development, panchayat will be set up to prepare soecific action plans.
- xi) The state govt. will explore all possibilities of national & international finances & commit sufficient funds for implementation of this policy.

The citizens all over the world are becoming concerned about their rights for clean air & water. Govts. alone cannot fulfill & serve the proposes to meet the challenges comming out of environmental problems. People's involvement & role of information are essential. Mobilization & involvement of the people in environmental Protection is a challenging task. All sections of the society have to participate in the national endeavour. The provision of public hearing is applicable under Environmental protection Act. People at large particularly in the field of science, technology, medicine will be involved in monitoring & enforcement work.

Attitudinal changes are must to protect the environment. An informed citizen can play an immensely positive role in the area of abatement of pollution. They can organise themselves & force the responsible agencies & legislators to take appropriate action. Thus informed citizens can achieve what even regulators & enforcing agencies cannot.

In conclusion it can be said that the concern over environmental issues & to manage is a matter of much concern. Steps are to be taken in the local, national & global level. Awareness is needed from every sector of society as because it is the issue of exploitive human nature & attitudes that should be addressed in a rational way.

Even in rural areas villager's active participation is necessary. Without villager's support survival rate for the tree would be poor. The same is applicable for the preservation of ponds & streams. This village resources cannot be maintained by bureaucracy alone. It can be done by the village community.

In the management schools also environmental management education has already been introduced. A knowledge of latest Environmental protection services, environmental legislation & rules & regulations for setting up new industry production process, handling chemical industries and also eco-labelling is essential. There are several other positive steps like environmental consultancy service & environment audit are becoming popular day-by-day. Top ranking officials & managers are of late trying to meet the requirements of environmental sustainability, they need a new breed of managers equipped with skills to handle environmental issues. They need appropriate guidelines in matters concerning environment. Many corporations are willing to do away the traditional approach of viewing environment as a separate issue & want to adopt functional approach of integreting it with business. In many industries it has been found that eco-friendly practices have enabled companies to do more savings by the process of recycling the waste.

In 1990s Comrehensive development reamework :

For nearly half a century the rapid tentacular expansion in the number, size & ambit of control of public & private organisations has been the subject of active comment & analysis. Well before the world war II there were complaints from liberals about the increasing invasion of govet. administration into business and industry and demands from welfare liberals and labour parties for more intervention into employment and health, which the Depression. Now Deal & keynesian economics legitimized government intervention for reasons of economic system maintenance. In Western Europe the period of reconstruction & economic miracles was underpinned by expansion of govt. administration while the final

acceptance of all the elements of the modern welfare state all over Western Europe following the British and Scandinavian leftwing governments reinforced this expansion.

In the private sector too, the post war period witnessed an explosion of economic & organisational expansion, first through the increasing internal demands and purchasing power of expanding western economics and increased advertising and secondly through the establishment and expansion of multinational firms in oil, mineral, shipping industries.

The decolonization of Asia, Africa & the Caribbean by the colonial powers from fifteen onwards set the newly independent countries on the path of administrative expansion. Filling up positions vacated by colonial administrators was only a small part of it as the colonial powers had restricted their administrative responsibilities considerably. The major part of the expansion was occasioned by taking on the task of economic development through multifarious public enterprises.

Along with organisational expansion in many newly developing countries there was a corresponding degree of expansion in the communist world and in various international organizations.

There is general agreement about this spread of organization to all human activity from machines to meditation and from sport to sex in every part of the world.

Later on in the 1990s public administration faced a crisis. The boundary between public administration and private administration was becoming unclear, as the public sector was facing increasing demands to run government like a business, importing private-sector concepts such as enterprenurism, privatization, treating the citizen like a customer. But despite the considerable success of market like reforms in increasing the efficiency of governmental bureaucracies, there remains a sense that something is wrong. For people who are concerned about the quality of public service and attention to issues of social injustice, fairness in governmental action, environmental protection or in a word running the govt. like a business does not fell right. It seems to degrade the commitment to public service reducing it to technical instrumental market functions.

The concept is untrue & misleading particularly for the their world countries. It is also to be remembered that private & public administration have their essential differences. The foremost feature which distinguishes public administration from private administration lies in the environment within which the former necessary functions, public administration inevitable operates within the political environment. Activities & programs in the government sector get evaluated on the basis of economic and technical factor and the ultimate considerations are political it si the politicay context of public administration which makes it necessary for it to lay down & adhere to elkaborate rules & regulations and compy with time consuming procedures. Private Administration decides on a course of action on the basis of cost benefit analysis - at least this is the belief but in public administration the ultimate test is political . The is how that government remains close to the people and citizen satisfaction gets maximised. The ultimate truth is that however, big & deviersified if may be, no corporate organisation cn match public administration in the range, variety & scale of functions. Even multinational corporations with diversified range of activities cannot compare with a modern government in terms of swrrp of this activities. The view is that management is management whether in govt. or in the private secotor is advocated by management experts working in & familiar with private administration. Scientific management grew in the industrial environment & was a product of the machine shop where the problem was how to manufacture more with less & less cost. F. W. Taylor never worked in the government & possessed experience only of private companies. It cannot be denied that management has a place in public administration. But ther are several differences.

- i) Public administration is public & as such its acid test is public interest. Being public it is open to constant public seruting. This does not bother private administration. Thus, the morale & ethical standards in public ad. are much higher than those applicable in private administration. The concept of accountability acquires urgency in public administration, which is unheard of in business administration.
- ii) In respect of the clientile, public administration is different from private administration. Its clientele is the whole society. Indeed, Greater care is expected from the govt. No private sector company

can have this kind of penetration.

- iii) The interaction & interrelation of functions of public administration are vestly intricate & compared to the private administration. This explains why coordination is one of the biggest problems in public administration & is always an acutely felt weakness.
- iv) The underlying values in both are different in many ways. The cost effective principles which are of paramount value in private administration may not be applied in public administration. In private administration the general principle is : if it does not pay, close it. In govt. many problems have to be dealt with regardless of the cost involved.

The dissimilarities between public & private administration are not very insignificant. Indeed there are many who forcefully argue that there are more differences between small and large organisations than between public & private agencies. Recently the private component of private administration is seen to be decreasing, narrowing the distance between private & public administration. On a closer analysis the public is penetrating the private administration and to that extent the dichotomy becomes less & less rigid.

By the 1990s the idea that govt. needed to be smaller and more efficient had become accepted as common wisdom. The role of bureaucrats in this respect has been reviewed by claus offe. In legal brueaucratic administration, Offe points out "efficiency means the reliable subsumption of action under premises." The structural model of welfare state is just the opposite. Offe argues "welfare state administrative policy becomes dependent on extralegal ligitimations, that is upon the substantive realization of some values and upon the resulting processes of empricial consensus formation.

On the other hand the issue of how the govt. will deliver service to its clients Osbrone & Gaebler in their book (Reinventing Government, 1993) argued that the govt. often does a better job of governance, or steering than of delivering services. They included in the steering rowing distinction between governmental decision making about contracting out services & a governmental role in serving as catalyst for private and nonprofit initiatives such as downtown renewal or building sports facilities.

Vincent Ostrom in his writings emphasizes the benefits of a multifaceted, polycentric system of governmental organizations & their private & profit partners organized to fit the services they offer so that the results is the best possible blend of efficiency with responsiveness to the public for example community police patrol, may be more efficiently & effectively organized on a small local scale, whereas police communication system detention facilities and crime laboratories may be handled better through large scale organization.

In the end it appears that the determinations about which the goods are to be distributed free to the public and for which they need to pay for an production arrangement are a matter of trial and error according to political preferences. At the national level the attitudes about the scope & size of govt. Change periodically as people faces new challenges and social & economic conditions.

At the local level the choices made about which services to offer very significantly from community to community. Some places confine themselves to providing the basics of public safety, streets and sewerage, water. Other provide a wide variety of services. E. G. public pools, recreation programs, downtown redevelopment programs, public private partnership to encourage economic development & so on.

The post development approach did not remain confine within the boundaries of developed industrialized countries rather it engulfed the socialist as well as the newly developed indepent Afro Asian countries, making the approach more comprehensive and more acceptable to the people of all those nations.

UNIT 1 □ THEORETICAL PREMISES OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Objectives :

After having gone through this unit you should be able to :

- Define Development Administration
- Explain the context of the emergence of Development Administration
- Differentiate between Development and Non-development Administration
- Discuss the significance of Development Administration in terms of empowerment and well-being of marginal sections of the population.

Structure

- 1.1 Introduction : Right to Development
- 1.2 Emergence of the idea of Development Administration
- 1.3 How does Development Administration differ from Traditional Public Administration?
- 1.4 Summary
- 1.5 Sample Questions
- 1.6 Select Readings

1.1 INTRODUCTION : RIGHT TO DEVELOPMENT

Development Administration, like comparative public administration, is a post-war phenomenon. It emerged against the backdrop of the emergence of new nations out of the colonial experience and the felt need for their rapid socio-economic reconstruction. The colonial legacy of routine administration, with its focus on law and order administration along with the associated personnel system and work procedure, was found unsuitable for the accomplishment of the tasks of nation-building in the states marked by poverty, illiteracy, diseases, malnutrition, and low industrial and agricultural productivity.

Decolonisation brought a new wave of expectations in people; it strained the emergent neo-classical order while tearing down the remnants of the imperial system. Development became the dominant issue in the Third World. Under the circumstances, development administration emerged as a mutation to colonial administration by, what may be referred to as, the injecting of development goals and structures into the old core of civil servants. Public administration, it was felt, could no longer remain concerned with mere implementation and monitoring of Government policies from

a neutral standpoint on issues involving development programmes and policies. The legacy of anonymity, neutrality and commitment to the rigidities of administrative regulations was increasingly sought to be replaced by the demands of innovativeness, new concepts of problem-solving and effective citizen-administration interaction.

Whilst the concept of development is not new, there is no universally accepted definition of development. Many have defined 'development' in economic terms as improvement in national economy, some others add social improvement to the concept, whilst still others consider it in terms of the capacity of the political system. In a word, development is a complex phenomenon. It has many dimensions - social, economic, political and administrative. Viewed in a holistic sense, all these dimensions converge at a point. The World Development Report (1991) had perceived of development along the following lines : "The challenge of development, in the broadest sense, is to improve the quality of life. Especially in the world's poor countries, a better quality of life generally calls for higher incomes - but it involves much more. It encompasses, as ends in themselves, better education, higher standard of health and nutrition, less poverty, a cleaner environment, more equality of opportunity, greater individual freedom, and a richer cultural life."

1.2 EMERGENCE OF THE IDEA OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

The idea of development administration was elaborated by western, particularly American scholars. In the 1960s, the west responded to the development challenge of the Third World in a number of ways. The first was to conceptualise the notion of development administration by blending all necessary elements of human endeavour with financial and material resources in order to achieve development goals that were generally recommended by western experts. Such characterisation of development administration meant an emphasis on the formal and technical aspects of the governmental machinery. Development goals were assumed to be agreed upon by the local and western educated elites. These goals were generally referred to as nation-building and socio-economic development. Irving Swerdlow identified two inter-related tasks of development administration, namely, institution-building and planning.

The most important single contribution was made by the Comparative Administrative Group (CAG) set up in the USA under the aegis of the American Society for Public Administration and the American Political Science Association. Fred W. Riggs was its Chairman.

There are a number of approaches to the study of development administration.

The planning approach looks at development administration essentially as administration of planned change and development. The innovative thrust of development administration was emphasised by scholars like Merle Fainsod [Fainsod, Merle, "The Structure of Development Administration", in Irving Swerdlow ed., *Development Administration: Concepts and Problems*, 1963, p. 2]. In his perception, development administration is a carrier of innovative values. As the term is commonly used, it embraces the array of new functions assumed by developing countries embarking on the path of modernisation and industrialisation.

Fred Riggs's approach [Riggs, F.W., "The Context of Development Administration", in F.W. Riggs, ed., *Frontiers of Development Administration*, 1971, p. 72] to development administration marks a distinction between development of administration and administration of development which are different, yet interrelated aspects of development administration. According to him :

Development administration refers to organised efforts to carry out programmes or projects thought by those who are involved to serve development objectives. The phrase (development administration) arises by simple analogy, with such expressions as agricultural administration, educational administration and social welfare administration, each of which involves organised efforts to implement agricultural, educational and social welfare programmes, respectively.

According to Riggs, "development then involves the ability to choose whether or not to increase outputs, whether or not to raise levels of per capita income, or to direct energies to other goals, to the more equitable distribution of what is available, to aesthetic or spiritual values, or to qualitatively different kinds of outputs."

According to Gerhard and Theodore Geiger, development means change plus growth ("Country Programming as a Guide to Development", in *Development of Emerging Countries, An Agenda for Research*, Brookings Institution, Washington, 1962.). Weidner gives a rather holistic view when he defines development as growth "in the direction of modernity and particularly in the direction of nation building and socio-economic progress." (Edward W. Weidner, "The Elements of Development Administration" in Weidner ed., *Development Administration in Asia*, Duke University Press, Durham, 1970).

1.3 HOW DOES DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION DIFFER FROM TRADITIONAL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION?

The most comprehensive, classical formulation of the bureaucracy had been presented by Max Weber (1864-1920). His thoughts and formulations of the 'ideal type' of bureaucracy, had influenced generations of scholars. His focus of analysis was the 'value neutral' bureaucracy, marked out by certain structural characteristics.

The traditional Weberian model, however, failed to answer the needs of the developing countries. For that, a new approach to administration and administrative functioning was considered essential. Against such a backdrop, development administration emerged to allot a crucial role to the administration for the promotion of development.

Development administration is generally similar to traditional, or what is also referred to as non-developmental public administration in so far as it is concerned with how rules, policies and norms are implemented by Government organisations. But, much of the similarity ends there. In fact, the differences are very pronounced. On careful analysis we will find that, development administration is different from traditional public administration in terms of its objectives, scope, complexity and also the degree of innovation in its operations.

The distinguishing mark of development administration is its focus on the management of development. It is often seen as concerned with the formulation and implementation of the four *p's* - plans, policies, programmes and projects. But, as pointed out by Ramesh K. Arora in his book *Comparative Public Administration*, we should remember, not all planning may be developmental, and not all development administration may be planned.

Development administration is characterised by its purposes, its loyalties and its attitudes. To quote George Gant, "The purposes of Development Administration are to stimulate and facilitate defined programmes of social and economic progress. They are purposes of change and innovation and movement as contrasted with purposes of maintaining the status quo." In terms of loyalties, the bureaucrats have to be accountable to the people and not to any vested interests, monarchy or empire. In terms of attitudes, development administration calls for positive, persuasive and innovative stances from the bureaucracy.

Administration is in a position to promote development in several ways. Firstly, it helps in programming, planning and policy making; secondly, it is responsible for

implementation of Government plans and policies; and, thirdly, it keeps the citizens informed of possible Government plans and policies. As such, it could be the main instrument for nation-building by transforming the received inputs into development outputs.

Development administration calls for the organisation of new agencies, reorientation of existing agencies, delegation of administrative powers to development agencies and the creation of a cadre of administrators who can provide leadership in stimulating and supporting programmes of social and economic improvement.

Development administrators have to be flexible in their approach, amiable in nature, outgoing, people-oriented, willing to take risks and make on the spot decisions, rules and regulations notwithstanding. For this, development bureaucracy needs a framework that i) is flexible in operation, ii) pragmatic in being able to consider exigencies of circumstances from a practical standpoint, iii) encourages open decision-making processes relying on dissent and discussions among colleagues, iv) has a client oriented approach, v) is laden with human values of service and sympathy for all, particularly the weaker sections of society.

In order to act as an agent of change, the bureaucratic system must have the capacity to :

- Forecast and understand the direction and tempo of major and significant changes in its environment;
- Plan for necessary and desirable changes;
- Adapt itself to changes demanded by the exigencies of politics;
- Innovate on its own.

However, in the developing countries, given the acute shortage of qualified human resources to man the public services, innovations often originated with expatriates and foreign experts, or were simply cosmetic structural changes.

Also, there were problems of over-planning and over-administration in many cases.

Further, despite the rhetoric, the emergent administrative systems were often imitative and ritualistic. And, the practices, styles and structures of administration remained unrelated to local traditions, needs and realities.

The changing role of the bureaucracy in development administration is characterised by such phrases as 'development bureaucracy' and 'non-Weberian model of bureaucracy'. What is intended is to make the governmental organisations structurally and behaviourally geared to the tasks of development. To fit bureaucracy into development tasks, changes on both the structural and behavioural fronts are necessary. Structurally, de-emphasis of hierarchy has been suggested to get rid of the conventional organisational

pyramid which leads to centralisation and inter-personal conflicts. As a corollary, it is felt that organisations should be re-designed to promote collegiate decision-making and collaborative problem-solving. As most of the development activities take place at the field level away from the headquarters, de-centralisation of authority is essential to enable the field units to take decisions on the spot as far as possible, without having to wait indefinitely for central clearance. Decentralised decision-making is, in turn, facilitated by the creation of separate, fairly autonomous units of administration at the field level.

Communication or flow of information is the life blood of an organisation. In pushing through measures for socio-economic development, the organisation has to have free flow of messages and information unhindered by the status levels within it. Speedy and effective decision-making calls for the support of reliable information through free flow of communication.

Also important is to remember that the bureaucracy has to work in close association with the public under a general rubric of service ethic. Popular participation has to be viewed as a resource and the bureaucracy has to elicit popular support for the development tasks.

1.4 SUMMARY

Development Administration, like Comparative Public Administration, is a post-war phenomenon. As the colonies gained independence, development became the dominant issue in the Third World. It was in such a context that the concept of development administration was elaborated by western, particularly American scholars. In its operative sense, development administration emerged as a mutation to colonial administration by the injecting of development goals and structures into the old core of civil servants. Public administration, it was felt, could no longer remain concerned with mere implementation and monitoring of Government policies from a neutral standpoint on issues involving development programmes and policies.

1.5 SAMPLE QUESTIONS

A) Long answer type questions

- ⇒ Trace the emergence of the idea of development administration.
- ⇒ Distinguish between traditional bureaucratic administration and development administration
- ⇒ Do you think the concept of development administration is suited to the needs

of the developing countries? Give reasons for your answer.

B) Short answer type questions

- ⇒ Give an outline of the classical formulation of the bureaucracy.
- ⇒ Explain the concept of development administration.
- ⇒ What are the nature of changes in bureaucratic system necessary for meeting the needs of development administration?
- ⇒ Why is decentralisation of authority important?

C) Objective questions

- ⇒ With whose name is the most comprehensive, classical formulation of the bureaucracy associated?
- ⇒ Who spoke of the 'ideal type' of bureaucracy?
- ⇒ What was the CAG Group?
- ⇒ Who was Fred Riggs?

1.6 SELECT READINGS

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UNIT 2 □ DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA

Objectives :

After having gone through this unit you should be able to :

- *Identify* the functions of the Planning Commission
- *Explain* the importance of the National Development Council
- *Elucidate* the functions of the State Planning Boards
- *Outline* the efforts made towards promoting state and district level planning

Structure

- 2.1 India and Development Administration
- 2.2 Planning and the The Planning Commission
- 2.3 The National Development Council
- 2.4 The Administrative Reforms Commission
- 2.5 State Planning Boards
- 2.6 Planning Machinery at The District Level and Below
- 2.7 Summary
- 2.8 Sample Questions
- 2.9 Further Readings

2.1 INDIA AND DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Well before the theoretical emergence of the concern for development administration in western administrative discourse, several far-reaching decisions were taken in India from 1949 to 1954 with a view to putting the State on the path of development. With independence, the goals of a welfare state, demands of distributive justice and fast economic growth changed the demands on the nature of governmental activity. Maintenance of law and order was not enough. Promoting the larger interests of society called for State interventions in a variety of forms. With the new goal of development, promoting people's welfare and reducing poverty, planning for development became important after independence. Development administration demanded structural changes, multiplicity of programmes and officials at many levels, unorthodox roles and approaches. Alongside the traditional order, maintenance fields such as collection of revenues, maintenance of internal security and ceremonious activities of State, it was increasingly felt that the civil service should play an important role in fields of health, education, agriculture, focussing on the uplift of the vast multitude of rural people

and the weaker sections of society in general.

In India, the Nehru period was marked by the expansion of State activities. Inspired by the rate of planned progress in the Soviet Union, Nehru, as the first Prime Minister, chose to encourage the emergence of planning for development. Expansion in State activities thus generated were marked by increase in the number of administrative personnel, proliferation of Government regulations (both social and economic), emergence of public sector enterprises.

In the fifties itself, two important institutions were set up to cope with the newly emerging demands of development planning. One was the Planning Commission. The other was the National Development Council.

2.2 PLANNING AND THE PLANNING COMMISSION

The Planning Commission was set up in March, 1950 by a Resolution of the Government of India. Since it was not a statutory body, its composition could be changed easily by the Government as it was done several times since its inception in 1950. To begin with (1951-52), the Planning Commission consisted of four members in addition to the Chairman and Deputy Chairman, a membership which was subsequently expanded.

The functions of the Planning Commission are as follows :

1. to make an assessment of the material, capital and human resources of the country, including technical personnel, and to investigate the possibilities of augmenting such of these resources as are found to be deficient in relation to the nation's requirements;
2. to formulate a Plan for the most effective and balanced utilisation of the country's resources;
3. to define the stages in which the Plan should be carried out and to propose the allocation of resources for the due completion of each stage on a determination of priorities;
4. to indicate the factors which are tending to retard economic development, and determine the conditions which, in view of the current social and political situation, should be stabilised for the successful execution of the Plan;
5. to determine the nature of the machinery which would be necessary for securing the successful implementation of each stage of the Plan in all its aspects;
6. to appraise from time to time the progress achieved in the execution of each stage of the Plan and to recommend the adjustments of policy and measures that such appraisal might show to be necessary; and

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

Briefly, the functions of the Commission are assessment of resources, priorities of allocation of resources, formulation of the Development plans of both the Central and State Governments, determining the machinery required for the implementation of the plan, appraisal of the progress achieved in the execution of each stage of the plan.

The Prime Minister in his capacity as Chairman of the Planning Commission, participates and gives direction to the Commission on all major issues of policy.

The Deputy Chairman and the full time Members of the Planning Commission function as a composite body in the matter of detailed plan formulation. They provide advice and guidance to the subject Divisions of the Commission in the various exercises undertaken for the formulation of Approach to the Five Year Plans and Annual Plans. Their expert guidance is also available to the subject Divisions for monitoring and evaluating the Plan programmes, projects and schemes.

The Planning Commission functions through several technical/subject Divisions. Each Division is headed by a Senior Officer designated as Principal Adviser/Adviser/Additional Adviser/Joint Secretary/Joint Adviser.

The various Divisions in the Commission fall under two broad categories:

- i. General Divisions which are concerned with aspects of the entire economy;
- ii. Subject Divisions which are concerned with specified fields of development.

The General Divisions functioning in the Planning Commission are :

- i. Development Policy Division,
- ii. Financial Resources Division,
- iii. International Economics Division,
- iv. Labour, Employment and Manpower Division,
- v. Perspective Planning Division
- vi. Plan Co-ordination Division,
- vii. Project Appraisal and Management Division,
- viii. Socio-Economic Research Unit,
- ix. State Plan Division, including Multi Level Planning, Border Area Development Programme, Hill Area Development and North Eastern Region (NER),

- x. Statistics and Surveys Division,
- xi. Monitoring Cell.

The Subject Divisions are :

- i. Agriculture Division,
- ii. Backward Classes Division,
- iii. Communication & Information Division,
- iv. Education Division,
- v. Environment and Forests Division,
- vi. Health & Family Welfare Division,
- vii. Housing, Urban Development & Water Supply Division,
- viii. Industry & Minerals Division,
- ix. Irrigation & Command Area Development Division
- x. Power & Energy Division (including Rural Energy, Non-Conventional Energy Sources and Energy Policy Cell)
- xi. Rural Development Division
- xii. Science & Technology Division,
- xiii. Social Welfare & Nutrition Division,
- xiv. Transport Division,
- xv. Village & Small Industries Division, and
- xvi. Western Ghats Secretariat.

The Programme Evaluation Organisation undertakes evaluation studies to assess the impact of selected Plan Programmes / Schemes in order to provide useful feedback to planners and implementing agencies.

Indian administration, originally designed by the colonial masters for performance of regulatory functions in the dependent country, was taken over by independent India, almost lock, stock and barrel and was sought to be used for performing tasks related to state-building, nation-building and development. Parliamentary democracy and federalism provided the basic framework within which it was called upon to function. Under the demands of the new conditions, the activities and responsibilities of the administration expanded spectacularly in all dimensions, particularly in promotional and developmental fields. Not only did the functions of public administration increase, they became vastly more complex. New forms of organisations were set up, existing ones expanded in terms of size, processes, acquisition of new skills etc.

As a result of the adoption of planning since the inauguration of the First Five Year Plan in 1951, public administration became the accredited vehicle for executing developmental programmes in a welfare state, which necessitated significant changes in administration. The First Five Year Plan set the tone by laying down the general premises of democracy and the role of the political executive in the country. The task of the bureaucracy in relation to development was elucidated in the First Five Year Plan in the following words:

In all directions the pace of development will depend largely upon the quality of public administration, the efficiency with which it works, and the co-operation which it evokes. The tasks facing the administration are larger and more complex, but also richer in meaning than in earlier days.

For the first eight Plans, the emphasis was on a growing public sector with massive investments in basic and heavy industries, but since the launch of the Ninth Plan in 1997, the emphasis on the public sector has become less pronounced and the current thinking on planning in the country, in general, is that it should increasingly be of an indicative nature.

The Planning Commission has been subject to a number of criticisms :

1. It has been criticised as an agency of the Central Government; its effective strength varies according to the whims of the Prime Minister.
2. It is increasingly becoming authoritarian in its functioning, losing its 'staff agency' character.
3. Viewed from the federal angle, it tends to undermine the autonomy of the State.
4. It undermines the democratic principle as it is not accountable to Parliament.
5. The estimates prepared by it are unrealistic, the targets so high that can seldom be attained.
6. The planning machinery is divorced from operational responsibilities, as such it often fails to reckon with ground realities.

Programme Advisers, first appointed in 1952, helped the Planning Commission in maintaining a liaison with the States in the field of planning. They were to assess the implementation of development programmes in the States and advise the Planning Commission on the proposals coming from the States regarding their Five Year Plans and annual plans. Their close association with implementing agencies equipped them with a capability to comment on the proposal in realistic terms. However, the institution of Programme Advisers suffered from several shortcomings, including the high turn over of officers occupying the position and lack of adequate interest on the part of the incumbents as they have used it as a stepping stone for other positions.

2.3 THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COUNCIL

The National Development Council was set up by a Government Resolution on August 6, 1952. Initially, it comprised of the Prime Minister of India, Chief Ministers of all the States, all members of the Planning Commission, those ministers of the Central Government whose cases were being considered, ministers of the State Governments concerning ministries of Finance and Planning, ministers of Central and State Governments specially invited to attend the meeting. In 1967, on the recommendations of the Administrative Reforms Commission, the National Development Council was reconstituted. The reconstituted Council comprises of the following members : the Prime Minister, all Cabinet members of the Central Government, Chief Ministers of all States, all members of the Planning Commission. The Central Ministers whose subjects are under discussion also participate in the meetings. The Prime Minister is the Chairman of the Council. The Secretary of the Planning Commission performs the duties of the Secretary of the Council. The Council can also constitute ad hoc committees for detailed investigation of particular problems. Generally, the Council meets once or twice a year.

The National Development Council was set up primarily to secure the co-operation of the States in the matter of the execution of the Plans, thereby seeking to overcome or at least soften the rigidities inherent in federalism. The main objective was to secure the co-operation of the States in the execution of the Plan (i) to mobilise the resources and efforts of the country for the implementation of the Plan; (ii) to evolve common policies in all vital spheres; and (iii) to ensure balanced development of all regions of the country.

The functions of the National Development Council, as laid down in the Resolution of August 6, 1952, are

1. to review the working of the National Plan from time to time;
2. to consider important questions of social and economic policy affecting national development; and
3. to recommend measures for the achievement of the aims and targets set out in the National Plan, including measures to secure the active participation and co-operation of the people, improve the efficiency of the administrative service, ensure the fullest development of the less advanced regions and sections of the community, and through sacrifice borne by all citizens, build up resources, for national development.

On the basis of recommendations of the Administrative Reforms Commission, the functions of the National Development Council were revised in 1967 to include (I)

preparation of guidelines for the formulation of the National Plan including assessment of its resources; (iii) consideration of the National Plan as formulated by the Planning Commission.

The National Development Council has over the years evolved as an administrative agency to achieve the fullest possible co-operation and co-ordination in planning between the Central Government and the State Governments. The effort is to bring about uniformity of approach and unanimity in the working of the National Plan. It plays an important role in preparing and finalising the National Plans. The Plan prepared by the Planning Commission is placed before the National Development Council for its approval. Representatives of the Union and State Governments sit there together to sort out the issues. After being passed by the National Development Council it is sent to the Parliament for its approval.

The National Development Council has served as an effective link between the Central Government, the Planning Commission and the State Governments. It serves as a forum for open debates and the free exchange of ideas. It seeks to bring in a holistic perspective into the process of planning.

However, it has been subject to a variety of criticisms. It has often been referred to as a super Cabinet which has relegated the Planning Commission to the background. It has been said that the NDC tends to encroach on the functions which properly belong to the fields of other constitutionally constituted bodies. In this context it may be remembered that the NDC is neither a constitutional nor statutory body, it is a creation of the Union Cabinet. It has also been pointed out in criticism that its infrequent meetings hardly afford time for the ventilation of grievances of all the State Governments.

2.4 THE ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS COMMISSION, 1966-70

In November 1965, the Government of India under the Prime Ministership of Lal Bahadur Shastri, announced its intention of setting up an Administrative Reforms Commission. The Commission was formally constituted in 1966 and worked till 1970. Morarji Desai was the Chairman. Apart from him, there were five other members. Over the years, however, due to a variety of reasons, its composition underwent changes. In its last year, i.e., 1970, the Commission comprised of K. Hanumanthaiya and four other members, three of whom were serving members of Parliament and one a retired civil servant.

The Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) was the most comprehensive investigation into and reporting on, public administration since India attained

independence. In making its recommendations, as per the given guidelines, the Commission was asked to (a) ensure the highest standards of efficiency and integrity in the public services, (b) to make public administration a fit instrument for carrying out the social and economic policies of Government and achieving social and economic goals of development, and (c) make public administration responsive to the people. These principles were being discussed in the past, in fact, they were referred to even during the First Five Year plan. Now, however, these principles were more clearly articulated and were to inform the most comprehensive investigation of public administration of India at all levels.

The Administrative Reforms Commission submitted nineteen reports, making a total of 581 recommendations over the four year period between 1966-70.

2.5 STATE PLANNING BOARDS

In 1962, the Planning Commission suggested to the State Governments to set up State Planning Boards on the lines of the Planning Commission for the formulation of the plan in the light of the resources and needs of the State. In 1966, the Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) also recommended the constitution of State Planning Boards. The ARC recommended a three-tier machinery - a state agency, sectoral (departmental) planning agencies and regional and district planning agencies.

The identified functions of the State Planning Boards are as follows :

1. To make an assessment of the State resources and formulate plans for the most effective and balanced utilisation of those resources;
2. To determine plan priorities of the State within the framework of the priorities of the national plan;
3. To assist the district authorities in formulating their development plans within the spheres in which such planning is considered to be useful and feasible and to co-ordinate these plans with the State plan;
4. To identify factors which tend to retard economic and social development of the State and determine the set of conditions for successful execution of the plans;
5. To review the progress of implementation of the plan programmes and recommend such adjustments in policies and measures as the review may indicate.

Accepting the recommendations of the ARC, the Planning Commission again instructed all States to set up Planning Boards and strengthen the planning machinery in general. Following the Planning Commission's frequent requests, from the late sixties onwards several States went ahead to set up State Planning Boards.

State Planning Boards are composed of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and some

members. The Chief Minister is the Chairman of the State Planning Board. The post of the Vice/Deputy Chairman is generally occupied by the Finance Minister of the concerned State. The number of members of the Planning Boards vary from State to State.

At the State level, each department prepares its own plan. The plans prepared by the different departments are then consolidated into the Draft form by the Planning department of the State Government which is presented to the Cabinet sub-committee and subsequently discussed by the State Planning Board. After approval, it becomes a Draft Plan. It is then sent to the Planning Commission which discusses it with the Chief Minister, the Planning and Finance Ministers of the States concerned. A great deal of hard bargaining follows. In its final form, the State Plan reflects compromises between the Union and the State Governments. After getting the necessary clearance from the Planning Commission, the State Plan is placed, first, before the State Cabinet and, then, the State Legislature for approval.

In the States' Planning Boards quite a few limitations are evident. Some of the more important ones are noted below :

1. The Boards very often have inadequate or untrained staff. The personnel lack training in planning techniques.
2. There is a preponderance of officials on the Boards.
3. The Vice-Chairman, very often the State's Finance Minister, is already too pre-occupied with his political activities and ministerial responsibilities to devote time to look after the work of the State Planning Board.
4. The criteria of resource allocation is frequently based on political considerations.

2.6 PLANNING MACHINERY AT THE DISTRICT LEVEL AND BELOW

In 1954, the Planning Commission had issued guidelines for planning at local levels in regard to agriculture, small scale industries and co-operatives. In 1969, the Planning Commission issued another set of guidelines for the formulation of District Plans. In 1978, the Ashok Mehta Committee in its Report expressed the view that the District level was broad enough to consider policy options and was immediately below the state - a strategy level for economic planning.

The planning machinery at the district level comprises the officers of the various development departments as also other non-official representatives. The Collector or Deputy Commissioner is the Chief Co-ordinator who gets the District Plans prepared with the help of other district level officers.

The District Collector continues to be an important figure at the district level. During the pre-independence days he had responsibilities of a dual nature, namely, collection of revenue and administration of criminal justice at the district level. Now he has no judicial functions. But, in addition to being a collector of all revenues and a Magistrate in charge of law and order, he has taken on tasks relating to planning and development in the context of the district.

The districts are geographically divided into a number of units known as the Sub-divisions. The officers-in-charge of these units are known as the Sub-divisional Officers (SDOs). The SDO is a valuable field aide to the District Collector and is an integral part of the district administration. Like the District Collector, the SDO is a general area administrator; he speaks on behalf of the Government in his own sub-division. He gathers information, transmits it to his district chief, contacts people, and looks after the execution of Government policies in his sub-division.

Planning at the district and block levels is done jointly by officers of the development departments and a number of non-official representatives. The district officers and the block development officers work on the preparation of the plans at the district and block levels respectively. These planning authorities at the district and block levels make an assessment of their own needs and resources and formulate programmes/schemes for the development of their respective areas.

The need for decentralisation of the planning process below the level of the State has been emphasised repeatedly in the Five Year Plans. The Administrative Reforms Commission had also highlighted its necessity. However, till now, the planning machinery at the district level continues to be weak. District level planning, as it is practised, is primarily a process of collection of data at the lower levels. Final decisions are not taken at the lower levels. Also, even though the planning process is sought to be carried down further to the level of the village, limited success has been achieved in this area so far.

2.7 SUMMARY

India has a long history of administrative commitment to development. Two important instruments created for facilitating this exercise have been the Planning Commission and the National Development Council. The Planning Commission was set up to make assessment of resources, priorities of allocation of resources, formulate the development plans for both the Central and State Governments, determine the machinery required for the implementation of the plan, The National Development Council was set up to review the working of the National Plan from time to time and to consider important questions of social and economic policy affecting national

development. At the level of the States, there are the State Planning Boards preparing plans for the States in the light of the guidelines received from the Planning Commission. Below the State level, there are planning bodies at the level of the district, block and villages.

2.8 SAMPLE QUESTIONS

A. Long answer type questions

- ⇒ What are the functions of the Planning Commission of India?
- ⇒ Attempt an evaluation of the role of the Planning Commission.
- ⇒ Write a note on State level planning in India.

B. Short answer type questions

- ⇒ What are the main objectives of the National Development Council in India?
- ⇒ How was the task of the bureaucracy perceived during the First Five Year Plan?
- ⇒ Give an outline of the district level planning machinery.

C. Objective questions

- ⇒ When was the Planning Commission set up in India?
- ⇒ What was the initial composition of the Planning Commission?
- ⇒ When was the First Five Year Plan launched in India?

D. Things you can do

Meet a member of the State Planning Board in your State and find out from him the main priority concerns of the Board.

2.9 FURTHER READINGS

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4. *The Five Year plan documents*.
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6. Planning Commission, *Guidelines for the Formulation of District Plans*, Planning Commission, New Delhi, 1969.

UNIT 3 □ ADMINISTRATION FOR THE WELFARE OF THE WEAKER SECTIONS

Objectives :

The following unit should enable you to :

- *Comprehend* the structure and functions of the Ministry of Social Welfare
- *Identify* the Government policies adopted for the empowerment of women in India
- *Highlight* the mandate of the National Commission for Women
- *Explain* the concept of Eco-feminism
- *Outline* the ICDS Programme

Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 The Ministry of Social Welfare
- 3.3 Gender Development
- 3.4 The Department of Women and Child Development
- 3.5 Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB)
- 3.6 Child welfare
- 3.7 The ICDS Programme
- 3.8 The National Commission for Women
- 3.9 Eco-Feminism
- 3.10 Summary
- 3.11 Sample Questions
- 3.12 Further Readings

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The Preamble to the Constitution of India enunciated the resolve of the people of India to commit themselves to the ideals of a welfare state.

The Constitution of India contains provisions for the welfare of socially disadvantaged sections including Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, women and children. The Fundamental Rights prohibit social discrimination and seek to create an egalitarian society, whilst the Directive Principles of State Policy encapsules the vision of the Constitution makers regarding the future India. Drawing succour from such constitutional provisions, have emerged a network of policies and programmes and a set of institutional arrangements for the welfare of the weaker sections.

3.2 THE MINISTRY OF SOCIAL WELFARE

The initial organised efforts towards creation of a machinery for welfare at the union level led to the creation of the Department of Social Security in 1964. Its task was to look after subjects relating to social welfare pooled together from different ministries like Education, Home Affairs, Labour Health, Commerce and Industry.

In 1966, the Department of Social Security was re-named as the Department of Social Welfare. In 1979, this Department was elevated to the position of a ministry and came to be known as the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare. In 1984, it was re-designated as the Ministry of Social and Women Welfare. In the following year, i.e. 1985, the Ministry of Welfare was formed by transferring subjects relating to welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, minorities and Other Backward Classes from the Ministry of Home Affairs and the welfare of the disabled and programme of social defence from the Ministry of Welfare with effect from the 6th of January, 1986. The Department of Women and Child Development was placed under the Ministry of Human Resource Development.

At the State level, the Social Welfare Department is responsible for the administration of social welfare programmes which aim at mitigating the socio-economic problems of the weaker sections of the population. Implementation of the schemes, whether they are centrally sponsored or formulated by the State Government is the responsibility of the State Social Welfare Department. The Department, like any other Department, is under the charge of a Minister. He is assisted by a Secretary / Commissioner Social Welfare in matters relating to the formulation of State level social welfare policies. The department has district and block level offices. Needless to say, the success in the implementation of the schemes largely depends upon the efficiency and effectiveness of the State Social Welfare Department.

3.3 GENDER DEVELOPMENT

In 1952, the United Nations adopted the Convention on the Political Rights of Women. Since 1975 four International Conferences on women were held under its auspices. All the conferences emphasised women's political empowerment as a key concern. The Fourth World Conference on Women was held at Beijing in 1995. In its Platform for Action, women's equal access to, and full participation in decision-making was emphasised as one of the critical areas of concern. It was noted that, women's equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. Women's equal participation in decision-making was seen not only as a demand for simple justice or democracy, but also as a necessary

condition for taking into account of women's interests.

The recommendations included,

- ⇒ Governmental commitment to gender balance in all spheres
- ⇒ Electoral reforms
- ⇒ Monitoring and evaluation of progress in women's representation
- ⇒ Revamping of party structures to remove barriers to women's political participation
- ⇒ Incorporation of gender issues and initiatives in the agenda of political parties
- ⇒ Affirmative action
- ⇒ Creation or strengthening of mechanisms for monitoring women's access to senior levels of decision-making.

The Beijing + 5 Review (2000), noted that many of the stipulations of the Beijing Platform for Action remained unimplemented in several countries.

The Outcome Document adopted by the U.N. General Assembly stated that 'notwithstanding substantial improvements of *de jure* equality between women and men, the actual participation of women at the highest levels of national and international decision-making has not significantly changed since Beijing 1995'. There exists gross under-representation of women in decision-making bodies in all areas including *inter alia*, politics, conflict prevention and resolution mechanisms, economy, environment and the media. This hinders the inclusion of a gender perspective in these critical spheres of influence.

In India, traditionally, religion, social practice and customs have gone hand in hand to establish the subordinate position of the woman.

During India's freedom struggle, ideas of equality of the sexes had gained a measure of currency and many women entered public and political life. However, the broader freedom struggle overshadowed women's struggle for personal freedom.

With the attainment of independence and the adoption of the Constitution, various safeguards for protecting the interests of women and assuring them of their fundamental rights were introduced. The Constitution protects them against discrimination providing for equality before law and equal protection of the law under Article 14. Article 15 prohibits discrimination against any citizen on grounds, *inter alia*, of sex. Alongside this guarantee, is the provision in 15(3) that the State can make special provisions for women and children. Article 16 assures equality of opportunity in matters of public employment. Besides the Fundamental Rights mentioned above, in several of the Directive Principles of State Policy in the Constitution, there are provisions for justice for women. Article 39, for example, provides that men and women equally have the right to an adequate means of livelihood, that there must be equal pay for equal work

for both men and women. Article 42 provides for just and humane conditions of work and maternity leave. Despite the constitutional guarantees however, gender equality continued to remain an elusive goal and a wide gap persisted between reality and the law.

The constitutional mandate regarding women was reflected in the five-year development planning process on which the country embarked soon after independence.

In 1952, the Community Development Programme was launched. It sought to mobilise women through a network of community-level women's groups called the Mahila Mandals. However, these bodies suffered from several limitations :

- ◆ They were elitist in composition and agenda
- ◆ They had limited value for the large mass of rural and urban poor women
- ◆ Conceptually, the community development programme did not take into account the impact of caste, race, gender and other variables in the context of rural communities, power policies and structures

In 1953, in the wake of the First Five Year Plan (1951-1956), a national level body known as the Central Social Welfare Board was set up. Its main task was to implement welfare programmes for women.

The Second Five Year Plan (1956-1961) was geared towards intensive agricultural development. However, the gender constructs of the agricultural sector and rural society were not taken into account and the pivotal role that women played in agriculture was ignored. As such, it failed to have an impact on the lives of rural women. On the positive side however, the Plan asked that women to be protected from injurious work, receive maternity benefits and have access to creches.

The Third Five Year Plan (1961-1966) focused on women's education and women's reproductive health.

In the Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-1974), the main areas emphasised were family planning and mass education of women to reduce birth rate.

The approaches in these Plans were basically welfare oriented and did not seek to address basic structural and cultural issues constraining women's roles, opportunities and entitlements. The women's movement was increasing its pressures on the Government for a policy on women.

In 1971, the Government appointed a Committee on the Status of Women. Its task was to undertake a comprehensive examination of all issues relating to the rights and status of women in the context of the changing socio-economic conditions in the country.

In its Report, *Toward Equality* (1974), the **Committee on the Status of Women**,

noted that political parties 'tended to see the women voters and citizens as appendages of the males'. The presence of a few women in the legislatures and executive was viewed as tokenism, and it was noted that because of their dependent and minority status they could not function as spokespersons for women's rights. The Report brought to our notice the fact that the dynamics of social change and development had been adversely affecting a large section of women, particularly the poor. The Report's conclusions were significant. It pointed out that disabilities and inequalities imposed on women need to be seen in the larger context of an exploitative society. Any policy for the emancipation of women would have to be a part of the total movement for the eradication of social inequalities and oppressive social institutions.

The remedies suggested by the Committee included more meaningful association of women in the structure of local administration.

The recommendations included -

- ◆ Establishment of Statutory Women's Panchayats at the village level
- ◆ Reservation of seats in municipalities
- ◆ Constitution of permanent committees in municipalities to initiate and supervise programmes for women's welfare and development
- ◆ Political parties should adopt a definite policy regarding the percentage of women candidates.

During the International Decade for Women, the approach towards women and the women's question shifted from being 'welfare oriented' to being 'development oriented'. The Sixth Five Year Plan included a separate chapter with a holistic approach to women's concerns. A variety of schemes were initiated under the different ministries or existing schemes were given a different face aiming at the advancement of women. The emphasis was on encouraging their skills of development, education and income earning capabilities. 'Women's Cells' were set up in each ministry/department to exclusively monitor programmes for women.

In fact, there has been a distinct evolution in the way our Plans have looked at issues to do with women. The course of evolution has been as follows :

in the First Plan, till the 50s, women were mainly looked at as recipients of welfare;

in the 60s, women's education started to receive priority, along with measures to improve maternal and child health and nutrition services;

there was a marked shift in the 70s from welfare to development, recognising women as participants in the process of development;

in the '80s, we adopted a multi-disciplinary approach, with a special thrust on three core sectors - health, education and employment;

in the early 90s, the emphasis was on training and skill development programmes to make women economically independent and self-reliant; and

in the current Plan, which runs from 1997 to 2002, the empowerment of women is one of its primary objectives.

Government schemes for the welfare and development of women have largely related to the following :

- ◆ Functional literacy for adult women
- ◆ Working women's hostels
- ◆ Establishment of employment and income-generating training cum production centres for women
- ◆ Vocational training courses
- ◆ Socio-economic programmes
- ◆ Setting up of women's development corporations
- ◆ Setting up of women's development, planning and monitoring cell
- ◆ Grants in aid to NGOs working in the field of women's issues.

The 73rd and 74th Amendments to the Indian Constitution in 1992, provided for, amongst other arrangements, a thirty-three per cent reservation for women in Panchayats and urban local bodies. The purpose was to ensure women's equal access and increased participation in political power structures. Following this move, women did become considerably visible in local Government and politics. However, various constraints affecting the participation of women are evident. Some of the constraints affecting women's participation in Panchayati Raj and urban local Government institutions are stated to be (i) Inadequate awareness, (ii) Aversion to public activities, (iii) Burden of household work and wage work outside (iv) Custom and tradition (v) Discouragement from men and family (vi) Lack of adequate preparation.

3.4 THE DEPARTMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

The Department of Women and Child Development was set up in the year 1985 as a part of the Ministry of Human Resource Development. The idea was, to give the much needed impetus to the holistic development of women and children. As the national machinery for the advancement of women and children, the Department formulates plans, policies and programmes; enacts/amends legislation, guides and co-ordinates the efforts of both governmental and Non-Governmental Organisations

working in the field of Women and Child Development. Besides playing its nodal role, the Department implements certain innovative programmes for women and children. These programmes cover welfare and support services, training for employment and income generation, awareness generation and gender sensitization. These programmes play a supplementary and complementary role to the other general developmental programmes in the sectors of health, education, rural development etc. All these efforts are directed to ensure that women are empowered both economically and socially and, as such, become equal partners in national development along with men.

For the holistic development of the child, the Department has been implementing the world's largest and most unique and outreach programme of Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS). It provides a package of services comprising supplementary nutrition, immunization, health check up and referral services, pre-school non-formal education. There is effective co-ordination and monitoring of various sectoral programmes. Most of the programmes of the Department are run through Non-Governmental Organisations. Efforts are made to have more effective involvement of NGOs.

The major policy initiatives undertaken by the Department in the recent past include the establishment of the National Commission for Women (NCW), Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK), adoption of National Nutrition Policy (NNP), universalising and strengthening of ICDS, setting up of National Creche Fund (NCF), launching of Indira Mahila Yojana (IMY) and Balika Samridhi Yojana (BSY) and Rural Women's Development and Empowerment Project (RWDEP).

The activities of the Department are undertaken through four bureaux. These are the Bureau of Child Development, Bureau of Child Welfare and Nutrition, the Bureau of Women's Development and the Bureau of Micro-credit Development. Each of the four bureaux are headed by a Joint Secretary.

The Department has three autonomous organisations viz. National Institute of Public Co-operation and Child Development (NIPCCD), Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK), and the Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB) working under its aegis. NIPCCD and RMK are societies registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860. CSWB is a charitable company registered under section 25 of the Indian Companies Act, 1956. These organisations are fully funded by the Government of India and they assist the Department in its functions including implementation of some programmes/schemes.

3.5 CENTRAL SOCIAL WELFARE BOARD (CSWB)

The Central Social Welfare Board is an apex national organisation established by

the Government to co-ordinate the activities of State Welfare Boards. Relevant programmes include :

Central Scheme for *creches* which provides day care services for children up to five years of age whose mothers are working or unwell. The Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) scheme, in addition to providing education, nutrition and health services, also provides part time *creche* facilities for children in rural areas and urban slums, implemented jointly with Department of Women and Child Development.

Housing and hostels for working women, which includes provision of day-care facilities, implemented jointly with Department of Women and Child Development. A similar scheme is the *Indira Awaas Yojana* which provides free housing, particularly to poor women. House allotment is made in the name of the women, or in joint ownership of husband and wife.

As part of the National Social Assistance Programme, the National Maternity Benefit scheme provides allowances to women below the poverty line.

Socio-economic programme provides "work and wage" to needy women. There is also a scheme for condensed courses of educational and vocational training for women and girls who are school drop-outs.

Under the Seventh Five Year Plan, it was specifically laid down that State Social Welfare Advisory Boards should shoulder responsibilities with the Central Social Welfare Board in promoting, strengthening and stimulating voluntary efforts in different sub-sectors of social welfare; and specifically in the area of child and women welfare. Today, State Social Welfare Advisory Boards can be found in nearly all the States.

3.6 CHILD WELFARE

Child welfare programmes have occupied a prominent place in the national plans of the human resource development of the Government.

In independent India, the commitment of the Government to the cause of children manifests itself through constitutional provisions, policies, programmes and legislation. The Constitution of India in Article 39 of the Directive Principles of State Policy pledges that "the State shall, in particular, direct its policy towards securing that the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused, and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter avocations unsuited to their age or strength, that children are given opportunities and

facilities to develop in a healthy manner, and in conditions of freedom and dignity, and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation, and against moral and material abandonment".

As a follow-up of this commitment and being a party to the UN Declaration on the Rights of the Child 1959, India has adopted the *National Policy on Children* in 1974. It is aimed at ensuring equality of opportunity to the children. The policy provides the framework to address the needs of the children. The policy reaffirmed the constitutional provisions and stated that "it shall be the policy of the State to provide adequate services to children, both before and after birth and through the period of growth to ensure their full physical, mental and social development. The State shall progressively increase the scope of such services so that within a reasonable time all children in the country enjoy optimum conditions for their balanced growth".

The Government of India ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child on 2nd December, 1992. Accordingly, the Government is taking action to review the national and State legislation and bring it in line with the provisions of the Convention. It has also developed appropriate monitoring procedures to assess progress in implementing the Convention, involved all relevant Government/ministries/departments, international agencies, Non-Governmental Organisations, and the legal profession in the implementation and reporting process, publicised the Convention, and sought public inputs for frank and transparent reporting.

It may be noted that, India is a signatory to the *World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children*. In pursuance of its commitment, the Department of Women and Child Development, has formulated the *National Plan of Action for Children*. The areas addressed by the Plan include health, nutrition, education, water, sanitation and environment. The State has also addressed the polio disease by providing free vaccination camps for children to be vaccinated against polio.

The girl child is often treated as a burden by her parents. To ensure that the female child is no longer discriminated against, the Government has been campaigning actively. The slogan of the Indian Government in the campaign for the Girl Child has been *A Happy Girl is the Future of our Country*. The National Plan of Action for the Girl Child, seeks to prevent female foeticide and infanticide, to eliminate discrimination based on gender, rehabilitate and protect girls from exploitation, assault and abuse.

The *Education for All* campaign of the Government addresses 19 to 24 million children in the age group 6 to 14, of which 60 per cent are girls. Apart from these activities, numerous Non-Governmental Organizations in India are providing means to provide shelter, better health, education and training to the street children, thereby rehabilitating them.

The National Institute of Public Co-operation and Child Development (NIPCCD) was set up in 1966. Its task was to promote voluntary action in social development, to take a comprehensive view of child development and to develop and promote programmes in pursuance of the national policy for children, to develop measures for co-ordination of governmental and voluntary action in social development, to evolve a framework and perspective for organising children's programmes. The NIPCCD is one of the pioneering training institutes in the field of social welfare at the national level.

A National Commission for Children (NCC) for protecting the rights of children is on the anvil. The NCC will have statutory powers to inquire into violations of child rights. This Commission would undertake a comprehensive review of the legislation concerning children in the light of the obligations arising out of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. *Childline* Service has been initiated by the Government for children in distress and to respond to children in emergency situations and refer them to relevant Government and Non-Governmental Organisations.

The State Departments of Women and Child Development are also implementing various schemes for the welfare of *devdasi* girls.

While a measure of attention is being given to children in policy-making, the budgetary allocations are sometimes less than desirable. There is a need for advocating greater resource allocation for children and analysis of the impact of budgets and new policy decisions.

3.7 THE ICDS PROGRAMME

The Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) project was launched in 1975. It was soon expanded to cover a large number of blocks in the country. Today, more than five thousand blocks are covered by the ICDS programme.

The programme takes care of ante-natal care, pregnant women and lactating mothers, immunization, supplementary nutrition, awareness for women, pre-school child care and child development. It is a holistic and comprehensive child survival and child development scheme for improving the health, nutrition and learning opportunities for pre-school children and their mothers. All essential services are provided at the village level. It takes care of pregnant women, nursing mothers belonging to socially backward village areas of Scheduled Caste concentration, tribal and slum areas. It provides for supplementary nutrition, immunization, health check-ups, referral services, treatment of minor illness, nutrition and health education, pre-school education and convergence of support services like water supply and sanitation. It covers the children of the 0-6 years age group. The ICDS infrastructure is also used

for purposes of assisting adolescent girls of the 11-18 years age group. Attempts are made to meet their special needs of nutrition, health, education, literacy and skill development.

3.8 THE NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR WOMEN

The National Commission for Women was set up as statutory body in January 1992 under the National Commission for Women Act, 1990, to :

- review the Constitutional and Legal safeguards for women;
- recommend remedial legislative measures;
- facilitate redressal of grievances and
- advise the Government on all policy matters affecting women.

A Brief History

The Committee on the Status of Women in India (CSWI), had recommended nearly two decades ago, the setting up of a National Commission for Women to fulfill the surveillance functions to facilitate redressal of grievances and to accelerate the socio-economic development of women. Successive Committees / Commissions / Plans including the National Perspective Plan for Women (1988-2000) recommended the Constitution of an apex body for women. During 1990, the Central Government held consultations with NGOs, social workers and experts, regarding the structure, functions, powers etc. of the Commission proposed to be set up.

In May 1990, the Bill was introduced in the Lok Sabha.

In July 1990, the HRD Ministry organised a National Level Conference to elicit suggestions regarding the Bill. In August 1990, the Government moved several amendments and introduced new provisions to vest the Commission with the power of a civil court.

The Bill was passed and received assent of the President on 30th August 1990. The First Commission was constituted on 31st January 1992 with Mrs. Jayanti Patnaik as the Chairperson. The Second Commission was constituted on July 1995 with Dr.(Mrs.) Mohini Giri as the Chairperson. The Third Commission has been constituted and the Government has nominated Mrs. Vibha Parthasarathy as the Chairperson.

Mandate of the Commission is to be found in Section 10 of the National Commission for Women Act, 1990. As per the Section -

The Commission shall perform all or any of the following functions, namely:-
Investigate and examine all matters relating to the safeguards provided for women under the Constitution and other laws;

present to the Central Government, annually and at such other times as the Commission may deem fit, reports upon the working of those safeguards;

make in such reports, recommendations for the effective implementation of those safeguards for improving the condition of women by the Union or any State;

review, from time to time, the existing provisions of the Constitution and other laws affecting women and recommend amendments thereto so as to suggest remedial legislative measures to meet any lacunae, inadequacies or shortcomings in such legislation;

take up cases of violation of the provisions of the Constitution and of other laws relating to women with the appropriate authorities;

look into complaints and take *suo moto* notice of matters relating to :-

- deprivation of women's rights;
- non-implementation of laws enacted to provide protection to women and also to achieve the objective of equality and development;
- non-compliance of policy decisions, guidelines or instructions aimed at mitigating hardships and ensuring welfare and providing relief to women, and take up the issues arising out of such matters with appropriate authorities;
- call for special studies or investigations into specific problems or situations arising out of discrimination and atrocities against women and identify the constraints so as to recommend strategies for their removal;
- undertake promotional and educational research so as to suggest ways of ensuring due representation of women in all spheres and identify factors responsible for impeding their advancement, such as, lack of access to housing and basic services, inadequate support services and technologies for reducing drudgery and occupational health hazards and for increasing their productivity;
- participate and advice on the planning process of socio-economic development of women;
- evaluate the progress of the development of women under the Union and any State;
- inspect or cause to inspect a jail, remand home, women's institution or other place of custody where women are kept as prisoners or otherwise and take up with the concerned authorities for remedial action, if found necessary;
- fund litigation involving issues affecting a large body of women;
- make periodical reports to the Government on any matter pertaining to women and in particular, various difficulties under which women toil;

any other matter which may be referred to it by Central Government.

The Central Government shall cause all the reports referred to in clause (b) of sub-section (1) to be laid before each House of Parliament along with memorandum explaining the action taken or proposed to be taken on the recommendations relating to the Union and the reasons for the non-acceptance, if any, of any such recommendations.

Where any such report or any part thereof relates to any matter with which any State Government is concerned, the Commission shall forward a copy of such report or part to such State Government who shall cause it to be laid before the Legislature of the State along with a memorandum explaining the action taken or proposed to be taken on the recommendations relating to the State and the reasons for the non-acceptance, if any, of any such recommendations.

The Commission shall, while investigating any matter referred to in clause (a) or sub-clause (i) of clause (f) of sub-section (1), have all the powers of a civil court trying a suit and in particular, in respect of the following matters, namely :-

summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person from any part of India and examining him on oath;

requiring the discovery and production of any document;

receiving evidence on affidavits;

requisitioning any public record or copy thereof from any court or office;

issuing commissions for the examination of witnesses and documents; and

any other matter which may be prescribed.

The National Commission has, as of date, examined a variety of issues relating to women and brought out reports, apart from exhaustive recommendations it has made for legal reforms. It is also working on the Domestic Violence Bill aiming to curb violence against women in their homes.

3.9 ECO-FEMINISM

Environmental and ecological issues are today becoming more and more important not only in the developed industrial States but in the developing States as well. Environmental degradation is being greatly escalated by rapid technological advances. This, in turn, is posing a major risk to human well being. The harmony in the balance between human beings and the surrounding flora and fauna stands endangered today

as perhaps never before. Injudicious exploitation of natural resources to boost up developments in science and technology have already set the alarm bells ringing. Air and water pollution, deforestation, soil erosion, exhaustion of traditional sources of energy are some of the major problems which have been increasing at an alarming rate.

Like other countries, India too faces a wide array of environmental problems which affect the well being of its citizens. According to the Sixth Five Year Plan, environmental problems in India can be grouped into two categories (a) those arising from conditions of poverty and under-development; and (b) those arising as negative effects of the process of development. The first category relates to the impact on the health and integrity of our natural resources (land, soil, water, forest, wildlife etc) as a result of poverty and the inadequate availability to a vast section of the population, the means of fulfilling basic human needs. The second category has to do with the undesirable side effects of growth and development policies adopted. Although it is difficult to clearly delineate the causes and effects of environmental degradation, some of the major problems in India are linked to the questions of land, water, forestry and wildlife, pollution, and human settlements. Thus, it is clear that the demands for environmental conservation must be seen as an integral part of the total development efforts.

We should remember that, while in the ultimate analyses all human beings depend on the environment, even more than men, women are directly dependent on the environment for their sustenance and well being. Approximately, three fourth of Indian women directly depend on the environment for the meeting of their basic needs related to food, water, health, fuel and fodder. As such, women's empowerment is intimately connected to women's environmental rights.

A constant and growing pressure on the Government to take into account the women's interest in environmental issues come from a small but articulate Eco-feminist lobby. Eco-feminist sentiments first arose during the contemporaneous feminist and environmentalist movements of the 1970s. The term "eco-feminism" was coined by French feminist Françoise d'Eaubonne in 1974. Eco-feminists believe that there are interconnections between the oppression of women (sexism), the oppression of other human Others (racism, class-ism, ageism, colonialism, etc.) and the domination of nature (naturism).

In India, this sentiment was reflected in the environmental concerns in the famous *Chipko* ("tree hugging") movement devoted to forest preservation. Today, a major concern in the developing countries, including India, is environmental health, especially the prevalence of chemical endocrine disrupters (which affect human reproductive systems) in industrial wastes; and the as yet unknown side effects of

genetically altered food. Today, environmental movements undertaken by Vandana Shiva and others and the *Narmada Bachao Andolan* spearheaded by Medha Patkar have clear Eco-feminist thrusts.

Women's rights relating to the environment revolve around issues of :

- i) Women's rights to resources to meet basic needs of water, fuel and fodder.
- ii) Not being unduly burdened by the drudgery due to resource degradation.
- iii) Recognition as knowledge creators, knowledge carriers and knowledge users.
- iv) Women's rights to health and as health providers.

In the immediate post-independence years, development as it was being pursued led to large-scale displacement of women from productive activities. This happened because the expansion of development was in such a manner that the development projects appropriated and destroyed the natural resource base. Land, water and forests were removed from the management and control of women. There came about the ecological destruction of water, soil, environment, and vegetation systems. These were destroyed in such a manner that nature's productivity and renewability were impaired. In the prevailing economic biases against nature, women and indigenous people were the primary victims.

Gender oppression and patriarchy took on new and more violent forms through the project of development.

The demands are thus for environmental planning, protection, monitoring, assessment, research, education, conservation and sustainable use of resources. It is evident that even as environmental problems attributable to poverty and under-development can be tackled by more rapid development, the negative side effects of the process of development affecting the environment are often overlooked. Hence, it is increasingly realised that to make development sustainable, environmental and ecological imperatives need to be built into the total planning process right from the beginning.

In India, various legislations aimed at conservation of natural resources and prevention and control of environmental pollution have been passed. Important among such laws are the Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act of 1974, the Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act of 1981, and the Environment Protection Act, 1986. Thereafter, other efforts have been made by the Government for promoting such goals.

In 1980, a separate Department of Environment was set up and, subsequently, in 1985, an integrated Ministry of Environment and Forests was established at the Centre.

In the Union Ministry of Environment and Forests' June 1992 policy statement

outlined India's National Conservation Strategy on Environment and Development emphasising sustainable development as a key element in the Ministry's action plan. The task set before the Ministry was 'to ensure sustainable and equitable use of resources for meeting the basic needs of the present and future generations without causing damage to the environment'. Resting on the above policy statement, an integrated strategy was adopted by the Government for better protection of the environment. It aimed at strengthening the existing programmes of pollution control, ensuring better disposal of solid waste and hazardous substances, and conserving forests, bio-diversity and the rich eco-system.

Among the major steps taken by the Government for environmental protection have been the following :

- ◆ Setting up of the National Afforestation and Eco-Development Board (NAEB) to undertake a programme of natural regeneration in degraded forest lands in the country
- ◆ A National Wastelands Development Board was set up in 1985. Its primary aim was to reclaim wasteland through massive programme of afforestation with people's participation
- ◆ There is the National Policy for the Abatement of Pollution. It stresses on the utilisation of economic and policy instruments for introduction of pollution control measures. Environmentally critical and highly polluting industries have been identified for special monitoring and enforcement efforts.

Tying up environmental issues, the Government has drawn up an Environmental Action Programme (EAP). Its priority areas are as below :

- i) Conservation of bio-diversity including forests, marine life and mountain eco-systems.
- ii) Conservation of soil and moisture and ensuring that water sources do not get polluted.
- iii) Control of industrial pollution and waste.
- iv) Access to clean technologies.
- v) Tackling urban environmental issues.
- vi) Strengthening environmental education, training, awareness and resource management.
- vii) Alternative energy plan.

3.10 SUMMARY

In 1952, the United Nations adopted the Convention on the Political Rights of Women. Since 1975, four International Conferences on women were held under its auspices. All the conferences emphasised women's political empowerment as a key concern. The Fourth World Conference on Women was held at Beijing in 1995 followed by the Beijing + 5 in 2000. It was noted that, women's equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. Monitoring and evaluation of progress in women's representation, revamping of party structures to remove barriers to women's political participation, creation or strengthening of mechanisms for monitoring women's access to senior levels of decision-making are some of the steps focused on for empowerment of women. Increasingly, the demands for women's rights for empowerment have come to encompass women's environmental rights.

3.11 SAMPLE QUESTIONS

A. Long Answer Type Questions

- ⇒ Discuss the major schemes of the Government of India for improving the conditions of women.
- ⇒ Write an analytical note on the efforts undertaken by the Government of India for promoting the welfare of the child.
- ⇒ Explain how women's interests are linked to environmental issues.

B. Short Answer Type Questions

- ⇒ What is the mandate of the National Commission for Women?
- ⇒ Highlight the basic features of the ICDS Programme.
- ⇒ What is Eco-feminism?

C. Objective Questions

- ⇒ In which year was the Community Development Programme launched?
- ⇒ When was the National Commission for Women established in India?
- ⇒ When was the Beijing Conference held?
- ⇒ Is the Government of India a signatory to the Convention on the Rights of the Child?

D. Things You Can Do

Carefully read through the newspapers of a specific duration, say six months, and make a list of atrocities against women, which have taken place during the period. Note the nature of such atrocities and the causes for the same. Try to follow up the incidents and see what steps, if any, are taken by the Government of India under the circumstances.

3.12 FURTHER READINGS

1. Alfred De Souza ed., *Women in Contemporary India*, Delhi, Manohar Publications, 1980
2. Mumtaz Ali Khan, *Status of Rural Women in India*, New Delhi, Uppal Publishing House, 1982
3. Neil Webster, *Panchayati Raj and Decentralization of Development Planning in West Bengal*, K.P. Bagchi, Calcutta, 1992
4. Bhola Nath Ghosh, *Rural Women Leadership*, Mohit Publications, New Delhi, 2002
5. Susheela Kaushik, *Women in Panchayati Raj*, Har Anand Publications, New Delhi, 1993
6. *Toward Equality: Report of the Committee on the Status of Women*, Government of India, New Delhi, 1974.
7. *The National Perspective Plan for Women, : 1988-2000*, Report of the Core Group set up by the Department of Women and Child Development, Government of India, 1988.

UNIT 4 □ DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION AND SC/ST/OBCS

Objectives :

After having gone through this unit you should be able to :

- *List* the Constitutional provisions for the Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes
- *Give an overview* of the various measures taken for the uplift of the Scheduled Castes / Scheduled Tribes / Other Backward Classes in India
- *Describe* the functions of the Ministry of Tribal Affairs
- *Outline* the recommendations of the Second Backward Classes Commission
- *Highlight* the importance of the Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Constitutional Provisions
- 4.3 The Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment
- 4.4 The Ministry of Tribal Affairs
- 4.5 State And District Level Administration Of Tribal Welfare
- 4.6 Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes
- 4.7 Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes
- 4.8 Integrated Tribal Development Programme
- 4.9 An Assessment
- 4.10 The Other Backward Classes
- 4.11 Summary
- 4.12 Sample Questions
- 4.13 Further Readings

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Indian society is marked by caste stratification. Etymologically, the term 'caste' derives its origin from the Portuguese word '*casta*' which means 'breed' or 'race'. Originating probably as four varnas, i.e., the Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Sudras, today some 3000 groups claim caste status. At the lowest end of the caste hierarchy are the untouchable castes, referred to

variedly as the harijans, Scheduled Castes, and dalits.

Dating back to the Vedic past, waves of immigrants visiting the region at different times, seeking to make their homes in this part of the globe, stimulated the growth of socially complex inter-action patterns. A dominant centre, rallying around Hindu, Brahminical philosophy, systematically sought to reinforce its position, influencing, absorbing and manipulating the periphery, repeatedly demanding its docility. Varnashrama Dharma, the theory of Karma and the notion of transmigration of souls were the bedrock of its hierarchical ethos.

G.S. Ghurye had identified six outstanding features of caste-ruled Hindu society

1. Segmental division of society,
2. Hierarchy,
3. Restrictions on feeding and social intercourse,
4. Civil and religious disabilities and privileges of the different sections,
5. Lack of unrestricted choice of occupation,
6. Restrictions on marriage.

Central to caste ideology has been the notion of 'purity' and 'pollution' of the castes. The practice of untouchability has been an inevitable aspect of caste society.

Industrialisation and urbanisation, occupational mobility of sorts, the national movement, the parliamentary process, constitutional safeguards and popular movements have all contributed to the rising aspirations of the low castes.

From the early twentieth century, with independence round the corner, the relevance of caste in political discourse took on a new dimension. Dr Ambedkar's entry into the political scene was a landmark. Representing the untouchable castes in the constitutional exercises, Dr Ambedkar strongly argued for constitutional guarantees of the social, economic and political rights of the untouchables so as to empower them under the new constitutional system of India. Throughout his political life he emphasised the need of the use of the political weapon for safeguarding the interests of the untouchables. From him, the untouchables learnt the use of the political weapon. Whilst protest against caste and the caste system has an ancient history, early protests were largely religious, with social and economic dimensions. Largely due to the sustained efforts of Dr Ambedkar, several safeguards for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were incorporated in the final document of the Constitution.

4.2 CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS

A number of constitutional provisions exist for protection and promotion of the interests of these weaker sections. Though traditionally Indian society has been an essentially inegalitarian society marked by stark injustice, inequality, lack of liberty and fraternal feelings, the Preamble to the Constitution of India assures the people of India—justice, liberty, equality and fraternity. The Fundamental Rights enshrined in Part III of the Constitution (Articles 14-35) aim at creating and protecting individual

liberty and establishing a democratic way of life based on principles of justice and equality. But, then, unequals have to be first brought up to the level of equality with others and then treated as equals. As a member of the Constituent Assembly and Chairman of the Drafting Committee of the Constitution, Dr Ambedkar had repeatedly brought up this question. Persistently he fought for the incorporation of special rights for the depressed sections of the society in the Constitution. His efforts were successful to the extent that measures for compensatory discrimination were embodied in the Constitution to uplift among others, the untouchable castes. These castes, the members of which were identified for the benefits, have been listed in a 'Schedule', and on the basis of that, referred to as the 'Scheduled Castes'. On the question of identification of the castes to be listed in the 'Schedule', the Constitution-makers adopted a position similar to that of the British Indian Government. Without going into any connotative definition of untouchability as such, they compiled lists of the 'untouchable castes' of each area. The legality of this rested upon Article 341(1) of the Constitution of India, whereby the President is empowered to specify, in consultation with the Governor of a State, those "castes, races or tribes which shall for purposes of this Constitution be deemed to be Scheduled Castes in relation to that State.....". In 1950, the President promulgated a Scheduled Castes Order, almost along the same lines as the 1936 Order. For members of the Scheduled Castes, the Constitution authorises various special facilities. Article 15(4), a Fundamental Rights clause, ensures that measures for the advancement of the Scheduled Castes are exempted from the general ban against discrimination provided for in Article 15(1). The legal base for 'reservation' of jobs was provided for in Article 16(4) as well as in Article 335 of the Constitution. Representation for the Scheduled Castes at both the Central and State level legislatures were sought to be guaranteed through reservations of seats in the Lok Sabha and the Legislative Assemblies.

The Directive Principles of State Policy, enshrined in Part IV of the Constitution speak of the objectives of a welfare state. The articles encompass a wide range of State activities including economic, social and other areas. The efforts of the State to translate the non-justiciable Directives into reality is largely reflected in the Five Year Plans.

In conformity with the Directive Principles of State Policy, social justice has been an avowed goal of development. During the several decades of planning, a variety of programmes have been launched with the objective of improving the socio-economic condition of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. An elaborate legal network of providing special assistance to members of the Scheduled Castes has come into existence over the years. The provisions extend from educational facilities and job reservations in Government and public undertakings to financial assistance under

various heads for their benefit.

These measures have, no doubt, yielded results but not commensurate with the efforts or the needs of the target groups.

4.3 THE MINISTRY OF SOCIAL JUSTICE AND EMPOWERMENT

The Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment undertakes programmes aimed at ensuring social justice to and empowerment of the disadvantaged and marginalised sections of society including the Scheduled Castes, minorities and Backward Classes. The ministry is also entrusted with the constitutional obligation of ensuring effective implementation of laws passed for the protection of these groups. The areas covered by the ministry are also areas where a major role is played by the State Governments.

An important activity of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment is the development of the Other Backward Classes. For the development and welfare of Backward Classes five new schemes were launched by the Ministry in 1998-99. These are :

- Pre-examination coaching for OBCs
- Pre-matric scholarship for OBCs
- Post-matric scholarships for OBCs
- Hostels for OBC boys and girls
- Aid to Voluntary Organisations for welfare of OBCs

For the socio-economic development of the Backward Classes, the National Backward Classes Finance and Development Corporation has been established. Its task is to provide concessional finance to members of the OBCs.

A specific sector of Backward Classes was included from the First Plan to cater to the special needs of the Scheduled Castes / Scheduled Tribes / Other Backward Classes. It was visualised that the general development programmes should be so designed as to take care of the needs of Backward Classes as well and the special provisions in the Backward Classes Sector would be additive, to be used, as far as possible, for meeting the special developmental needs of these groups. Unfortunately, this expectation was belied in most cases and the Backward Classes Sector provisions, instead of supplementing the general sectors of development, tended to supplant the general sector provisions. It was, in this context, that the concept of Tribal Sub-Plan and Special Component Plan for Scheduled Castes were introduced during the Sixth Plan to facilitate monitoring of development programmes for the benefit of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

In the Seventh Plan, Special Component Plans for Scheduled Castes, Tribal Sub-Plans for Scheduled Tribes and specific schemes for the welfare and development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were implemented. At the end of the Plan, the Tribal Sub-Plan strategy was being implemented through 191 Integrated Tribal Development Projects, 268 pockets of tribal concentration (Modified Area Development Approach—MADA), 74 clusters and 74 primitive tribal group projects. There was substantial increase in the flow of funds for the development of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, resulting in expansion of infrastructural facilities and enlargement of coverage. There was, however, limited involvement of Scheduled Castes / Scheduled Tribes in the formulation and execution of the programmes. This often resulted in non-adaptability of schemes/policies to cater to their specific needs.

Emphasis was laid in the Seventh Plan on the educational development of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Pre-matric stipends and scholarships were given by the State Governments to 190 lakhs Scheduled Caste / Scheduled Tribe / Other Backward Class students. Other educational incentives included free supply of uniform, stationery and textbooks to about 100 lakh students. Post-matric scholarships were given to about 15 lakh Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students in 1991-92 as against 9.75 lakh scholarships in 1985-86 and only 1.56 lakh scholarships in 1968-69. These scholarships were given for study of post-matriculation/post-secondary courses of study in arts, science, commerce, as well as professional and technical degree/diploma and certificate courses on the basis of a graded means test. For Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students studying in medical and engineering colleges, a scheme of book banks was started in 1978-79 which benefited about 21,000 students in 1990-91. Hostel facilities for Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students were considerably expanded.

During the Ninth Plan period, the scheme of post matric scholarships benefited some 15 lakh Scheduled Caste students. The scheme of hostel facilities benefited 25,196 Scheduled Caste girls and 17,244 Scheduled Caste boys through the setting up of 354 girls' hostels and 388 boys' hostels respectively. During 2002-2003 (upto November 30, 2002), Rupees 1.84 crores was released for 2.03 lakh (anticipated) beneficiaries under the Centrally Sponsored Scheme of Pre-Matric Scholarship to the children of those engaged in unclean occupations. Rs 75.33 crores was released under the Centrally Sponsored Scheme of Post-Matric Scholarship to the anticipated number of 12.88 lakh (expected) Scheduled Caste students. Rs. 1.85 crore was released for Book Banks for 333 Scheduled Caste students. Rs. 0.62 crore for upgradation of merit of Scheduled Caste students and Rs. 1.86 crores for Coaching and Allied activities.

The professed focus of the Tenth Plan is on equitable distribution and growth with social justice, through a three pronged strategy, i.e. social empowerment, through the

removal of persisting inequalities, disparities and other problems, besides easy access to basic minimum services; economic empowerment, through promotion of employment-cum-income generation activities; and social justice through the elimination of all types of discrimination with the strength of legislative support, affirmative action, awareness generation and requisite change in the mind-set of people.

For the economic development of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, two national level institutions have been set up: (i) Tribal Co-operative Marketing Development Federation in 1987 as an apex body for State Tribal Development Co-operative Corporations; and (ii) National Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Finance and Development Corporation, primarily to act as a catalytic agent in developing schemes for employment generation and financing pilot projects. The Scheduled Caste and the Scheduled Tribe Development Corporations in the States continued to provide economic assistance for self-employment projects. Economic assistance was given to 118.82 lakh Scheduled Caste families and 52.76 lakh Scheduled Tribe families under various programmes including IRDP. Margin money loan was disbursed to 22.56 lakh Scheduled Caste families through 21 State Scheduled Caste Development Corporations.

Special consideration is accorded to Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe families in the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), the most important poverty alleviation programme in the country. The target of coverage of Scheduled Caste/Tribe beneficiaries in the Seventh Plan was 30 per cent of the total number of beneficiaries. However, the actual coverage was 32.05 per cent in the case of Scheduled Castes and 13.04 per cent in the case of Scheduled Tribe beneficiaries. A target of 50 per cent has been fixed for Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe beneficiaries with effect from April 1990. Since 1990-91, Scheduled Caste beneficiaries are being treated at par with Scheduled Tribe beneficiaries for subsidy purposes, both getting 50 per cent subsidy subject upto a ceiling of Rs.5000. Prior to 1990-91, the subsidy admissible to Scheduled Caste families was only 33 1/3 per cent. In the wage employment programme of *Jawahar Rozgar Yojana*, preference is given to Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and freed bonded labourers. It has also been provided that at the village panchayat level, 15 per cent of the annual allocation must be spent on items of work which directly benefit the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes. Diversion of funds meant for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is not permitted.

To enhance the competitive ability of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students, about 8,000 seats were created in 101 pre-examination training centres where coaching was given to candidates appearing in competitive examinations for entry into public services. The Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe candidates have been able to increase their representation in Central Government Services and Public Sector

Undertakings over the years, as seen from the Table 1, due mainly to implementation of reservation policy coupled with educational and coaching facilities.

For elimination of scavenging, about 10 lakh service latrines in 490 towns in 19 States were taken up for conversion into pour flush latrines. Reports indicate that by the end of the Seventh Plan, 9.63 lakh dry latrines were converted, 14,529 scavengers rehabilitated and scavenging was eliminated from 40 towns. Under the National Scheme for Liberation and Rehabilitation of Scavengers, Rs. 661.99 crore was released for assisting 1,46,840 scavengers for training and 3,84,117 scavengers for rehabilitation upto 2000-2001. Under the National Scheme of Liberation and Rehabilitation of Scavengers and their Dependents (NSLRS), Co-operatives of Scavengers called Sanitary Marts have started functioning in Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat and Tamil Nadu. Sanitary Marts enable the scavengers to take up alternate jobs and thus help in integrating them into the main stream of the society. National Safai Karamcharis Finance & Development Corporation (NSKFDC) has been sanctioning loans for setting up sanitary marts in States and Union territories.

4.4 THE MINISTRY OF TRIBAL AFFAIRS

The Scheduled Tribes comprise over 8% of India's total population. With the exception of Africa, the tribal concentration in India is the largest in terms of the world's non-tribal States. It would be wrong to think that India's tribal population forms a homogeneous group. On the contrary, it can be variedly classified in terms of racial stock, place of residence, language, economic position, degree of integration with non-tribals and their overall cultural patterns and customs. From the days of British rule in India, the story of the tribal's life has been the story of increasing woes and dwindling rights and privileges.

In independent India, Government policy in relation to the tribes is professed to be guided by the Five-Point Formula enunciated by Jawaharlal Nehru. The principles incorporated therein are as follows :

- i) tribal people should develop along the lines of their own genius;
- ii) tribal rights in lands and forests should be protected;
- iii) we should train and build up a team of their own people to participate in the work of administration and development;
- iv) over-administration of tribal areas should be avoided;
- v) results should be judged not by statistics but by the quality of human life.

The Ministry of Tribal Affairs was set up in October, 1999 by bifurcation of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment. The objective was to give more focused,

co-ordinated and planned attention to integrated socio-economic development of the most under privileged section of Indian society, the Scheduled Tribes (STs). During the period prior to the formation of the Ministry of Tribal Affairs, matters concerning tribal welfare and development were dealt with at Government of India level by the following Ministries, at different point of time :

- (i) As a Division of the Ministry of Home Affairs known as Tribal Division since after independence upto September 1985.
- (ii) Ministry of Welfare : From September 1985 to May 1998.
- (iii) Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment from May 1998 to September 1999.

The Ministry of Tribal Affairs took over the schemes/programmes earlier being dealt with by the erstwhile Tribal Division of the Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment. The schemes for tribal welfare and development which were thus transferred to this Ministry related to :

- (i) Post-Matric Scholarship.
- (ii) Coaching a Allied Scheme
- (iii) Book Bank Scheme
- (iv) Up-gradation of merit Scheme; and
- (v) National Overseas Scholarships

The process of the setting up of a National Level Tribal Development & Finance Corporation by bifurcation of the National Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Finance and Development Corporation (NSFDC) of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment was undertaken, making it possible for the new corporation to commence its concentrated operation on economic development of Scheduled Tribes from April 2001.

Mandate Of The Ministry

The following is the mandate of the Ministry of Tribal Affairs :

- (i) Tribal welfare-planning, policy formulation, research and training.
- (ii) Tribal development, including scholarships to STs
- (iii) Promotion of voluntary efforts in development of STs
- (iv) Administration with respect to matters concerning:
Scheduled Areas;
Autonomous districts of Assam, excluding roads and bridge works and ferries thereon;

Regulations framed by Governors of State for Scheduled Areas and for Tribal Areas specified in part of a Table appended to paragraph 20 of the Sixth Schedule to the Constitution;

National Commission for Scheduled Castes & Scheduled Tribes in so far as they relate to STs; and

Issue of directions regarding the drawing up and execution of schemes essential for the welfare of Scheduled Tribes.

The Ministry of Tribal Affairs is the nodal Ministry for overall policy, planning and co-ordination of programmes for the development of the Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Areas (Vth and VIth Schedules), scheduling and de-scheduling of tribes, as also the promotion of voluntary efforts in tribal development.

Constitutional Guarantees :

For the protection, socio-economic and political development of the Scheduled Tribes, the Constitution of India guarantees:

(i) Social :

Equality before Law (Article 14)

The State to make special provisions for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens or for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes [Article 15(4)]

Equality of opportunity for all citizens in matters relating to employment or appointment to any office under the State (Article 16)

The State to make provisions in matters of promotion to any class or classes of posts in the services in favour of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes (Article 16[4A]).

A National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to investigate, monitor and evaluate all matters relating to the constitutional safeguards provided for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes (Article 338).

Appointment of a Commission to report on the administration of the Scheduled Areas and the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes in the States (Article 339).

Appointment of a Commission to investigate the conditions of socially and educationally backward classes and the difficulties under which they labour and to make recommendations to remove such difficulties and to improve their conditions (Article-340).

To specify the Tribes or Tribal communities to be Scheduled Tribes (Article 342)

(ii) Economic :

The State to promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation (Article 46)

Grant-in-aid from the Consolidated Fund of India each year for promoting the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes and administration of Scheduled Areas [Article 275(1)]

The claims of the members of the Scheduled Tribes in the appointments to services and posts in connection with the affairs of the Union or of a State to be taken into consideration consistent with the maintenance of efficiency of administration [Article 335]

(iii) Political :

Through the Fifth Schedule, the administration and control of Scheduled Areas and the Scheduled Tribes in any State, other than the States of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram by ensuring submission of Annual Report by the Governors to the President of India regarding the administration of the Scheduled Areas and setting up of a Tribal Advisory Council to advise on such matters pertaining to the welfare and advancement of the Scheduled Tribes [Article 244 (1)]

Special provisions through the Sixth Schedule for the administration of Tribal Areas in the States of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram by designating certain tribal areas as Autonomous Districts and Autonomous Regions and also by constituting District Councils, Autonomous Councils and Regional Councils [Article 244(2)]

Reservation of seats for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in the House of the People [Article 330]. Reservation of seats for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in the Legislative Assemblies of the States [Article 332]

Reservation of seats for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in every Panchayat [Article 243D]

Extension of the 73rd and 74th Amendments of the Constitution to the Scheduled Areas through the Panchayats [Extension to the Scheduled Areas] Act. 1996 to ensure effective participation of the tribals in the process of planning and decision making

Recent Initiatives Of The Ministry

Initiatives taken by the Ministry of Tribal Affairs for tribal welfare and development include :

- (i) Direction to States for adoption of Maharashtra pattern of planning and devolution of funds earmarked for Tribal Sub-Plan (TSP) areas. In

Maharashtra, the funds earmarked for TSP are placed with Tribal Development Department of State Government which releases funds to different line departments for execution of developmental works under TSP. This process ensures better utilization of TSP funds for tribal areas.

- (ii) Introduction of a new central sector scheme exclusively for development of the most under developed group among the tribals, the Primitive Tribal Groups.
- (iii) Promotion of more, Non-Governmental Organisations [NGOs] in the field of tribal development.
- (iv) Enforcement of strict monitoring mechanism for performance of NGOs through the officers of the Ministry and also by involvement of State Government machinery to identify the non-performing NGOs and weeding them out.
- (v) Identifying Non-Governmental Organisations which have an all India character and are known for their selfless service. Such identified NGOs are known as Established Voluntary Agencies [EVA].
- (vi) Setting up of a National Institute for Research & Training in Tribal Affairs [NITA] as an apex body of State level Tribal Research Institutes.
- (vii) Revision of schemes raising the cost heads to realistic and workable limits.
- (viii) Enlistment of more work programmes/activities mostly on income generation & skill development to the list of projects for Grants-in-aid to NGOs and also making provisions for cent per cent project cost as grants in most deserving cases.
- (ix) Enhancement of rates of fellowships, scholarships and grants for supporting projects, seminars and publications.

On the whole, it may be noted that the tribal development initiatives focus on areas such as income generation, infra-structure development in tribal areas, educational development, employment-oriented training, ensuring fair price and food security, promoting voluntary efforts, development of primitive tribal groups, support to Tribal Development and Finance Corporations at the National and State levels and research.

The approach for the Tenth Plan (2002-2007) and the Annual Plan (2002-2003), being the first year of the Tenth Plan, was stated to be 'to resolve the unresolved issues' and 'solve the persisting problems'. The strategy adopted for the Annual Plan of 2002-2003 included :

- (i) Protecting the tribals from land alienation and the related problems of indebtedness and exploitation;
- (ii) Expediting the final pronouncement of the 'National Policy for Rehabilitation of the Displaced Persons' with a special focus on the displaced tribals;
- (iii) Promote tribal participation in forest-centred activities and thereby stimulate the tribal economy without alienating tribals from the forest;
- (iv) For protecting the precarious Primitive Tribal Groups, the ongoing schemes would be further expanded with effective involvement of voluntary organisations;
- (v) Ensure tribal participation in the development process by democratising the decision making process by strengthening the grass-root democratic institutions.

4.5 STATE AND DISTRICT LEVEL ADMINISTRATION OF TRIBAL WELFARE

The State level organisations to administer tribal welfare generally comprise of a Minister for tribal welfare/social welfare/a secretariat and a directorate of tribal welfare/social welfare. Besides, States having a large concentration of tribal population are constitutionally obliged to have a Minister of Tribal Welfare.

The district level is meant to play an important role in relation to tribal welfare programmes. Whilst the directorate dealing with tribal welfare programmes functions largely as a co-ordinating body, funds earmarked for various programmes for tribal welfare are transferred to technical departments which are responsible for executing them at the district and block levels.

4.6 COMMISSIONER FOR SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

Article 338 of the Indian Constitution provides for the appointment of a special officer for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. He is to be appointed by the President. The special officer's duty would be to investigate matters relating to the constitutional safeguards for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and report to the President on the working of those safeguards at such intervals as directed by the President. The President would then cause such report to be placed before each House of Parliament.

As per such constitutional stipulation, from time to time, a special officer

designated as the Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Tribes was appointed. The tasks of the Commissioner include :

- (i) evaluating the progress of the welfare schemes undertaken by State Governments and non-official organisations with grants in aid from the Government of India
- (ii) to give advice on schemes received for grants in aid from the State Government and non-official agencies for the amelioration of the conditions of the Backward Classes
- (iii) to serve as a nominee of the Central Government on the managing committees of the non-official organisations receiving grants direct from the centre
- (iv) to examine the accounts of the non-official organisations receiving grants direct from the centre. The Commissioner is assisted by a number of Assistant Commissioners appointed for different regions

Although the Constitution empowers the special officer to investigate only matters relating to the safeguards provided in the Constitution, over the years the office of the Commissioner has assumed the role of an executive agency by associating with the examination of the schemes for grants in aid under various State Governments and non-official agencies for the development of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The first Special Officer, designated as the Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, was appointed on 18-11-1950. For support at local levels, the Commissioner was provided with seventeen regional offices. These field offices were headed by Assistant Commissioners for SC & ST who were re-designated as Deputy Commissioners in July 1965. These offices conducted field studies and undertook follow up action in the matter: with the Governments of States/Union Territories under their jurisdiction.

4.7 COMMISSION FOR SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES

In 1967, a new organisation, namely, Directorate General of Backward Classes Welfare was set up in the then Department of Social Welfare under the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare. The above seventeen field offices of the Commissioner's office were re-organised into five Zonal Offices in June 1967, and placed under the control of the newly created Director General of Backward Classes Welfare (DGBCW). Each Zonal Office was headed by a Zonal Director, and the erstwhile Regional Deputy Commissioner for SC & ST were re-designated as Deputy Directors B.C.W. and placed

under the control of the Zonal Directors posted at Chandigarh (Northern Zone), Bhopal (Central Zone), Patna (Eastern Zone), Baroda (Western Zone) and Madras (Southern Zone). The Eastern Zone office had two branches at Bhubaneswar and Shillong. Later, a branch office of the Central Zone was set up at Lucknow, and in 1969 the Western Zone office was shifted to Ahmedabad. This arrangement continued till November, 1978. During this period, these offices maintained liaison between the ministry of Education and Social Welfare and the State Governments and UT Administrations in the matter of SC & ST.

In view of the magnitude of the problem of the welfare of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, in addition to the Special Officer, a Commission was set up in 1978 comprising of a Chairman and not more than four members including the special officer appointed under Article 338 of the Constitution. The term of the Commission was fixed at three years.

As evident from the Government of India's resolution dated 21-7-1978, setting up the Commission for Scheduled Castes & Scheduled Tribes, its functions broadly corresponded with the functions entrusted to the then Special Officer. With effect from 1-12-1978 the above field offices of D.G.B.C.W. were transferred to the newly established Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was given constitutional status after the amendment of Article 338 of the Constitution of India by the Constitution (Sixty-fifth Amendment) Act, 1990.

The officers of Zonal Directors B.C.W. and Deputy Directors B.C.W. under the D.G.B.C.W. were re-designated as Directors for SC and ST and Deputy Directors for SC and ST respectively. The Zonal set up was abolished by the Commission and 17 field offices having independent jurisdiction were set up. Since these field offices were also working for the then Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the offices of Director for SC & ST were re-designated as offices of Director for SC & ST and ex-officio Deputy Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. To demarcate the functions of the Commission with that of the Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was renamed in September, 1987 as National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The duties of the National Commission included research studies while functions and responsibility under Article 338 remained with the Special Officer. These seventeen field offices were transferred to the National Commission so constituted along with liability to serve the Special Officer also with, however, priority for research studies relating to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. After the commission became a Constitutional body the field offices came under the direct control of the Commission.

4.8 INTEGRATED TRIBAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

One of the target group specific development programmes is the Integrated Tribal Development Programme. The objective of the Programme is to put together the different components of development in a semi-masterplan fashion to be implemented in a co-ordinated manner.

The Tribal Sub-Plan was formulated in the context of welfare and development of ST and the strategy was adopted during the Sixth Five Year Plan. The Plan basically aimed at not only the economic development of Scheduled Tribes, but also their protection from various kinds of exploitation.

At present, the Tribal Sub-Plan is being implemented in 18 States and two Union Territories, viz., Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Orissa, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Andaman & Nicobar Islands and Daman and Diu. Keeping in view the fact that the STs are by and large concentrated in pockets, the strategy of the TSP was implementing the plan by identifying such pockets of tribal concentrations. Presently, 194 Integrated Tribal Development Projects (ITDPs) have been launched and each of these has a contiguous geographical area of a Block or *Tahsil* where more than half of the population belong to the Scheduled Tribes. In addition to this, 250 Modified Area Development Approach (MADA) pockets have been selected in the country in which population in a contiguous area is at least 10,000 and 50% of them are tribals. One of the positive gains since the adoption of the TSP strategy has been that it has ensured separate financial outlays for utilization of schemes and programmes which exclusively benefit the ST. The earmarking of funds has also contributed significantly to increasing the size of the Plan in terms of financial resources. The achievements can be appreciated from the fact that while during the Fifth Plan period the size of the TSP of the States implementing them was Rs. 759.33 crores accounting for only 4.29% of the total State Plan, it increased to Rs.3019.74 crores in 1992-93 (about four fold) and represents 12.27% of the total State Plan size. At the end of the Seventh Plan there were 191 ITDPs in the various States.

4.9 AN ASSESSMENT

While there has been a reduction in the percentage of population below the poverty line in the case of both Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, major problems persist.

- The incidence of poverty is still very high.

- Most of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe families do not own land or other productive assets.
- They constitute bulk of agricultural landless workers, construction workers and workers in the unorganised sector.
- They suffer from long periods of unemployment and under-employment.
- They are also handicapped due to non-enforcement of protective laws such as the Minimum Wages Act and Prevention of Land Alienation Acts.
- Inequality and exploitation of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, particularly in the rural areas, whether in the form of bonded labour or in other forms, both latent and manifest, still continue.
- Poverty, ignorance, lack of options in employment opportunities and non-existence of organisations which can fight for their rights, facilitate the continuance of age-old exploitation.
- Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe families have often not been able to derive the full benefit of development programmes.
- Wrong identification of beneficiaries, poor selection of projects, unrealistic and simplistic assumptions in regard to their viability, administrative costs, and leakages have been other problems which have been further compounded by a largely unresponsive administrative structure.
- The resource base of the tribal people has been dwindling because of loss of land, restriction on access to forest produce.
- There are lack of opportunities for reasonable wage employment.
- Usurious money lending continues to hardships to tribal people.
- Developmental inputs for the benefit of these people have had limited impact. Significantly, development processes have interfered in many cases with traditional tribal institutional structure and ethos and have produced negative results. These were contributory factors for dissatisfaction amongst tribal people and caused simmering unrest in several tribal areas.
- The literacy rate amongst Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes has no doubt increased over the years but the levels are still very low. The gap in literacy between Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and the rest of the population has been increasing.

4.10 THE OTHER BACKWARD CLASSES

The Constitution-makers had reckoned with the possible existence of socially and

educationally Backward Classes, other than the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. As such, they had felt the need for providing and the need to provide special assistance to such sections of the population. So, Article 340 of the Constitution, was incorporated. It reads as follows :

"340(1). The President may by order appoint a commission consisting of such persons as he thinks fit to investigate the conditions of socially and educationally backward classes within the territory of India and the difficulties under which they labour and to make recommendations as to the steps that should be taken by the union or any state to remove such difficulties and to improve their condition and as to the grants that should be made for the purpose by the union or any state and the conditions subject to which such grants should be made, and the order appointing such commission shall define the procedure to be followed by the commission.

340(2). A commission so appointed shall investigate the matter referred to them and present to the President a report setting out the facts as found by them and making such recommendation as think proper.

340(3). The President shall cause a copy of the Report so presented together with a memorandum explaining the action taken thereon to be laid before the House of Parliament."

The First Backward Classes Commission

As per provisions of this Article, the First Backward Classes Commission was appointed in 1953. Kaka Kalelkar was its Chairman. Because of this, the Commission is often referred to as the Kaka Kalelkar Commission. Apart from the Chairman, the Commission had ten other members. The Commission submitted its Report in 1955.

The Commission recommended the relating of social backwardness of a class to its low position in the traditional caste hierarchy of the Hindu society, as it felt that it was not only correct but inevitable to interpret its terms of reference, "as mainly relating to social hierarchy based on caste".

The recommendations made by the Commission included a vast array of measures for the economic, social, cultural and political development of the groups designated as 'backward'. The recommendations included matters relating to redistribution of land, protection of tenants, help to small agriculturists in the form of credit, price support and irrigation facilities. These apart, reservation facilities for the Backward Classes in Government services was proposed along the following lines - 25% in class I, 33% in class II, 40% in each of classes III and IV. Various measures for their educational uplift were also suggested and reservation of 70% was recommended in the medical, scientific and technical colleges.

The Government, however, did not implement the recommendations of the Commission as it was unwilling to accept caste as the basis of backwardness.

Second Backward Classes Commission

Years later, with the coming to power of the Janata Party Government at the Centre, the Second Backward Classes Commission was set up in 1978. It was headed by B.P.Mandal, a former M.P. It was a five-member Commission. It submitted its Report in 1980.

Popularly known as the Mandal Commission, it evolved eleven indicators or criteria for determining backwardness. These indicators were grouped into three broad heads (I) social, (II) educational and (iii) economic.

The indicators were as follows :

"A. Social.

- (i) Castes/classes considered as socially backward by others.
- (ii) Castes/classes which mainly depend on manual labour for their livelihood.
- (iii) Castes/classes where at least 25% females and 10% males above the state average get married at an age below 17 years in rural areas and at least 10% females and 5% males do so in urban areas.
- (iv) Castes/classes where participation of females in work is at least 25% above the state averages.

B. Educational.

- (v) Castes/classes where the number of children in the age group of 5-15 years who never attended school is at least 25% above state average.
- (vi) Castes/classes where the rate of student drop out in the age group of 5-15 years is at least 25% above the state average.
- (vii) Castes/classes among whom the proportion of matriculates is at least 25% below the state average.

C. Economic

- (viii) Castes/classes where the average value of family assets is 25% below the state average.
- (ix) Castes/classes where the number of families living in *kuchha* houses is at least 25% above the state average.
- (x) Castes/classes where the source of drinking water is beyond half a kilometer for more than 50% of the households.
- (xi) Castes/classes where the number of households having taken consumption loan is at least 25% above the state average."

(Report of the Backward Classes Commission, 1980, Part 1, p. 52)

In the assessment of the Commission, the Other Backward Classes (OBCs) comprised nearly fifty two per cent of the total population of the country. Following extensive investigations, the Commission found that in the Central Government services OBC representation was even poorer than that of the SCs or STs.

For the uplift of the conditions of the OBCs, the Mandal Commission recommended a whole package of programmes. They included educational concessions, reservation facilities and financial assistance. The quantum of reservations for the OBCs in the Government services and the educational institutions was to be fixed at 27%. The percentage was fixed at 27, keeping in view, the legal obligation as set forth in the Balaji Vs State of Mysore Case (1963) to keep the total of reservations below 50%. The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were already enjoying a total of 22.5% reservations. Adding the proposed 27% for the OBCs would bring the total to 49.5%, thus keeping it below 50%. Other recommendations of the Commission included, *inter alia*, the arrangement of institutional finance and technical assistance for village artisans, setting up of Backward Classes Development Corporations at both the Central and State levels to implement various socio-educational and economic measures for their advancement, creation of a separate ministry / department for the OBCs at the Centre and the States.

For ten years the Report was not acted upon. Thereafter, in 1990, the Government announced its decision to partially implement the Mandal Report.

Reactions against the decision were sharp and several lines of criticism came into focus. They were largely along the following lines :

- (i) The Government decision was abrupt and was aimed at implementing an otherwise outdated report; a report which was presented some ten years ago.
- (ii) Caste was given excessive importance in the report. The Mandal Commission, instead of selecting a secular basis of reservation, chose unfortunately a communal basis.
- (iii) The importance of the economic component of backwardness was under-estimated in the course of preparation of the Report. Top priority should have been attached to the economic factor.
- (iv) Reservation on caste lines is likely to further embitter caste relations. Thus, instead of striving to reduce caste differences, the Report reinforced caste differences. As it is, reservation for Scheduled Castes and Tribes existed and that was bad enough, the Mandal Report worsened the situation.
- (v) Merit is sacrificed at the alter of caste based reservations. Because of reservations,

the more meritorious are barred from posts which they could otherwise have occupied.

- (vi) The Government decision to implement the Mandal Report was essentially a political decision; the concern was not primarily social justice.

On close examination, however, it could be found that, some very strong counter arguments were also being heard of. Some of the more important counter-arguments were as follows :

- (i) For some forty years prior to the decision relating to partial implementation of the Mandal Report, the promise for extending social justice to the Backward Classes was held out. It was a constitutional obligation. In 1953, the First Backward Classes Commission had been appointed, but its Report had not been acted upon. Years later, the Second Commission was appointed. It had submitted its Report in 1980. But that Report was shelved for ten years. Hence, instead of being an abrupt decision, it was a long over-due and long-awaited decision.
- (ii) It is not surprising that caste has been considered as the basis for determining backwardness. An understanding of the Indian social structure inevitably brings the caste factor into focus. Rightly it was observed that 'castes are the building bricks of Hindu social structure'. The Kaka Kalelkar Commission had not been able to discount the importance of the caste basis of backwardness. The Government disapproved of it, but apart from expressing disapproval, it could do little by way of evolving an alternative. After years of dilly-dallying, the Second Backward Classes Commission was set up and it too had to adopt caste as the basis of determining backwardness. It was in keeping with the logic of the situation.
- (iii) The argument that the Mandal Commission Report did not give due weightage to the economic factor is wrong and is based on ignorance of the methodology of the Commission's work. Apart from the four economic indicators used for determining backwardness, those classified as 'social' or 'educational' had clear economic components.
- (iv) It has been argued that the Mandal Report has further embittered caste relations. This is partly true; at least so far as relations between the forward castes on the one hand and the Scheduled and Backward Castes on the other hand are concerned. But, then, that was perhaps unavoidable. Whenever vested interests are threatened, there is an inevitable backlash.
- (v) That merit is a major casualty of OBC reservations is not corroborated by facts. Apart from reservations for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, reservations for Backward Classes have been there for decades now in quite a few states.

especially in the south. These have not been reported to have caused more inefficiency in the public services in the southern States than in the north.

- (vi) Electoral politics might have been a major factor behind the Government's Mandal decision. But then, which Government decision is ever taken without an eye on the electoral count?

4.11 SUMMARY

Much of India's social peculiarities, dating back to the Vedic past, rest on the concept of *varnashrama dharma* -the bedrock of the caste system of social stratification.

The caste system led to the designation of certain groups as untouchables and outcastes, and used this to deny them access to land, water, education, and, in fact, basic human rights, and forced them to perform menial jobs at minimal and exploitative terms of remuneration.

On the eve of independence and with the rise of democratic aspirations amongst the people, pressures for social justice mounted. It became evident that suitable development policies would have to reckon with the needs of the marginalised segments of society, taking note of their particular vulnerabilities. The tone was set by the Constitution. Provisions for having a constitutionally recognised Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was just as significant as the appointment of a Backward Classes Commission to investigate the conditions of the Backward Classes and recommend steps for their betterment.

Revolving around the constitutional provisions, measures were taken both in terms of introducing a variety of schemes for the betterment of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes, and also the setting up of suitable organisational structures for the formulation and implementation of the schemes.

4.12 SAMPLE QUESTIONS

A. Long Answer Type Questions

- ⇒ Discuss the role played by the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment for improvement of the conditions of the depressed sections of the population.
- ⇒ What are the major Government schemes for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes?

B. Short Answer Type Questions

- ⇒ What were the indicators adopted by the Mandal Commission for identifying backwardness?

⇒ What were the arguments levelled against reservations for OBCs?

C. Objective Questions

⇒ Who was the Chairperson of the Second Backward Classes Commission in India?

⇒ Which article of the Indian Constitution provides for the appointment of a special officer for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes?

D. Things You Can Do

Read through the Constitution of India and note down the constitutional provisions for the benefits of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Also, prepare a chart to highlight the different schemes undertaken by the Government for the welfare of the SC/STs.

4.13 FURTHER READINGS

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2. *Report of the Backward Classes Commission*, Government of India, New Delhi, 1980. Vols. I and II
3. *The Constitution of India*, Government of India, New Delhi, latest available edition.
4. Rajni Kothari, *Politics in India*, Orient Longman, New Delhi, 1970
5. *In Defence of Mandal Commission: A Collection of Articles, Views and News*, Legal Education and Aid Society, Madras, undated.

UNIT 5 □ COMMUNITY AND PEOPLE'S PARTICIPATION

Objectives :

After having gone through this unit you should be able to :

- *Explain* the benefits of community and people's participation for promoting development
- *List* the different available methods for mobilising popular participation
- *Explain* the importance of Panchayat bodies in this respect
- *Tell us how* the voluntary organisations can supplement the Government's efforts at promoting development
- *Point out* the hindrances to people's participation

Structure

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Grass-root Participation through *Panchayati Raj*

5.3 Balwant Rai Mehta Committee

5.4 Ashok Mehta Committee

5.5 Other Committees

5.6 The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments, 1992

5.7 Hindrances to People's Participation

5.8 Summary

5.9 Sample Questions

5.10 Further Readings

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In development administration, the role of the people as 'participants' in administration has been gaining ground in recent times. The demands of democracy and empowerment of the marginalised, together with the failures of the top-down development efforts, contributed to the growing emphasis on community participation in administration.

The Government of India's social welfare programme has been essentially of preventive, promotive, developmental and rehabilitative nature. They are designed to enable the targeted sections of the society to realise their full potential for growth. Under the Five Year Plans, social welfare programmes are drawn up and implemented mainly for socially under-privileged groups such as the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled

Tribes and Other Backward Classes, women, children, the physically and mentally challenged, and the socially maladjusted.

The Central, State and local Governments along with Non-Governmental Organisations are involved in the implementation of the welfare policies. The Government's social welfare efforts are sought to be strengthened with supplementary assistance from the Non-Governmental Organisations. In the different Five Year Plan documents, the important role of such voluntary agencies have been highlighted. In the First Five Year Plan, for example, it had been mentioned that any Plan for social and economic regeneration of the country should take into account the services rendered by private agencies and the State should give them maximum co-operation in strengthening their efforts. The Seventh Plan Document, recognising the important role of the voluntary organisations, stressed that the Central Social Welfare Board, which is a Central organisation, promoting and strengthening the voluntary effort, should pay attention to motivating more organisations to undertake welfare programmes for children, women and the handicapped.

That public co-operation through voluntary organisations is capable of yielding valuable results in channelising private efforts for the promotion of social welfare is, as such, consistently recognised. This is amply evident in the importance given to the role of the voluntary organisations in the social welfare sector under the Five Year Plans.

Community and people's participation are needed for promoting development for a variety of reasons. You will find that some of the more important reasons are listed below —

- ⇒ Participation is in keeping with the basics of democratic principles.
- ⇒ It helps the administration to appreciate the felt needs of the people.
- ⇒ It helps in the mobilisation of resources and also in its proper utilisation.
- ⇒ With the people taking an interest in developmental administration, implementation of schemes become easier, since conflict is reduced.
- ⇒ As participation brings about a sense of involvement on the part of the people, with their co-operation work gets done at a speedier rate.
- ⇒ Also, the work is better done as people maintain a constant vigil.
- ⇒ In the planning and programming stages and throughout the implementation of development projects, the participatory process ensures a congruence between the objectives of development and community values and preferences.
- ⇒ It helps in rationalising manpower resource utilisation which in turn helps to reduce project costs.

- ⇒ Monitoring is better and sustainability of the project is more likely even after the withdrawal of the external agent.
- ⇒ Participation ensures a two-way learning process where the administrators and the people are co-learners.
- ⇒ Active community participation helps in strengthening community cohesion and generates a sense of dignity in the community.
- ⇒ Under conditions of scarcity and competition for finite resources, participation introduces the possibility of equity in resource distribution.
- ⇒ It acts as a means of ventilating the feelings of the people.
- ⇒ It offers people an opportunity to demonstrate their willingness to do constructive work.
- ⇒ It helps to mitigate the problems of unresponsiveness and repressiveness of traditional decision making mechanisms.
- ⇒ Over and above all, the psychological boost is of course significant.

The First Five Year Plan document had mentioned four inter-linked ideas which should embody community welfare programmes, namely,

1. self help and mutual service;
2. maximum use and development of local resources through organised community life;
3. economic betterment and cultural development through social participation in co-operative effort; and
4. achievement of community objectives through the minimum amount of assistance from the State.

The Seventh Five Year Plan document had gone so far as to recognise that social welfare programmes by their very nature would not succeed unless the local communities and beneficiaries participated fully and extended co-operation at all stages of implementation. It stressed the need for welfare advisory committees at different levels with representatives from local bodies and community agencies to deliver the benefits to the intended target groups.

The advantages of involving voluntary agencies in development efforts are manifold.

- i. they provide a basis for innovation with new models and approaches
- ii. they can play an important role by supplementing governmental efforts
- iii. they are like the eyes and ears of the people
- iv. they can activate the delivery system and make it more effective

- v. they can help in the dissemination of information.
- vi. make communities more self-reliant.
- vii. mobilise financial resources within the community.
- viii. Voluntary efforts sensitise communities so as to enable them to articulate and later build positively on such aspirations.
- ix. They help in the release of the latent energies of the masses to be effectively channelised for self-betterment.

Whilst participation has different forms and takes place at different levels, grass root participation is increasingly emphasised for development at the rural level.

Such grass root participation could be through co-operatives, involvement of voluntary organisations, de-centralised planning, and *Panchayati Raj* institutions.

It is necessary to remember, however, that to be effective the participatory development mode rests on several assumptions. Firstly, is the basic assumption of the presence of a positive political will on the part of higher levels favouring community participation. As devolution of power and resources largely flow from the top to the bottom there has to be a willingness to sponsor and support participation. Secondly, there has to be a willingness on the part of the held bureaucracy to part with power and lend a helping hand to the local community efforts. Thirdly, the community must possess the capacity to participate.

5.2 GRASS ROOT PARTICIPATION THROUGH PANCHAYATI RAJ

Years before the arrival of the British, local Governments had existed in India in the form of village communities and Governments. But it was markedly different from what was introduced during the British period. There was little of people's self rule. Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870, advocated decentralisation so as to involve more and more Indians at the levels best suited for them, that is municipal administration. Lord Ripon, who succeeded him as the Governor General, went a step further in advocating self-government mainly as an instrument of political and popular education. Lord Ripon's Resolution of 1882 was a significant step. Limited powers were entrusted in the field of education, watch and ward, health, sanitation, poor relief and roads, in particular to the panchayat boards, *taluk* boards (intermediate levels) and district boards. They started as Government nominated bodies but subsequently, the number of elected members increased. The Decentralisation Commission Report of 1909 stated that "the foundation of any stable edifice which shall associate the people with the administration must be the village". The Government of India Act of 1935

envisaged self-government for the country as a whole.

In the Constitution of independent India, the system of panchayats found a place in Article 40. The Article is one of the articles under the Directive Principles of State Policy. It reads as follows : "the State shall take steps to organise village panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government." Several committees were appointed over the years giving shape to this Directive not only to establish the *Panchayati Raj* system, but also to give more and more powers to the grass root bodies and involve them more actively with the processes of development planning and plan implementation.

5.3 BALWANT RAI MEHTA COMMITTEE

In 1957, the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee was set up by the National Development Council to inquire into questions of economy and efficiency and suggest measures for the reorganisation of the Community Development Programme, National Extension Service. The Committee, in its Report in 1959, recommended a three-tier system of rural local government. This was, in effect, the 'master blueprint' of what ultimately came to be known as *Panchayati Raj*.

The Balwant Rai Mehta Committee, in its recommendations suggested that at the village level, the panchayats should serve as the main agency of development administration. By the end of 1963, *Panchayati Raj* institutions were established in most of the Indian States; however, the patterns varied from State to State. Inter-State variations could be noted particularly in relation to the unit of devolution and in terms of structural design.

But, several problems surfaced over time. The major problems pertaining to the panchayats which surfaced in course of time were paucity of funds, lack of clear and scientific distribution of functions at various levels, domination of higher structure over subordinate structure, undue interference of State Governments and curtailment of autonomy of the Panchayat institutions, scant attention to the views of the people by the officials, parochial thinking on account of politicisation of the *Panchayati Raj* institutions and factitious spirit.

5.4 ASHOK MEHTA COMMITTEE

The situation prompted the Government to set up another committee. The Committee was set up in 1977 under the Chairmanship of Mr Ashok Mehta. It comprised of thirteen members. The task of the Committee was to suggest ways and means for strengthening *Panchayati Raj* institutions. It submitted its report in 1978.

The recommendations were marked by three main features. Firstly, the elected element in each tier is to constitute the majority and thus to preponderate over others. Secondly, seats in each tier have been set aside for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, the basis of reservation being their population. Thirdly, the members of Parliament and the members of the legislative assemblies coming from the locality do not have any formal association with these bodies; they are only to be the ex officio members of the Zilla Parishad's committee dealing with planning. A remarkable feature of the Report was the recommendation favouring open participation of political parties in *Panchayati Raj* affairs.

5.5 OTHER COMMITTEES

In 1985, a twelve member committee was appointed under the Chairmanship of Dr. G.V.K.Rao for reviewing the administrative arrangements for rural development and poverty alleviation programmes. While recommending that the district should be the basic unit for policy planning and programme implementation, the committee emphasised the need for regular elections to the panchayat bodies.

In 1987, the L.M.Singhvi Committee recommended the reorganisation of villages to make the village panchayats more viable.

5.6 THE 73RD AND 74TH CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENTS, 1992

The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendment acts were passed in 1992. The 73rd Constitution Amendment Act made it compulsory for all States, (except some specified hill and tribal regions and States) to have three-tier decentralisation below the State level with compulsory elections to the different tiers every five years. There is to be a State Election Commission to prepare electoral rolls and hold the elections of the panchayats. The 74th Amendment Act was in relation to urban local bodies. By 1994, all States had enacted legislation, as per the constitutional amendment, to endow power and authority to the panchayats to enable them to function as institutions of self-government. It included powers to prepare and implement plans for economic development and social justice, execute schemes entrusted to them by State and Central Governments and exercise powers as delegated in subjects listed in the Eleventh Schedule, annexed to the Amendment, and the Twelfth Schedule in case of *Nagarpalikas*. They related mostly to matters of economic development and social justice suitable for being entrusted to local bodies.

The important aspects of the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments are highlighted below :

1. Reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in proportion to their population, reservation of posts of chairpersons in proportion to the population of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the State.
2. Reservation of not less than one third of the elected seats in each panchayat for women; reservation of not less than one third the number of chairpersons at each level for women.
3. Rotation of reservation for women among the constituencies.
4. There would be direct elections to panchayats at each level.
5. The Gram Sabhas in the villages and the ward committees in municipalities are to enlist community participation in the functioning of local bodies, and to safeguard against misuse of powers.
6. A District Planning Committee is envisaged which has to put together the plan prepared by the panchayats and the municipalities into a draft district development plan for submission to the State Government. This Committee would have members elected by and from the district level panchayat and municipalities of the district.

The broad principles behind the amendments for *Nagar Palika* and *Panchayati Raj* were more or less the same, namely,

- ⇒ Compulsory elections every five years.
- ⇒ Reservations for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, not only to elections as members but also as chairpersons.
- ⇒ Reservations for women not only to elections as members but also as chairpersons.

5.7 HINDRANCES TO PEOPLE'S PARTICIPATION

People's participation involves the deliberate and systematic mobilisation of citizens around issues and problems of common concern. Participation covers every kind of action by which citizens take part in development administration. In a narrow sense, it consists of a convergent action by which the citizens take part in the accomplishment of administrative services without, however, belonging to the governing or managing organs. In a broader sense, however, it could encompass all sorts of action in the form of decision making, implementation, and evaluation.

But, then, there are several factors which tend to thwart community and people's participation in development efforts. They are as follows :

1. Following the colonial tradition, the bureaucrats tend to function in an autocratic manner, forgetting the fact that they are public servants. This often drives a wedge

between the people and the bureaucrats and, as a result, the administrators fail to mobilise extensive public participation.

2. Widespread administrative corruption cause loss of faith and trust of the people in administration.
3. Complexity of administrative procedures and red tape-ism generate frustration and disappointment amongst the public and a corresponding loss of interest in participation.
4. Indian society is marked by fragmentation of loyalties along lines of religion, caste, ethnicity etc. In questions of participation, too, these factors come into play, often superseding wider issues.
5. As a result of widespread poverty and illiteracy, many people are often not conscious of their rights and obligations. This helps powerful socio-economic groups to dominate and monopolise the fruits of development.
6. Also, on account of widespread poverty, people are engaged in intensive and exhausting physical labour which leaves many of them with little energy, time or interest in participation.
7. People's involvement in matters of plans, projects and schemes remain limited because of the overarching dominance of the Planning Commission. Though District planning bodies and State level planning boards have been set up, the dominance of the Planning Commission in matters of the size of the State plan and its targets limits the chances of popular participation in development.
8. Slow pace of development and the failure of the administration to meet the rising expectations of the people, in many cases, lead to a disinterest amongst the people or else their reactions find hostile, critical and cynical manifestations, rather than concrete participative outlets.

Obviously, it is urgent that the causes responsible for low levels of people's participation in development administration be removed or at least mitigated. Various measures could be adopted for the purpose. These include—

- Constant interaction between the legislator and his constituency
- Introduction of behavioural and procedural changes in administration
- Strengthening of public relations agencies so that they can inform the people and serve as bridges between the people and the administration
- Arranging for speedy redressal of people's grievances
- Making administration more transparent, democratic and responsive.

5.8 SUMMARY

In this unit an attempt is made to highlight the importance of community and people's participation in development, the methods adopted for bringing about such involvement and the difficulties encountered in mobilising such participation. Special attention is given to the panchayat experience in this respect. Measures which could be adopted for bringing about greater participation are also discussed.

5.9 SAMPLE QUESTIONS

A. Long Answer Type Questions

⇒ Elucidate the benefits of community and people's participation for promoting development and point out the commonly faced difficulties in enlisting such participation.

B. Short Answer Type Questions

- ⇒ What were the main provisions of the 73rd Constitution Amendment Act?
- ⇒ What are the advantages of involving voluntary agencies in development efforts?
- ⇒ What does Article 40 of the Indian Constitution deal with?

C. Objective Questions

- ⇒ When was the Ashok Mehta Committee appointed?
- ⇒ When did the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee submit its Report?

D. Things you can do:

Visit a panchayat area and interact with some women representatives of the panchayat and try to find out the extent to which they are subject to pressures from male members of their families.

5.10 FURTHER READINGS

1. R.B. Jain, "Citizen Participation in Development Administration: Experiences of India", *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, September, 1999.
2. Sudisht Narayan Misra, *Rural Development and Panchayati Raj*, Concept Publishers, New Delhi, 1981
3. E.D. Setty, *New Approaches to Rural Development*, Anmol Publishers, New Delhi, 2002
4. M. Wadhvani et. al., ed., *Dreams and Realities: Expectations from Panchayati Raj*, IIPA, New Delhi, 1996.
5. Anirban Kashyap, *Panchayati Raj : Views of the Founding Fathers and Recommendations of Different Committees*, Lancer Books, New Delhi, 1989.

UNIT 6 □ EMERGING TRENDS

Objectives :

This unit will enable you to :

- *Recognise* the changes in the field of development administration since the 1980s
- *Identify* the emerging themes in development administration
- *Comprehend* the weaknesses of the Indian bureaucracy in terms of development administration

Structure

- 6.1 New Development Administration
- 6.2 Indian Bureaucracy And Development Administration
- 6.3 Summary
- 6.4 Sample Questions
- 6.5 Further Readings

6.1 NEW DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

A decade after the emergence of the concept of development administration, a new environment emerged in the Third World, questioning the earlier premises. There were disenchantments regarding the performances of Governments in promoting implementation of development programmes and projects, creation of new institutional structures, adoption of new techniques, etc. There has to be cognisance of new emergent themes and issues in the socio-political context of the developing societies. While some of the problems encountered in the field of development administration are similar to the problems in the area of general administration, some very specific problems are encountered in the field of development administration. In meeting the targets of development, numerous difficulties which have been encountered include problems related to :

- Identification of goals of development, distinct as they are from traditional goals
- Lack of experienced administrators and specialised technocrats
- Lack of modern management techniques
- Poor methods of policy-making, planning and budgeting
- Procedural delays
- Lack of commitment to targets
- Poor co-ordination between generalists and specialists
- Persistence of traditional attitudes and behavioural norms

- Problems of resources
- The problem of converting the traditional administrators into modern administrators capable of coping with the developmental goals.

Time and again these problems have come into focus. Needless to say, the prescribed solutions have differed, ranging from suggestions of strengthening the public machinery and equipping it for the new responsibilities to questioning the very logic of entrusting the functions to public agencies.

In the changed politico-economic environment since the late '80s marked by the collapse of the Soviet Union, the aggressive dominance of the western model, debureaucratisation came into focused attention. Under pressure of the aid-givers, the developing states were brought under pressure to privatise, deregulate and decentralise all implying a rolling back of the public administrative apparatus from many of its earlier areas of operation.

The altered milieu has undermined many of the earlier premises including that, which considered public administration as an indispensable instrument of socio-economic development. As such, the new themes which emerged since the eighties to mark a departure from the dominant spirit of development administration of the 1960s include the following ideas :

1. Governments are limited in their capacity and these limitations should be incorporated into the design of public programmes.
2. As the Governments cannot do it all, alternative and complementary channels need to be identified and fostered.
3. Programme designers recognise and capitalise on the pluralistic properties of public administration.
4. Participation is an important dimension in the administration of public services.
5. Societal contexts provide both specific opportunities and special constraints for development administration.
6. Enhanced appreciation of the uncertainties and contingencies inherent in deliberate efforts at development change. [M.Bapuji, "Emerging Themes and Perspectives in Development Administration : A Reflection", in Pradeep Sahni et al ed., *Public Administration: Emerging Perspectives*, 1999, pp. 202-3].

During the 1980s, under the changing global conditions, the concept of New Development Administration emerged. The New Development Administration School proposed by Milton J. Esman [cf. Esman, Milton J., "The Maturing of Development Administration", *Administration and Development*, Vol. 8, No. 2, April-June 1988] emphasises minimal government, decentralisation and community development.

Decentralization was one of the most popular and key themes of the New Development Administration. Two particularly noticeable new trends in Development Administration since the 1980s are :

1. *A shift from a blueprint approach to a learning process approach:* The blueprint approach emphasises advanced planning for administering a development programme. In contrast, the learning process approach emphasises flexible planning strategy which adapts itself to changing conditions.
2. *A shift from production-centred approach to people-centred approach:* The former approach emphasised on the production of goods and services for maximisation of profits while the latter approach gives precedence to people's needs over production of goods and services.

6.2 INDIAN BUREAUCRACY AND DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

In an overall sense, we find that the administration of development in the developing countries has come in for serious criticisms. They appear to revolve around the following lines :

- i. The imitative pattern of the administration, whereby most of these States have tended to cling to some or other version of the western bureaucratic administration.
- ii. Lack of skilled personnel and administrative staff.
- iii. Centralised bureaucratic structure.
- iv. Political disinterest in administrative development and innovations.
- v. Corruption and lack of vision of administrators.
- vi. Resistance to administrative reforms.
- vii. Bureaucratic resistance to popular inputs.

In the Indian context, the commonly heard arguments against the role of the bureaucracy in development are as follows :

1. The bureaucracy is primarily concerned with law and order and regulatory administration. As such, its suitability for development administration is questionable.
2. It suffers from a hang-over of the colonial era.
3. It has an authoritarian outlook.
4. Its members come from elite backgrounds and are thus unable to understand the problems of common people.

5. In the field of poverty alleviation, bureaucratic proliferation has led to lack of co-ordination and integration of programmes and schemes. This amounts to a tremendous degree of duplication, inefficiency and waste of resources.
6. Area-specific programmes and beneficiary-oriented programmes have performed poorly, yet the bureaucracy has shown little interest in improving its capabilities.
7. And, most importantly, the bureaucracy does not demonstrate enough 'commitment' to development needs. Where development calls for full-fledged support, the bureaucracy seeks shelter under conservative neutrality.

True as it is, the bureaucracy has its limitations. But, we need to remember the structural limitations within which it operates. The bureaucracy is less of a development planner and more of an implementator-programmer attempting to operate in a situation marked by lack of consensus on the priorities of development, manifold elite pressure and limited resources. Development, we must remember, is, in the operational connotation not a unilinear concept. Given the above realities, a general indictment of the bureaucracy as dysfunctional for development administration would be wrong. We cannot brush aside the many positive sides of the bureaucracy's involvement which have been evident over the years. On the positive side, the bureaucracy has been found to be on the whole efficient in crisis management such as draught and floods, and by and large satisfactory in terms of people orientation and result orientation. In fact, as noted by Fred Riggs, even though "Maladministration is no doubt endemic in all countries and no public bureaucracy can be exonerated of all complaints", the reality remains that "when widely needed services – roads, water supply, public safety, law and order, garbage disposal, transportation and postal services, to say nothing of equity and justice, freedom to speak and organize, health services, social security, education, parks and recreation, environmental safeguards, the full gamut of functions performed by modern Governments – are not provided or are handled with gross inefficiency and unfairness, popular antagonism, revolts, and revolutionary movements can be expected". [Fred W. Riggs, 'Para-modernism and Bureau Power : An Essay Honouring Dwight Waldo', June 12, 1996.]

Much of the criticisms against the administration's role in development is on the one hand sustained by, and on the other is an attempt to legitimise the demands for withdrawal of the State from various fields in the wake of the emergence of the new economic order of globalisation marked by liberalisation and privatisation. The rolling back of the State, along with the excessive reliance on the economics and markets, imply the presence of a 'minimal state', i.e. a State that limits itself to defend law and order while withdrawing itself from the redistributive functions. This in turn, implies a gradual lessening of the Indian State's commitment to welfare projects and

at the same time a maintenance of coercive power over the people.

Withdrawal of the State from areas of welfare fully or partially are likely to have disastrous implications of the beneficiaries of the Government policies. Access of the weaker sections to goods and services would diminish in view of the withdrawal of subsidies from many existing areas and the emerging arrangements for having to pay for the goods and services. It is bound to generate greater inequalities within the State and alienate it from the people's cause. In fact, dramatic rises in levels of poverty, homelessness and societal violence are being foreseen. To the extent that the State ceases to be socially purposive, it loses its capacity to intervene on behalf of the masses. This in turn, is likely to generate a crisis of governability as the powerlessness of the State elites to carry forth their stated and imagined objectives could lead to widespread mass unrest.

6.3 SUMMARY

This unit highlights how, since the eighties, the concept of development administration has changed largely in response to the demands of the changing global conditions and led to the emergence of New Development Administrative thinking. Moreover, in this unit, the problems which have surfaced in the context of development administration in contemporary India have been focused upon, alongside general difficulties encountered in the field of development administration in the developing countries *per se*. Finally, we are reminded of the fact that, all said and done, we cannot ignore the importance of the State's role in promoting development and the welfare of weaker sections of the population.

6.4 SAMPLE QUESTIONS

A. Long Answer Type Questions

- ⇒ What are the criticisms commonly levelled against the administration's role in development in the developing countries? How far, do you think, are such criticisms tenable?
- ⇒ Discuss the extent to which we can regard public administration as an indispensable instrument of socio-economic development.
- ⇒ What are the implications of the rolling back of the State from areas of welfare administration?

B. Short Answer Type Questions

- ⇒ What are the new themes which have emerged since the eighties to mark a departure from the dominant spirit of development administration of the 1960s?
- ⇒ How has globalisation affected development administrative thinking?

C. Objective Questions

- ⇒ With which school of thought is the name of Milton J. Esman associated?
- ⇒ When did New Development Administration thinking emerge?

6.5 FURTHER READINGS

1. Gary Craig and Marjorie Mayo ed., *Community Empowerment: A Reader in Participation and Development*, Zed Books, London, 1995.
 2. Peter Oakley, *Projects with People: The Practice of Participation in Rural Development*, ILO, Geneva, 1991.
 3. Mohit Bhattacharya, *Public Administration*, The World Press, Calcutta, 2000
 4. Robert Chambers, *Rural Development: Putting the Last First*, Longman, London, 1983.
 5. Atul Kohli, *Democracy and Discontent : India's Growing Crisis of Governability*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1993.
- Neela Mukherjee, *Participatory Rural Appraisal: New Methodology and Applications*, Concept Publishing Co., New Delhi, 1994.

TABLE-1

[Panchayat] (Extension to the Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996-Functional Devolution on Panchayats

Sl. 1.	Components 2	Mandatory Provision 3	Status 4
1	Definition of Village	A village consist of a habilitation or a group of habitators or a hamlet or a group of handets comprising a community and managing its affairs in accordance with traditions and customs	All States adopted this definition except Maharashtra, which is silent on this subject.
2.	Status and functions of Gram Sabha	Every village will have a Gram Sabha which will be competent to safeguard and preserve the traditions and customes of the people, their cultural identity.	All State Acts follow the Central Act. However, regarding customary mode of disputes resolution, Andhra Pradesh Act puts a condition that it will be subject to without document to any law for the tune being in force. The Orissa Act adds that it should be consistent with the relevant laws in force and in harmony with the tenets of the Constitution and Human Rights.
3	Constitution of Panchayat	Panchayats will be constituted at village level with reservation for Scheduled Tribes in the manner prescribed in Part IX of the Constitution	Andhra Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh Acts have extended the reservation of elective seats and Chairpersons to both Gram Panchayats and Mandal Panchayats. The Maharashtra Act does not mention it.
4	Acquisition of land for development projects and resettlement of displaced persons	Prior consultation with Gram Sabha or Panchayats at the appropriate level shall be made mandatory	In Andhra Pradesh, Gram Sabhas have no role. Gujarat assigned this power to Taluka Panchayat, however, no provision relating to co-ordination of such projects at State level. Orissa managed the power to Zilla Panchayat with no role for the Gram Sabha, Gram Panchayat.

Sl. No.	Components	Mandatory Provision	Status
1.	2	3	4
5	Planning and Management of Minor Water Bodies	Enlisted to Panchayats at the appropriate level	Maharashtra Act does not make any mention of it. Orissa assigned power to Zilla Parishad instead of Gram Sabha and Gram Panchayat.
9	Ownership of Minor Forest Produce (MFP)	Panchayats at the appropriate level and the Gram Sabha enclosed with the powers of ownership	All State Acts follow central Act by assigning this power other to Gram Sabha either or to the Gram Panchayats.
10	Prevention & Restortion of Tribal Alienated land	Panchayats at appropriate level and the Gram Sabha to be endowed with this power.	Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh Panchayati Raj Amendment Act do not make provision for this. However, in case of Madhya Pradesh the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1939 has been amended to give power to Gram Sabha.
11	Manage Village Markets	Panchayats at appropriate level and the Gram Sabha to be endowed with this power.	Gujarat and Maharashtra Amendment Acts are silent on this matter.
12	Money making to the Scheduled Tribes	Panchayats at appropriate level and the Gram Sabha to be endowed with this power.	Madhya Pradesh Amendment Act does not make a mention of this subject.
13	Exercise control over institution and functionaries in all sectors	Panchayats at appropriate level of the Gram Sabha to be endowed with this power.	All States Acts except Madhya Pradesh assign this power either to Gram Panchayat or Panchayat Samity Mandal Parishad. The Madhya Pradesh Amendment Act has given this power to the Gram Sabha and the Panchayat or the Zilla Parishad.
14	Control over Local Plans and Resources including Tribal Sub Plans	Panchayats at appropriate level and the Gram Sabha to be endowed with this power	State Acts of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Orissa have assigned the power to Panchayat Samiti. Taluka Panchayat, Mandal Panchayat while the Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra Acts assign this Power to Gram Sabha

APPENDIX 2

TABLE - 2

Percentage of Scheduled Caste / Scheduled Tribe representation in Central Government Services				
Category	Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes	
	1.1.71	1.1.91	1.1.71	1.1.91
Class I	2.58	9.09	0.41	2.53
Class II	4.06	11.82	0.43	2.35
Class III	9.59	15.65	1.70	4.98
Class IV	18.37	21.24	3.65	6.82

Excluding sweepers.

Source :

<http://planningcommission.nic.in/plans/planrel/fiveyr/8th/vol2.html>

APPENDIX 3

TABLE - 3

Comparative picture in the incidence of poverty during the period 1977-78 to 1987-88 (In percentage)			
Year	Total Population	Sch. Castes	Sch. Tribes
1977-78	51.2	64.6	72.4
1983-84	40.4	53.1	58.4
1987-88	33.4	44.7	52.6

Source : <http://planningcommission.nic.in/plans/planrel/fiveyr/8th/vol2.html>

TABLE - 4

Gender Specific Schemes (In crores of rupees)					
		Budget 2000- 2001	Revised 2000-2001	Budget 2001-2002	Growth rate (%)b/w 2001-02 and 2000-01
1.	Total Allocation To The Dept of Women and Child Development	1512	1399.59	1705	12.76
	Total Women's Welfare	164.44	124.62	185.23	12.64
	Rashtriya Mahila Kosh	3	1.51	1	- 66.67
	Condensed Course For Women's Education	1.5	1.5	2	33.33
	Support To Employment And Training Programmes	13	13	18	38.46
	Training Cum Production Centres	13	11	18	38.46
	Mahila Samridhi Yojna	15	15	8	- 46.67
	Swa-Shakti Project(Integrated Project For Development Of Women)	15	8	15	0.00
	Indira Mahila Yojna	17	2	19.25	13.24
	Socio-Economic Programme	1	1	1	0.00
	Central Social Welfare Board	25	24.7	27	8.00
	Balika Samridhi Yojna	27	21	25	- 7.41
	Awareness Generation Programme	1.8	1.8	4	122.22
	National Commission For Women	3.5	3.5	5	42.86
	Other Programmes	6.11	3.61	19.89	225.53
	Hostel For Working Women	7.02	7.02	9	28.21
	Short Stay Homes	14.51	9.77	12.84	- 11.51
2.	Ministry For Human Resource Development				

	National Programme For Women's Education	160	10	10	- 93.75
	Welfare For SC/ST And Other Backward Classes	3.29	2.5	2.69	- 18.24
	Special Project For The Eradication of Illiteracy	10	10	27	170.00
	Total Secondary Education	1230.01	1193.91	1308.73	6.40
	Total University And Higher Education	2128.78	2591	1642.72	- 22.83
	Training	0.06	0.06	0.01	- 83.33
3.	Ministry of Urban Employment And Poverty Alleviation	399.01	289.55	397.27	-0.44
	Department of Urban Employment And Poverty Alleviation Swarna Jayanti Shohri Rozgar Yojna	168	95.03	168	0.00
4.	Ministry of Social Justice And Empowerment	1407.39	1225.56	1405.26	- 0.15
	Special Education Programme For Girls Belonging To SC Of Very Low Literacy Level	2	0.7	0.01	- 99.50
	Girls' Hostels	8.4	9.1	19	126.19
5.	Ministry of Health And Family Welfare				
	Department of Family Welfare	3541.47	3221.37	4232.28	19.51
	Total Family Welfare Services	1917.5	1750.9	2314.95	20.73
	Department of Health	2167.86	2049.64	2354.25	8.60
	Total Public Health Programme	846.91	779.24	812.17	- 4.10
6.	Department of Rural Development				
	Swarna Jayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojna	900	370	450	- 50.00
	Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojna	1485	1345	1485	0.00
	Employment Assurance Scheme Including Food For Work	1170	1453	1440	23.08
	National Social Assistance Programme	643.5	643.5	751.5	16.78

Source : *Expenditure Budget, 2001-02, Vol. II*, cited in Navsharan Singh, "Gender Audit of the Budget 2001-02", in *Alternative Economic Survey, 2000-2001*, Delhi, p. 148

APPENDIX 5

TABLE -5
REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN MEMBERS FROM FIRST
TO THIRTEENTH LOK SABHA

LOK SABHA	TOTAL SEATS	NO. OF WOMEN CONTESTANTS	NO OF WOMEN ELECTED	PERCENTAGE TO THE TOTAL
First (1952-57)	499	51	22	4.4
Second (1957-62)	500	45	27	5.4
Third (1962-67)	503	70	34	6.7
Fourth (1967-70)	523	67	31	5.9
Fifth (1971-77)	521	86	22	4.2
Sixth (1977-79)	544	70	19	3.4
Seventh (1980-84)	544	142	28	5.1
Eighth (1984-89)	544	164	44	8.1
Ninth (1989-91)	517	198	27	5.2
Tenth (1991-96)	544	325	39	7.16
Eleventh (1996-97)	544	599	40*	7.35
Twelfth (1998)	544	271	44*	8.11
Thirteenth (1999)	543	277	48	8.83

*One member nominated by the President
Source : PIB, Government of India

APPENDIX 6**Subjects Allocated To The Department of Women and Child Development**

- Women and Child Welfare and Co-ordination of activities of other Ministries and Organisation in connection with this subject.
- Care of pre-school children.
- Co-ordination of National Nutrition Education of Women.
- Charitable and religious endowments pertaining to subjects allocated to this department.
- Promotion and development of voluntary effort on the subjects allocated to this Department.

- All other attached or subordinate offices or other organisations concerned with any of the subjects specified in this list.
- Administration of the Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girl Act, 1956 (104 of 1956)
- The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961 (28 of 1961)
- Co-ordination of activities of Co-operative American Relief Everywhere (CARE) Planning, Research, Evaluation, Monitoring, Project formulation, Statistics and Training relating to the Development of Women and Children.
- References from the United Nations Organisations relating to traffic in Women and Children.
- United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)
- Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB)
- National Institute of Public Co-operation and Child Development (NIPCCD)
- National Commission for Women (NCW)
- Food and Nutrition Board (FNB)
- Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK)
- National Nutrition Policy (NNP)
- Indira Mahila Yojana (IMY)
- Balika Samridhi Yojana

APPENDIX 7

TABLE 6
INDIA: INCREASING CONCENTRATION OF POVERTY
(Figures in Million)

STATE 1	1972-73 2	1977-78 3	1983-84 4	1987-88 5	1993-94 6
UTTAR PRADESH	47.95	50.60	53.00	44.83	60.45
BIHAR	31.71	36.42	36.55	33.64	49.33
MADHYA PRADESH	25.48	28.58	25.49	22.49	29.85
MAHARASHTRA	24.82	29.62	23.20	21.41	30.52
TOTAL	129.96	145.22	138.24	122.37	170.15
% in all India poverty	44.57	47.33	51.01	51.49	53.12
% in all India Population	43.2 (in 1971)	43.2 (in 1971)	43.3 (in 1981)	43.3 (in 1981)	43.8 (in 1991)

Source : (i) Government of India (1993), *Report of the Expert Group on Estimation of Proportion and Number of Poor*, Planning Commission, New Delhi.

(ii) Government of India (1999), *Ninth Five Year Plan : 1997-2002*, Vol. 1, Planning Commission, New Delhi.

Cited in Surya Kant, "Globalization and Internal Political Stability in India," in *Social Sciences Research Journal*, Vol. 8, Nos. 1 & 2, Punjab University, Chandigarh, p. 121.

TABLE 7

SL NO.	MINISTRY / DEPT.	1993-94	
		TOTAL OUTLAY	FLOW TO SCP
1	MINISTRY OF LABOUR	712.70	262.15
2	MINISTRY OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT (DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION)	60091.00	8944.00
3	MINISTRY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (DEPARTMENT OF BIO-TECHNOLOGY)	8500.00	47.00
4	MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY (DEPARTMENT OF SSI AND ARI)		
	(I) COIR BOARD	635.00	148.16
	(II) DC, SSI, ARI	10375.00	1481.25
5	MINISTRY OF TEXTILES (DEV. COMM. FOR HANDLOOMS)	3720.00	876.71
6	D.C. FOR HANDICRAFTS	4000.00	613.00
7	MINISTRY OF PETROLEUM AND NATURAL GAS		
	(I) IOC		110.00
	(II) BHARAT PETROLEUM	54.5	28.60
	(III) COCHIN REFINERY	6.00	6.00
	(IV) SAIL	53528.00	27.95
	(V) HINDUSTHAN PETROLEUM	45.00	15.00
	(VI) BONGAON REFINERY	120.00	17.30
	(VII) LUBRIZOL INDIA	5.00	2.50
	(VIII) BALMER LAWRIE	8.50	5.30
	(IX) IBP		
	(X) ONGC	30.00	18.75

8	DEPARTMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT	408.55	261.47
9	MINISTRY OF HEALTH AND FAMILY WELFARE	48330.00	2821.46
10	MINISTRY OF COMMERCE	10758.00	597.00
11	DEPARTMENT OF FERTILIZERS		
	(I) NFL	0.58	0.38
	(II) FACT	176.24	6.19

Source : Annual Report, 1994-95, Ministry of Welfare, cited in National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, Annual Report, 1993-94

APPENDIX 9

Key Words

UNIT 1

1. **Decolonisation**.....freeing a country from dependent status
2. **Weber's bureaucratic model**..... Max Weber, the famous German Scholar, contributed the first fully developed theory of bureaucracy. His ideal bureaucratic type is characterised by division of labour, hierarchical arrangement of offices, rules, impersonality, selection of officials on basis of competence.
3. **Development Administration**.....is public administration with a difference. The focus is on Government influenced change towards the attainment of social, economic and political goals. In the words of Edward Weidner, development administration is 'an action-oriented, goal-oriented administrative system'.

UNIT 2

1. **Parliamentary democracy**.....India is a parliamentary democracy. This means that our political system is based on the idea that Parliament is supreme or sovereign.

A parliamentary democracy is one in which the people choose representatives at regular elections. These representatives are responsible for a number of functions : the formation of the government, the passage of legislation (the laws of the nation) by majority vote of the Parliament, the scrutiny and monitoring of the executive government, the public service and other authorities and institutions created by

Parliament. Most importantly, this scrutiny extends to monitoring the expenditure of public (taxpayer's) money.

2. **Federalism**.....federalism is a system of Government in which powers are shared between a Central (national) Government and regional (State) Government; it is a means of dividing the power and functions of Government between a Central Government and a specified number of geographically defined regional jurisdictions.
3. **Planning**.....laying out a course of action to be pursued later.

UNIT 3

1. **Constitution**.....fundamental system of law of a sovereign State established or accepted for guiding the governing of the State.
2. **Directive Principles of State Policy**.....Principles incorporated in Part IV of the Indian Constitution. They reflect the spirit of the Constitution. Unlike the Fundamental Rights, they are not justiciable. They broadly reflect the principles of socio-economic justice and equality.
3. **Eco-feminism**.....Eco-feminism is an activist philosophy that emphasises connections between the oppression of women and the exploitation of nature. The goal of eco-feminist environmental ethics is to develop theories and practices concerning humans and the natural environment that are not male-biased and that provide a guide to action in the pre-feminist present.

UNIT 4

1. **Caste**.....stratification system of Hindu society. Etymologically, 'caste' derives its origin from the Portuguese word '*casta*' meaning breed, race or kind.
2. **Scheduled Castes**.....Untouchable castes, which have been identified for receiving constitutionally assured benefits, have been referred to as Scheduled Castes. Their names have been listed in a 'Schedule'. The President of India is constitutionally empowered to specify in consultation with the Governor of a State those 'castes, races or tribes which shall for purposes of this Constitution be deemed to be Scheduled Castes in relation to that State'.
3. **Scheduled Tribes**.....the Constitutionally sanctioned method of determining the 'schedule' of tribes is identical to that provided for the Scheduled Castes. The President of India is given the authority to specify, following consultations with the Governors of respective States, the tribes and tribal communities or parts or groups within tribes or tribal communities, which are to be considered as 'Scheduled Tribes' for each State.

4. **Other Backward Classes.....**population groups identified as socially and educationally backward by Backward Classes Commission appointed under provision of Article 340 of the Constitution of India.

UNIT 5

1. **NGO.....**a voluntary grouping of individuals or organisations which is autonomous, *non-political* ... organised ... for the purpose of enhancing the legitimate economic, social and/or cultural development or lobbying or advocating on issues of public interest or interest of a group of individuals or organisations.
2. **Panchayati Raj.....**rural local self Government institutions in India.
3. **Administrative decentralization** may broadly be defined as transfer of responsibilities to lower administrative levels at the discretion of upper levels in order to facilitate more effective implementation.
4. **Reservations** a system of reserving seats in legislative bodies, Government jobs and fully or partly Government aided educational institutions for certain marginalised sections of the population, such as the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes, exists in India. Reservations for women have been introduced in certain areas.
5. **Empowerment** it is the process by which the disempowered or powerless people can change their circumstances and begin to have control over their lives. People involved in development work during the 1960s, '70s and '80s were swearing by people's participation while activists in the '90s and the beginning of the new millennium are swearing by empowerment.

UNIT 6

1. **Administrative reforms.....**it is a deliberately planned exercise aimed at improving the administration. According to Gerald Caiden, 'administrative reform is the artificial inducement of administrative transformation against resistance'.
2. **New Development Administration.....**school of thought proposed by Milton J. Esman, in the eighties, emphasising minimal Government, de-centralisation and community development.



মানুষের জ্ঞান ও ভাবকে বইয়ের মধ্যে সঞ্চিত করিবার যে একটা প্রচুর সুবিধা আছে, সে কথা কেহই অস্বীকার করিতে পারে না। কিন্তু সেই সুবিধার দ্বারা মনের স্বাভাবিক শক্তিকে একেবারে আচ্ছন্ন করিয়া ফেলিলে বুদ্ধিকে বাবু করিয়া তোলা হয়।

—*রবীন্দ্রনাথ ঠাকুর*

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—*সুভাষচন্দ্র বসু*

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