MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS IN U. P.

ABSTRACT

THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF
Doctor of Philosophy
IN
Political Science

BY
Saleem Uddin Khan

Under the Supervision of
Professor S. Nasir Ali

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ABSTRACT

The importance of the study of local self-government as the basic democratic institution and an essential school of civic education cannot be underrated. In India such a study is gaining a momentum and different models are being studied in the historical perspective. In India, the states are enacting legislation in order to study the working of local self-government. India is a vast land with varied problems -- political, social, economic, cultural and demographic -- which ought to be analysed scientifically and studied microscopically so that a clear picture might emerge both from administrative point of view and legal angles.

Uttar Pradesh is the largest state in the Indian Union and poses problems which are not only insurmountable but are typical from the viewpoint of microcosmic and macrocosmic study. KAVAL Towns have been carved out for the purposes of effective administration in the most impartment area of Uttar Pradesh. This area is important from the multiplicity of problems and realistic experimentation. These metropolitan towns are overpopulated, industrially advanced and impregnated with problems peculiar to themselves.

KAVAL is a made up word obtained by joining the first
alphabates of KANPUR, AGRA, VARANASI, ALLAHABAD and LUCKNOW. These bigger cities have problems peculiar to themselves. It has been seen in the present dissertation as to what these problems are, how far have been resolved, why have they proved tough and have balked all attempts to isolation, how far are they due to the unimaginative approach of the politicians, rigidity and undue interference of beaurocrates, lack of adequate financial supplies, lack of any code of conduct, scarce human resources, lack of technical personnel and insufficient know how on the part of planners and administrators.

In the introductory chapter of the thesis, a historical survey and evolution of local self-government has been undertaken. No study of local self-government would be completed and conclusive without reference to the operation of local government in U.K., U.S.A. and France. Hence, the introduction highlights the historical survey of these countries.

In the second chapter the evolution of local self-government in India leading to KAVAL towns of Uttar Pradesh has been traced.

In the third chapter again the special problems of big cities in Industrial areas have been pinpointed.

In the fourth chapter the political and administrative problems of the KAVAL towns are studied. In the fifth chapter the financial problems have been described. In the sixth
chapter, each Municipal Corporation of Uttar Pradesh have been dealt with separately. In the conclusion the main defects of local self-government in the KAVAL Towns and their consequent failure has been examined.

Towards the close of the dissertation the detailed appendices and bibliography have been appended.
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SUPERVISOR'S CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Mr. Saleemuddin Khan has completed his research under my supervision and guidance and that his thesis entitled "Municipal Corporations in Uttar Pradesh" is in my opinion suitable for submission for the award of the degree of Ph.D. in Political Science of the Aligarh Muslim University.

(S. NASIR ALI)
Professor of Political Science.
SUPERVISOR
Local Self Government, chronologically as well as conceptually, is the starting point of democratic institutions. It has been at work in one form or the other in India, England, U.S.A. and France, though its infra-structure, mode of working and scope of authority has been different in different parts of the world. In most of the countries it has come down as a legacy of the past. The purpose of this study is to trace the origin of these local bodies and their typical institutions, and critically examine their growth and operation till its culmination into the KAVAL Towns of Uttar Pradesh. KAVAL is a made-up word obtained by joining the first alphabets of Kanpur, Agra, Varanasi, Allahabad and Lucknow. These are big metropolitan towns being marked and distinguished by their population, territory and complexity of peculiar problems, political, social, economic, financial, demographic, etc.

To begin with, in this work, Local governments in U.K., U.S.A. and France have been examined in their historical perspective. Further on, history of local self government in India has been traced. The study of KAVAL Towns has been undertaken and the causes of its failure are objectively analysed. The approach of India's leadership and its attitude towards the local government as a whole is found to be unrealistic. Continuous failure of local self governing
institutions after a long process of trial and error has not convinced the leadership of its futility throughout the country. An attempt has been made to examine the universal, though partial, failure of local bodies in spite of the existence of local self government institutions in almost all the democracies of the world. In introductory chapter, history of local governments in U.S.A., U.K. and France has been traced as models. In chapter second, the evolution (legal as well as administrative) of local self government in India has been examined and causes of its pathetic failure have been analysed.

The special problems of big cities in the industrial areas have been analytically examined in the third chapter.

The fourth chapter concerns with the administrative and political issues of the KAVAL towns.

The financial constrains often faced by KAVAL towns have been delineated with its prospects in the fifth chapter.

In the sixth chapter, each Municipal Corporation has been dealt with separately in terms of area, population, economic status, climatic conditions, literacy, language, etc.

The conclusion sums up the accounts of previous chapters and makes suggestions for a smooth functioning of these municipal corporations. A detailed bibliography is given in the last. The appendices include a list of Municipal Corporations in India, district maps and personal interviews.
of various elected representatives of the municipal corporations. It has been discovered unmistakably that the human failure involved in the functioning bodies of KAVAL Towns has repeatedly come to the fore but remedial steps have not been taken to bring about change in policies — political, economic, developmental, bureaucratic and so and so on and so forth.

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CONTENTS

Preface ... ... 1
Acknowledgements ... ... iv

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION


1) Early tendencies in U.K. 1

ii) The Evolution of Local Government in the U.S.A. - Early tendencies ... 10

iii) Evolution of Local Government in France ... 16

CHAPTER II THE EVOLUTION OF LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT IN INDIA 21

CHAPTER III SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF BIG CITIES IN THE INDUSTRIAL AREAS 44

1) Urbanisation ... 45

ii) Slum Problem 52

iii) Pollution Problem 61

iv) Housing problem in KAVAL Towns 70

v) Problem of Water Supply and Sewerage in KAVAL Towns 77

CHAPTER IV POLITICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

1) Political Problems 85

ii) Administrative Problems 90
Chapter I

INTRODUCTION


Early tendencies in U.K.

The origin of local government in England has had its roots deep into the past. The present day infra-structure can be traced back to the Anglo-Saxon period. In this period, the local institutions consisted of Shires, Hundreds and the Townships which are similar to the County, District and Parishes of today. The 'burghs' (boroughs) or large fortified towns, may be compared with the County Borough of today. In the early history of local government in U.K. the place of Hundred was above the Township. The Hundred was a union of few persons, which was constituted for the purposes of judicial administration, peace and security. The shiremoot maintained and enforced local usages and bye-laws. The Frankpledge was, under the Saxon constitution, an association of ten men who were to be the standing securities for the community. The Frankpledge may be regarded as "a sort of artificial prolongation of the family tie, or as based on the principle of the law of Athelstan, that
every man should have a security for him".  

The Sheriff became so powerful that Edward III appointed them Justices. These Justices were responsible for the administration of justice and law and order. He also appointed Lord-lieutenants to be the king's representative in the county. After the Norman conquest in the 11th century, the whole of England was united and brought under one centre and came under the control of a single Crown. At this time the local institutions of the Saxon period were abolished or reorganised in a different manner. It was only the Hundred which was not abolished and allowed to perform its duties as before. The Saxon moots were abolished and their powers were transferred to the Lord of Manor and the County Court. The accelessors vestry meeting survived and constituted for the administration of the growing functions of the local government, police, poor relief, highways, sanitation, rating, etc.

With the lapse of more time a new local unit emerged and came to be known as the Parish. The Parish meetings were presided over by the Parish priest. "Originally the Parish meeting dealt only with Church affairs, but it gradually acquired some civil functions as well."  

To obtain freedom from the Lord of Manor and his court, application was made to the King, for a charter of

incorporation creating part of the Manor, a Borough free from the jurisdiction of the Lord of Manor. The Borough acquired additional powers and came to have autonomous power of the local administration. Gradually the borough became chartered municipality. It had a Mayor, Alderman and Councillors who constituted the local authority. It performed various kinds of functions.¹

Fourteenth century witnessed a remarkable decay of the Feudal system. The Manor courts fell into disuse; law and order became increasingly difficult to maintain. At this time, the crown appointed justices of peace to maintain law and order. The justices of peace were also empowered to supervise some civil functions.

By the 16th century, the system of local government was again reorganized. The functions of the local authorities were enlarged. Untill the end of the 16th century, the functions of the local government were the upkeep of the roads, bridges, jails and county buildings. The county officials were responsible for these tasks. But in 1601, under the provision of the Poor Relief Act, the parishes were empowered to levy rates for the poor relief in their respective areas. They were also empowered to appoint unpaid officers to supervise the executive work.

From the time of the passage of the Poor Relief Act till the 18th century, the development of local government was very

slow. The Industrial Revolution changed the entire basis of the economic and social structure of the country and created many problems connected with local government.

The vastly growing population gathered around the newly developing industrial towns. Houses were haphazardly built without any proper regard to public health requirements and existing houses became grossly over-crowded. The Borough Councils were unfit to deal with the problems so created, and so public spirited individuals obtained powers from the Parliament to carry out the necessary services. Boards of Guardians, High Board and the local Boards of Health were formed. Under this ad hoc system of local government became a chaos of areas, a chaos of franchise, a chaos of authorities and a chaos of rates. It became evident that more effective administration of these new bodies was needed.

Attempts at reform in local government were made after the passing of the Parliamentary Reform Act in 1832. The Act of 1832 was followed closely by two Royal Commissions, one to enquire into the administration of the notoriously corrupt Boroughs and the other into the abuses of the Poor Law. The former resulted in the passing of the Poor Law Amendment Act 1834, which abolished the former parochial and set up Boards of Guardians for unions of Parishes. The Municipal Corporation Act, 1935, brought about a measure of reform in the Boroughs. Political abuses were swept away. Administrative and judicial powers
separated, trading monopolies abolished, the franchise extended to the rate payers and financial administration was again organised by the introduction of a Borough audit system. The recorder was to be appointed by the Crown. Every Borough was required to maintain a police force. The first General Public Health Act 1848 set up the General Board of Health as a controlling and coordinating central authority. In the year of 1871, it became the Local Government Board and in the year 1919, it became the Ministry of Health, but in 1951 the work was divided between the Ministry of Health and the new Ministry of Housing and Local Government.

In the 19th century continuous reforms were introduced in the local government. The Local Government Act, 1888, transferred the local government functions from the justices to the elected county councils and newly created Boroughs. By this Act, powers were given to the County Councils to delegate the exercise of their functions to Committees, and in some instances to internal local authorities. The Local Government Act 1894, coordinated the work of local government within the administrative Counties by distributing the work in urban areas between Borough and Urban District Councils. In the rural areas an attempt was made to restore some of their ancient glory to the Parishes by the creation of Parish Councils and Meetings, and so the Act is sometimes referred to as the 'Peasant' Charter. In 1923, the Royal Commission on local government under the Chairmanship of
Lord Onslow was appointed. It arose out of the frequency of the changes brought about by the creation of new County Boroughs and the enlargement of existing County Boroughs. It was also recommended that new County Boroughs should be created by only a private bill submitted to the Parliament, that extension should be similarly treated if there is any opposition, and that the County Councils should regularly review the existing areas of County Districts and Parishes.

In the early years of the 20th century, a number of Acts were passed empowering the local authorities. The Local Government Act of 1929 abolished the Boards of Guardians and transferred their Poor Law functions to the New Public Assistance, the Council of Counties and County Boroughs. The main object of this Act was to reform certain defects in the existing system of local government. The Local Government Act 1933 was passed after the 1929 Act. This Act resulted from the labours of the Local Government and Public Health Consolidation Committee was set up in 1930 by the Ministry of Health. The Committee was set up as a result of the Royal Commission on Local Government (1923) and their recommendations that the work of consolidations should be taken in hand immediately. By this Act, more importance was given to health problems.

There has been a considerable growth of local government since the middle of the last century. During the present century, there has been a marked movement to transfer many major services
from the minor authorities to control the large authorities the Councils of Counties and County Borough. Example of this are Education and Midwifery (1902) and the Country Planning (1947). Many services have been nationalised. Jails were transferred to the State in 1877. The State accepted responsibility for the able-bodied unemployed in 1934; the veterinary service including the control of milk production on farms, became the responsibility of the Minister of Agriculture in 1946; hospitals passed to the control of regional boards in 1946; central and regional boards took over electricity in 1947 and the responsibility for the valuation of property for local rates was transferred to the Board of Inland Revenue in 1948.

The decision to undertake a comprehensive review of the existing local government structure was first taken towards the end of the Second World War when the Local Government Boundary Commission was set up in 1945. At that time movements of population and the spread of large industrial areas seemed to call for substantial adjustments in local authority areas. There was, moreover, the question of examining claims for the creation and extension of Country Boroughs, which had been held up during the War, and a series of reviews of County Districts had become due. However, although the Boundary Commission carried out a thoroughgoing review, it was then found impracticable to adopt the far reaching changes in local authority areas, status and functions that it recommended.
After the dissolution of the Boundary Commission in 1949, the question of local government reform was discussed at joint conferences of the various local authority associations. The two local government commissions established by the Local Government in 1958 were charged with reviewing all local governments in their respective counties to see whether a more effective and convenient structure could be set up. By their terms of reference, the Local Government Commissions were empowered to recommend the alteration of the areas of existing counties or their abolition, the constitution of new Counties or County Boroughs into non-County Borough. In the special review areas the Commission was also given power to make proposals for changes in non-County Boroughs and County Districts, to recommend the creation of a new type of local authority — 'a continuous county' — and to suggest the way in which local authority functions should be distributed between the Country and the Borough and District Councils in such an area. The Act provided that consultations must be held with local authorities and other local interests in the area, and their views taken into account throughout the review process. It also required that the final proposals submitted to the Ministry of Housing and Local Government and accepted by it, with or without modification, should be presented to the Parliament. In London, reform was initiated by the setting up of a Royal Commission in 1957, which reported in 1960.

In 1963, London Government Act, which followed the general
conception of the Royal Commission but with certain modifications received Royal assent. In 1965, the new machinery of Local Government in Greater London comes into effect. The main pattern of local government organisation, outside Greater London, is a division of the country into County Boroughs and Administration Committees and independent of them. The Administrative Counties are subdivided into smaller units; non-County Boroughs and County Districts — consisting urban districts and rural districts, the last named being further divided into rural Parishes. Each of these divisions has its own power functions and duties and was to be administered by its own elected Council. Alongside the legislative processes the machinery for the implementation of these laws automatically underwent some basic changes. The volume of work went on increasing with the growth of economic activities of the nation and welfare activities of the local areas. With the advent of Industrial Revolution the complexion of the society changed. Overcrowded cities cropped up and new demands multiplied in numbers and complexity called for basic changes in the structure of local government. Modernisation led to multiplicity of demands and industrialisation increased the role of local bodies. The role of Bureaucracy became more and more pronounced and the local government acquired the shape of local government. The relationship between the national government and the counties was put on a legal basis and statutes were passed to regulate their mutual relationships. Administrative relationship
also became more pronounced. The inherent defects of local bodies, both in conception and execution, were removed and services gradually became more efficient and stable.

Under the Saxon kings local government was simple and strong. This has been called the golden age of local government in England. In Saxon times the pressure on local government was slightly felt. The main duties of a free man to the State were comprehended in the duties of military service, the maintenance of bridges and the repair of fortifications. As regards administrative government, the Shire was almost independent. They were subdivided into Hundreds and these again were subdivided into Townships. These townships grew in size, area, population and acquired big cities which turned into Administrative Counties.

The Evolution of Local Government in the U.S.A. — Early trends

The evolution of American local government can be traced back to the self-governing institutions of the Anglo-Saxons, which were to be found in Britain during the fifth century A.D. In the American colonies, cities were known as Boroughs traced from English system. The American Boroughs were based upon the Charters. "A few colonial communities, like Boston, which were not legally municipalities, were urban in reality." 1 At the close

of 17th century, there were nearly 200 municipal corporations in the country. Their set up based upon the Charter issued by the King. Each had a unicameral council headed by a Mayor and consisting of Aldermen and Councilmen. Like the magistrates, the Mayor and the Aldermen performed judicial functions. Many of the Borough Councils were permanent and the members held offices for life. Chief officers to the city, like the administrative officers today, were appointed by the Council. These officers provided trade and commercial facilities rather than public functions.

Early American cities, like the English ones, sprang from the Charters of the Crown. These Charters were not issued by the King as in England but issued by the Governor or Proprietor acting in the name of the Crown. A unicameral legislative body of Councilmen, Aldermen and Mayor was established. Mayors and Aldermen exercised the judicial functions. Under the Charter of 1730 provision was made that the Governor had authority to appoint the Mayor and Recorder.

After the revolution, American local government took a different direction from the English model. The powers of Governor were reduced and the legislative powers were enlarged in all the States. From 1776 to 1800, an indigenous form of municipal government was set up. Baltimore's Charter of 1796 set up a bicameral city Council. One Chamber was elected by the property owners and the second was chosen by an Electrol
Collegio. This Charter provided the power of veto to the Mayor. Some administrative officials were appointed by the Mayor, but such appointments had to be made from the list of eligibles submitted by the City Council.¹

By 1850, all municipal governments had mostly elected Mayors. Bicameral City Council and the elected administrative officials. Judicial functions were taken away from the Mayor and council members and had been granted to special courts, such as justices of peace, police courts and so on. In Chicago Charter of 1837, provision was made for the election of an Assessor by each ward, but the power rested in the Council to appoint a Clerk, Treasurer, City Attorney, Street Commissioner and Police Constable. This made an arrangement for department of police finance, street repairs, etc. The heads of these departments were elected every three years by the people. The Charter of San Francisco in 1851 provided the provision for the election of Mayor, Recorder, Treasurer, Attorney, Street Commissioner and three Assessors.²

Municipal Corporation, during first half of the 19th century, came under the control and supervision of the State. There were many reasons for increased State control over Municipal Corporations, for one thing, the people of cities were unhappy about local developments. In this period, the

¹ W.B. Munro, Municipal Government and Administration, New York (1930), Vol.1, pp.92-93.
unicameral councils in some places replaced by the bicameral councils.

The latter half of the 19th century was dynamic period in the municipal history. The increasing number of inhabitants and the continuous demand for public works and services brought new difficulties for the governmental machinery. In the second half of the 19th century, relations between States and localities disclosed two conflicting trends. Although legislature continued to interfere in municipal affairs by the Acts, constitutional changes were shaped either to strict legislative directions or to permit municipal initiative as in Home Rule. In 1857, a metropolitan police board was established under State control for New York city. Municipal home rule in primary sense meant the right of the municipality to shape their own charter, to determine its form of organisation and to supervise the powers given by State law. In broad sense, home rule was a field of local action or power within which the city was free in its conduct of local affairs. The municipality would have full and complete control of its own affairs, and the State would direct all matters of state concerned.

During the last half of the 19th century rapid urbanisation brought good and bad alike for the government. Strong Mayor or by a weak Mayor plan developed as a solution to government by Council or by a weak Mayor and Council. Boards became a common means of directing municipal departments. State interference in the municipal departments was to limited extent and
the home rule plan was launched. The bad condition of American city during 20 years following the Civil War so widespread that Lord Bryce wrote in 1888, "There is no denying the governments of cities is the one conspicuous failure of United States."¹ The continuous corruption and the general unwieldiness of municipal governmental machinery, together with irresponsible in efficient wasteful government in many cities.

During the present century, municipal government underwent drastic changes in its formal construction, until 1900 Federal and State models were heavier in their influence upon Municipal Charter. The original English Borough had ceased to be the pattern. This departure was marked by the elective transformation into the mayoralty and in the growth of administrative management to that office. In the 20th century two new forms further emphasized the Council. The Commission idea adopted first and used the Council not only a little representative body of administrators individually with collective responsibility for ordinance but also responsible for specific departments in a city. Council Manager Plan depended upon a new division of responsibilities, authority over ordinances, but without administrative function in relation to individual departments. Executive leadership in administration was given to a manager appointed and removed by the Council. Under the commission plan

the mayor has lost the veto power in most charters and the executive functions in the government. In the Council Manager Plan the Mayor rarely had a veto power and lost the authority to appoint the departmental heads. In theory and practice, the Mayor became a presiding officer in big cities. Most of the cities are functioning successfully under their weak mayor and a few strong mayors.

The 20th century shows more developments in the municipal organisation and in the administration than any period of history. The commission plan dissipates the idea that a city government had to reflect national and state models in separation of power, check and balance, bicameralism. The local bodies gradually lost their decentralised character and became more and more centralised in operation. Traditions, usages and conventions gave place to written charters, laws, bylaws ordinances, decrees, executive orders, judicial decisions, etc.

The models local government in general were adopted from U.K. and once they found sprouts, they developed according to the requirements of the thirteen states in which the U.S.A. was divided.

The scales were turned in favour of the unicameral council. The mostly adopted the council manager plan. The home rule system had improved state city relations in spite of the limitations it revealed.

In an institutional sense, the English Borough gave shape to
American municipal government, although it ceased to be a determining factor after the colonial period.

**Evolution of Local Government in France**

The French local government is different from the English local government. Modern France is a highly centralised unitary state. Under the Ancient Regime the country was ruled by the monarch and he had all the governmental powers. In that period, the country was divided into the provinces for the purpose of civil administration. Originally this unit was set up for the collection of taxes. The province was called the Generalite and presided over by an official called Intendant. The Generalite was like a district in India and the position of the intendant was similar to that of the Deputy Commissioner in our country. These Intendants were appointed by the monarch and were responsible to him. The will of the Monarch was put into action by him. Like the Deputy Commissioners in India, they practically look after all aspects of district administration — law and order, justice and revenue. Under the reign of Louis XIV, the centralised administration reached at its apex.

During the last days of absolute monarchy, French local government had fallen on bad days. The development of commercial centres, the feudal lords were thrown in the provincial cities. In some cases, cities were granted Charter which entitled them

1 S.R., Nigam, op. cit., p.83
"to elect their own local officers, to make their own by-laws, to be exempt from outside taxation and even to maintain military establishment of their own." In other cases the degree of freedom was found very little. The citizens of various communities soon feel to fighting over. The situation became so disturbing that the monarch had to interfere in interest of better administration and law and order.

The original charters were replaced by the Royal Ordinances which solidified the central control over municipal affairs. Locally elected officers were replaced by appointed functionaries. By the 18th century it became the practice that the citizens were called upon to pay heavy taxes for the municipal administration and got little or nothing in return. Under such a system municipal government was shot through with corruption, inefficiency and disorder.

After the French Revolution in 1789, the old system of local government was altered. The Constituent Assembly of 1790 issued an ordinance which abolished the Generalities and divided the whole nation into a number of Departments (Districts). Again the each Department was further sub-divided into small districts latter called Arrondissements. These Arrondissements were again divided into Cantons. Each Canton contained a number of communes.

In addition to hierarchical system, arrangements introduced

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a considerable degree of popular control. In each department, a Council of 36 members chosen by manhood suffrage, was constituted while for the Communes there was to be a simple framework of local government consisting of popularly elected Council and Mayor.

The revolutionary terror swallowed up the country. In many parts of the country, administration and financial chaos prevailed.

With coming of Napoleon as First Consul and later as Emperor, brought this trend towards centralisation to a climax. Napoleon abolished the local autonomy both by Departments and Communes. A direct representative of Prefect was appointed to control the affairs of each department. The Council of Department became an appointing body and its powers were reduced. It was also decreed that Communes were to be governed by a Mayor with a few assistants and a Council (depending upon population). The members of the Council were appointed either directly by the Central Government or indirectly through its local agents, the Prefect. Napoleon's administration created a suitable pyramid of administrative control and weakened the Central trends in administration.

After the fall of Napoleon in 1815, till the incarnation of the Third Republic in 1871, a fairly and strong system of local autonomy was established. The Monarchy of Louis Philippe brought a legislation in 1833-38, which made the Departmental and Municipal Councils elected in nature and increased their scope and powers. It was decided by the government of the Second Republic that the Mayor and his assistant
should be chosen from the membership of the popularly elected Communal Council and should be responsible for directing the local public sources.

In August, 1871, the National Assembly made the law, which greatly increased the matters on which the departmental councils might legislate and somewhat reduced the supervisory authority of the Prefect. The Act of 1871 still functions as the organic law on the organisation and status of the Department.

In 1884, the National Legislature made a law in which more powers were given to the Commune. This Municipal Code has been called "Charter of French Municipal Liberties". Since then it adopted the legal basis for urban and rural government throughout France except the capital city, which enjoys a special status.

Since 1884, the municipal code has been amended only in minor particulars generally in the directions of increased local advantages. The financial difficulties into which many local areas fell in the period of post-World War I economic crisis forced such areas to turn to the State for abundant grant-in-aid, leading to a sharp revival of central control over local especially municipal matters.

The popular basis of government locally has been significantly widened since World War II due to the enfranchisement of women. But limited scope for autonomy is still a characteristic feature of the French system of local government. Municipal Home Rule has no place in the political philosophy of France.
Paris has a slightly different form of government. Being the metropolis of France, has needs and problems which differ from the rest of the country. It is situated in the Department of Seine. Even this department differs from the normal pattern of Departmental organisation.

In France local government was centralised from the very beginning. The Prefect represented bureaucracy and there was no self-government worth the name and all legislative and executive powers were located in the Central Government. In its scheme of self-government, India had to borrow little from France. These two systems were poles apart, one verging on centralisation and the other tending to adopt decentralisation.
Chapter II

THE EVOLUTION OF LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN INDIA

In the Federal polity of India the term local government is meant the State Government, and the local-self government is meant the municipal government of a district city or town. Literally by the term local self-government is meant the governance of a town, in respect of certain functions, performed by the people of that area or by their representatives. It is in these above mentioned senses that the term local self-government has been used in the following pages.

It is said that the origin of local self-government had very deep roots in ancient India. On the basis of historical records, excavations and archeological investigations, it is believed that some form of local-self-government did exist in the remote past. In the Vedas and in the writings of Manu, Kautilya and others, and also the records of some travellers like Magasthne, the origin of local self-government can be traced back to the Buddhist period.¹

The Ramayana and the Mahabharata also point to the existence of several forms of local self-government such as

Paura (guild), Naigama, Pauga and Gana, performing various administrative and legislative functions and raising levies from different sources.

Local self-government continued during the succeeding period of Hindu rule in the form of town committees, which were known as 'Goshthia' and 'Mahajan Samites'. The representative character of these Samites was respected by the rulers. These Mahajans sometimes delegated their functions to their representatives or to Panchakulas (committees of Five) who used to collect revenue on behalf of the state. In addition to Panchakulas, 'Talara', an officer of the state, supervised the local administration and policing with the help of the elected representatives.¹

In the Mauryan period, followed by the Gupta era and subsequently in the medieval period, the system of local self-government continued to be more or less the same. However, the system of local self-government was quite different in the Mughal period. The representative character was abolished and the whole administration of a city was placed in the charge of a nominated government official known as the 'Kotwal', who not only controlled the various municipal activities, but also performed certain magisterial functions, including the control over police and intelligence. Such a system gave no way to any degree of public or civil participation. There was no scope

¹ Dashrath Sharma, Early Chauhan Dynasties from 800 BC to 1300 AD, Macmillan Co., London, pp.203-204.
for the local people's either in policy making process or the actual administration of the city or town. The Ain-i-Akbari of Abul Fazl (1600 A.D.) mentions, "Kotwal is the supreme authority in every city, in all matters."¹

In the later period during the Mughal rule in India, the system of local self-government suffered a marked decline, not only were the urban areas maladministered, but most of them lay unhealthy and unclean till the time the British came and assumed authority. "Between the breakdown of Mughal rule and the extension of control by the East India Company in the 17th century, the country suffered a period of anarchy or military despotism resulting in the breakdown of the social framework and local institutions."²

Local self-government in the modern form was introduced in India in 1687 when the Municipal Corporation was formed for the city of Madras. The Corporation consisted of a Mayor, alderman and the local people. This local body was authorized to collect taxes for the maintenance and development of the city. The Corporation was formed because the East India Company believed that the people of India would willingly pay, "five shillings for the public good, being taxed by themselves, than six pence raised by our despotical power."³ In 1726, the Madras Municipal

³ S.R. Maheshwari, Local Government in India (Orient Longmans, Delhi, 1971, p. 15.)
Corporation was replaced by a Mayor's Court, which was by and large a judicial organisation. In 1793, the Charter Act was passed and the municipal administration was extended to the three towns of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. It gave powers to the Governor-General of India to appoint Justices of Peace in these towns. The justices of peace were empowered to collect taxes of residential houses and lands, to provide for the construction of roads and other development works. The municipal administration was established in the district towns in Bengal in 1842, when the Bengal Act was passed. In 1850, the British Government passed another Act which was applicable to the whole of India. "The setting up of a municipality was still dependent on the wishes of the inhabitants; municipal functions included conservancy, road repairs, lighting, the framing of bye-laws and the enforcement of fines. Power of taxation included the levy of indirect taxes." However, this Act was used only in the North-Western Provinces and Bombay to a certain extent.

The Royal Army Sanitary Commission presented its report in 1863, which again speeded up the growth of the local bodies. The report made clear reference to the dirty condition of the Indian towns. As a result several Acts were passed in different provinces and several new municipalities were established in order to perform the functions of public health. Furthermore,

1 Hugh, Tinker, The Foundation of local government in India, Pakistan and Burma (Lalwani Publishing House, Bombay), 1959, p. 29.
the Governor-General, Lord Lawrence's Resolution granted more taxation powers to any town that should pay for the police, and authorized that "surplus funds after meeting the cost of town police, can be devoted to education and local improvement works."

This system was self governing only in appearance. Election of representatives was not adopted and the local administrators were mostly nominated. During the rule of East India Company, the basic interests of the British were trade and commerce. Bombay, Calcutta and Madras were the important trading centres in India which performed the trade between India and England. The main purpose of the British to introduce local self-government in India was to serve their own interests rather than introduce local self governing bodies. By 1870, every important town of India had a municipality but these municipalities were put under the District Magistrates. The local people were inducted only for raising funds for the police and development works.

In 1870, Lord Mayo's Resolution came into force. In this Resolution emphasis was given on the decentralization from the Centre to the Provinces. It was also stated that Indians should be associated in the administration, and the municipal government was best for that purpose. This plan of Lord Mayo, for decentralisation desired that "the central government should be

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1 Report of the Rural-Urban Relationship Committee Ministry of Health and Family Planning Vol 1, June 1966, P.7
relieved of its responsibility for providing funds for local purposes but its operative provisions made it necessary to develop municipal institutions. Thus it can be said that the representative local self-government in India was established by the British rulers with two main considerations, firstly, to provide on the spot solution to administrative problems faced due to the large size of the country and secondly, to provide finances to imperial authority. The purpose of Mayo's reform was to lessen the burden on imperial finances. The provincial governments were short of funds so far as the transferred subjects were concerned. Furthermore, the main object of the Mayo's resolution was to promote the education, public health, sanitation, medical relief and local civic works and also given facilities to self-government for strengthening municipal institutions. To make success of Lord Mayo's Resolution several new municipal Acts were passed in various provinces.

Till 1882, local self-government was functioning without the participation of Indians and therefore, it was neither 'local' nor 'self-government'. Political feelings were gradually spreading among Indians when Lord Ripon was appointed Governor-General of India. He gave his personal attention to the problems of the local self-government. His Resolution of 1882 is regarded as Magna Carta of local self-government in India. According to

Lord Ripon, local self-government was "an instrument of political and popular education."¹

Lord Ripon's Resolution introduced a new era in the constitution, powers and functions of the municipal bodies which were greatly changed. The system of election for the municipal bodies was introduced, with a limited franchise. Although the chairmanship was open to non-officials according to his resolution, this part of the resolution was not implemented and an official remained ex-officio chairman. Thus the local self-government failed to make any satisfactory progress as was intended by Lord Ripon's Resolution.

In 1909, Royal Commission on decentralization submitted its report in which it clearly remarked that the local self-government has so far been a failure. The Commission remarked that "local bodies should not only have the non-official majority and elected chairman, but genuinely elected members too. Regarding finances of local bodies which were inadequate and had no freedom to shape their own budgets."² It was also suggested that some independence should be granted to local bodies to collect their own taxes, subject to the approval of the government for any change in the taxation system and policies. The government control over the local borrowings still continued. The commission also remarked that the local bodies should be more

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¹ S.R. Maheshwari, op. cit., p. 17.
representative of the people and in the local affairs. Their authority should be real and not nominal. Furthermore, they should not be subjected to unnecessary control, and should learn by making mistakes.

The recommendations of the Decentralization Commission 1909, were not implemented due to some unknown reasons and were only implemented at the time when the Montague Chelmsford Reforms of 1919 gave a measure of autonomy to the provincial legislatures. The administration of local self-government was taken out of the hands of the district officers and placed under a department which was controlled by a popular minister. Furthermore, the franchise for election to local bodies was also enlarged.

The Government of India Act of 1919 came into force in 1920. By this Act responsible government was established in the provinces by introducing the system of dyarchy or dual government. Certain functions like cooperation, agriculture and local self-government were handed over to the popularly elected ministers who were responsible to the legislature. In this period a large number of amending Acts were passed on local self-government in every province. The restrictions which were imposed on local bodies in respect of the preparation of budget, and the executive control were transferred to the elected members of the public. It can be said that the local self-government was marching in the direction of democracy. With the democratization of the local self-government, one finds a
gradual decline in the efficiency of the administration of local affairs. Corruption, nepotism and favouratism increased in every province and the local civil services came under the influence of local politicians. Jawahar Lal Nehru, when he was the Chairman of Allahabad Municipal Board in 1924 and 1925, wrote the following about his experiences of the working of local self-government in India. "Year after year government resolutions and officials and some newspapers criticised municipalities and local boards and pointed out to their many failings. And from this it may be inferred that democratic institutions were not suited to India. Their failings are obvious enough but little attention is paid to the framework within which they have to function. This framework is neither democratic nor autocratic; it is the cross between the two, and has the disadvantages of both."

In 1930, the Simon Commission made a thorough study of the problems of local self-government in India. The Commission came to this conclusion that efficiency of the local self-government depends upon the control or pressure which is exercised by the provincial government. It is concluded that the financial resources of the local bodies are too inadequate to produce a trained personnel for the local bodies.

The Government of India Act 1935 came into force in 1936, which replaced the dyarchical system of government and the

system of provincial autonomy was introduced. In April 1937, the provincial autonomy was inaugurated. The popularly elected members were drawn into the affairs of the provincial governments. The provisions were made under this Act, that the provincial governments were empowered to enlarge their resources of revenue. Terminal taxes were transferred to the centre from the province. Furthermore, so many provisions were made in this Act, so that identity of interest could be maintained between the provincial and local administration.

When the popularly elected ministries came in power in 1946, the problems of local self-government were studied afresh and the recommendations of the various committees were constituted in order to improve the structure and working of local bodies. But the recommendations of various committees could not be implemented due to the resignation of popular ministries, and the Second World War hampered the growth and development of local self-government in India.

In 1947, when the country achieved independence, a new period started in the history of local self-government. With the end of the British rule there was self-government at all the levels — Central, State and Local. After achieving independence a new chapter opened in the socio-political reforms which resulted in the establishment of a federal system of administration in the country. The universal adult suffrage was introduced. India was to be a welfare state having a socialistic pattern of society. Amending legislations were
passed in all the States of India in order to democratize the constitution for widening the functions and powers to raise finances of local bodies. The planning and implementation work based upon democratic pattern and popular initiative was provided in the Constitution. However, great importance has been attached to laying down a smooth and strong system of local self-government in the rural areas. Article 40 of the Constitution of India clearly lays down, "State shall take steps to organize village Panchayats and to endow them to function as a unit of self-government", but this provision was opposed by Dr. Ambedkar himself and was provided with great difficulty.

The Janapada Scheme for rural areas in the Central Provinces was an unique creation of the first order. It anticipates the Balwantary pattern of local self-government. It brings government closer to the people by the adoption of tehsil as the unit of government, thus there was shifting emphasis from the district to the smaller area of tehsil. The Janapada scheme was implemented in 1948. In spite of short comings it had a historical role to play in the development of local self-government in the Central Provinces. In the new set up the three tier system of local self-government for the rural areas has great advantages.

With the coming of the present Constitution into force in 1950, the local self-government entered a new phase. The

1 Constitution of India, Article 40.
Constitution of India has allotted the local self-government to the State list of functions. Since independence many important legislation for reshaping the local self-government has been passed in many States of India. The constitutions of local bodies were democratized by the introduction of adult suffrage and the abolition of communal representation.

The main features of these legislative measures are as follows:

(a) Adult Franchise replaced limited franchise in local bodies in all the States.

(b) The U.P. Amendment Act of 1952 and the Madhya Bharat Act of 1954, had given facilities for the election of the President of the municipal boards directly. This experiment, however, failed and the States bent back to the old pattern of the Chairman or President being elected by councillors.

(c) Provisions were made to strengthen the position of the Chief Executive by giving him specific powers under the Act by providing for appointment of Executive Officer where there were none.

(d) Provisions were made to regulate the appointments, promotion and disciplinary control of municipal staff and to adopt the practice of making certain appointments on the recommendations of Public Service Commission.

The subject of local self-government have been exclusively assigned to the State. These local bodies are facing now the political, administrative, financial and technical problems of
great magnitude. An attempt has been made to present all these factors in their proper perspective and to suggest certain measures of reform.

Before independence, there were only three municipal corporations in India. But after independence a tremendous increase in existence of municipal corporation came and at present the number of corporations has increased upto thirty-three.

The history of Municipal Corporation in Uttar Pradesh starts from 1938, when the committee on local self-government gave its recommendation that those municipalities which, had a population of $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakh$^1$ or above and their annual income exceeded not below 15 lakh rupees per annum, should be declared as Corporations. Their powers and privileges were to be defined by the State government.$^2$ In July 1953,$^3$ the U.P. Government took a decision to set up Municipal Corporations in five big cities.$^4$ There was a continuous demand for a reformation of municipal administration in these cities. The demand of better

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1 A 'lakh' is 1,00,000.


3 V.N. Sharma (Minister for Local self-Government), "Our Nagar Mahapalikas: Major steps towards better civic rule", Northern India Patrika (Supplement), February 1, 1960.

4 Kanpur, Agra, Varanasi, Allahabad and Lucknow, popularly known as KAVAI Towns.
civic amenities enlarged the scope of municipal administration. The U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916, could not endorse the demands of the people for their requirements and complexities of the new situation.\(^1\) In this Act, there was not a well defined division between the deliberative and the executive power and functions. The municipal council had the power to perform these functions alone. The administration was run through the Committees.\(^2\) Their powers, composition and the number were different from board to board.\(^3\) The executive authority was divided between the committees and officers, which made it a weak executive; especially in big cities where specialised administration was needed with expert handling.\(^4\)

In big cities, beside the Municipal Board, Improvement Trusts (or the Development Board in the case of Kanpur), were also functioning for developmental works. To avoid the duplication of efforts and to remove the conflicts of functions between the two bodies\(^5\) a demand for unified system of civic administration was made in the KAVAL towns. Thus we have the

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2 Section 104, U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916, gave power to the Municipal Boards to create as many committees as was necessary.

3 In Kanpur and Banaras, for instance, there were 11 and 8 Committees respectively; Sharma, M.P., Local Self-Government and Finance in Uttar Pradesh (Kitab Mahal, Allahabad, 1954), p. 59.


origin of the Municipal Corporations in Uttar Pradesh. The U.P. Municipalities Act, 1916, the U.P. Town Improvement Act 1919 and the Kanpur Urban Area Development Act, 1945, were modified and some new improvements were made which may be applied to the KAVAL towns.

It was assumed before the introduction of corporation system of Local Self-Government that the appointment of administrator for one year or so, is necessary for the smooth functioning of the local bodies. The administrators were only responsible for the government without the fear of municipal politics of the KAVAL towns. The draft bill for enforcement was ready in 1953, but, owing to some political reasons, it could not put forth before the legislature till April, 1957. Consequently, the administrators had a long term.

After the first perusal the bill was sent to the Joint Select Committee of the House. The Select Committee made certain changes in the bill in connection with the composition and tenure of the Corporation; the electoral qualification


2 The Bill was published in the Gazette Extra Ordinary, April 16, 1957.

3 Report of the Joint Select Committee on the U.P. Municipal Corporation Bill 1957. The Committee held its sitting in the Secretariat at Naini Tal on June 12, 13, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 24, 25, 26 and at Vidhan Bhavan, Lucknow, on July 17, 18, 26, 27, 29, 30 and August 5, 22, 28, 1957.
and the powers of the Mayor; the term of the powers of Deputy Mayor, the Municipal Chief Auditor and the Medical Officer of Health; and the powers of the State Government to suppression and dissolution of the elected members (Councillors) of the Corporation. The Select Committee also fixed the maximum numbers of Councillor to 90 in a corporation and the number of aldermen at 1/3 of the total number of the Councillors. The bill was passed on September 15, 1958 by the State Legislature Assembly and on December 17, 1958, by the State Legislative Council. The Bill received the sanction of the President on January 22, 1959.

The Select Committee on the Legislature criticised the weak position of the Mayor and the maximum State control over the Municipal Corporations. It was suggested that some executive authority should be given to the Mayor; he must not be a figure head and his term of office may also be extended which was for one year according to the Bill. The power of the State Government over Municipal Commissioner to call upon him at any time for getting information, reports, explanation or statistics consultation about municipal corporations was

3 The Act was published in the U.P. Gazette Extra-Ordinary, January 24, 1959.
also criticised. 1

After receiving the sanction of the President, the preparations were made to set up the Corporations in the KAVAL towns. The composition of each Municipal Corporation (Nagar Mahapalika) was defined by the State Government. 2 The term of each Nagar Mahapalika was for five years with provision for next one year extension, and in an emergency for another one year. 3 In Uttar Pradesh, the elections for the five municipal corporations were held on October 25, 1959. 4

The Corporations were constituted on February 1, 1960, and the first term of the five KAVAL Corporations expired on 31st January 1965, but the State Government extended their term for next one year. And after that no further extension was granted to the five KAVAL Corporations in the State. Consequently, they were dissolved by an Ordinance issued by the State Government on January 25, 1966. 5

1 The powers of the State Government to this effect were contained in Clause 527, Sub-clause (2) of the Bill, and they were incorporated in Section 531, Sub-clause (2) of the U.P. Nagar Mahapalika Adhiniyam, 1959.

2 Sharma, V.N., Minister for Local Self-Government, "Our Nagar Mahapalika, major steps towards better civic rule", Northern India Patrika (Supplement), February 1, 1960.

3 U.P. Nagar Mahapalika Adhiniyam, 1959 (U.P. Act II of 1959), Section 8.

4 Civic Affairs (Kanpur), Vol. 7, November 1959, p. 84.

5 Ibid., Vol. 13, No. 7, February 1966. The Ordinance was called 'The Uttar Pradesh Nagar Mahapalika (Alpkalika Vyavastha) Adhyadesh, 1966.'
Elections for the Office of the Deputy Mayor were held in February, 1960. The elections for the Mayor were held in December 1959, January 1961, April 1962, April 1963, April 1964, and April 1965.

Municipal Corporations in Uttar Pradesh have been functioning since February 1, 1960, after passing the U.P. Nagarpalika Adhiniyam 1959, which was passed by the State Legislature. Under this Act, the Municipal Corporations were set up in five big towns of Uttar Pradesh, which are generally and collectively known as KAVAR towns. Municipal Corporation is the topmost pinnacle of urban local bodies. The main object in setting up of these Corporations was to strengthen their financial resources so that they could provide better civic services and amenities to the people. The Municipal Corporations were over-populated, spread over a larger area and had immense problems to settle.

Municipal corporations exercise authority over other forms

1 National Herald (Lucknow), February 7-8, 1960.
3 Civic Affairs (Kanpur), Vol. 8, February 1961, p. 100.
4 Ibid., Vol. 9, No. 10, May 1962, p. 117.
7 Ibid., Vol. 12, No. 10, May 1965, pp. 63-65; Also see National Herald (Lucknow), June 28, 1965.
of urban government. In our country, urban local government is not hierarchical in character like rural local government. The Corporation form of urban government is meant essentially for bigger cities where civic problems assume a high degree of complexity. The different States adopt different criteria in establishing the Municipal Corporations. As supposed, Corporation vary considerably both in terms of populations and resources. In functions, a Municipal Corporation is different from other of urban body. A Municipal Corporation has more powers and functions, almost identical with those of other local bodies, and divided into obligatory and optional categories. A Municipal Corporation enjoys power of having direct dealings with the State Government whereas the other local bodies comes under the control of the Collector and the Divisional Commissioner.¹

The Rural-Urban Relationship Committee (1966) recommended a corporation form of government only for those cities which have a population not less than 5,00,000 and annual income of not less than 10,000,000 rupees. Broadly speaking, the following criteria may be considered for setting up a Municipal Corporation for a city:

1. Existence of thickly populated area.

2. Existing development of the Municipality and its future prospects of the development.

¹ Report of the Rural-Urban Relationship Committee, (1966) op. cit., p. 11
3. Financial position of the municipality.

4. Ability of the people to bear the burden of increased taxation.

5. Public opinion in favour of a Corporation.

6. Modern amenities such as motorised roads, mass media, quick transport, etc.

A Municipal Corporation comprises the Council, Councillors, Aldermen, Mayor, Deputy Mayor and Committees. The official appointed by the State Government known as Commissioner or Mukhya Nagar Adhikari. The Council is the constituent unit of the Municipal Corporation. It comprises members, called Councillors. The Councillor are elected on the basis of adult franchise for a period varying from 3 to 5 years. In U.P., they are elected for a period of 5 years. For the purpose of Councillor’s election, the city is divided into as many wards as there are members or seats in the Council. The Council is regarded as the Legislative Assembly of the Corporation. Some corporations, like Bombay, are consist of only elective element, others include aldermen also. The aldermen are elected by the Councillors and enjoy all the privileges of the elected Councillors.

The Mayor is first citizen of the city. He presides over the meetings of the Council. He is elected by the Councillors including aldermen by a secret ballot. In U.P. he is elected in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of single transferable vote. His period of office is one
year, which is renewable. He is a nominal and ceremonial Head. In KAVAL towns, the Mayor need not be a member of the Council. The Mayor exercises administrative control over the Council. He has the power to call an emergency meeting of the Council. In U.P., the Mayor recruits the people for the various posts carrying a monthly salary of Rs. 500.00 and above with the consultation of the State Public Service Commission. The one year term of the Mayor was subject to many objections. Firstly, it is too short, so that the Mayor could not help in planning on a large term basis and he does not acquire insight into the problems of Municipal Administration. Secondly, it strengthens bureaucracy, headed by the Municipal Commissioners. Thirdly, if a period of one year is provided, he finds himself in tight corner. The period of the Mayor needs to be strengthened to enable its incumbent to emerge as the leader of a self-reliant, self-governing and self-respecting community. The following suggestions, if implemented, would go a long way in solving the problems:

1. The term of the Mayor should be made co-terminus with that of the Council; and

2. The Mayor should be consulted by the State Government while making appointment for the Commission for the Corporation.

The Deputy Mayor is elected by the Councillors from amongst and the tenure of his office is of one year in all the Corporations except in U.P. In U.P., his tenure is continuous with that of the Mahapalika (i.e., five years).
The Committees set up by the Councils may be divided into two categories — Statutory and Non-statutory. A Statutory Committee is one which has been constituted by the Statute in KAVAL towns of U.P. Each has two Statutory Committees — Executive Committee and Development Committee. The Executive Committee whose Chairman was the Deputy Mayor, was elected for a five-year term. Both the Committees, having divided from original intentions, they were later abolished by an Amendment of the Statute and in their places a Standing Committee has been set up.
BROAD ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP OF THE MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS IN UTTAR PRADESH

MAHAPALIKA
(General Body)

Deliberative Wing

Mayor

Executive Wing

Deputy Mayor

Executive Committee

Development Committee

Mukhya Nagar Adhikari

Up Nagar Adhikari

Sahayak Nagar Adhikari

Superintendent

Assistant Superintendent

Other Staff

Nagar Adhyanta

Sahayak Nagar Adhyanta

Overseers

Other Staff

Political Executive

Permanent Executive
Chapter III

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF BIG CITIES IN THE
INDUSTRIAL AREAS

The industrial areas of the big cities have some special problems, viz., urbanisation, housing, clearance of slum and the ecology of the pollution, etc. There are two main reasons for the complexity of these problems. Firstly, urban population is multiplying rapidly due to the natural increase due to the excess of birth over deaths. Secondly, a net influx into the towns or industrial centres from rural areas. These days, both factors are more or less equally responsible but the second factor is predominant. The standard of living of rural population is in no way better, so the poor people migrate from these centres in the hope of getting better jobs with higher salaries. Consequently, they create numerous problems in these areas.

It is quite obvious that the problems born of these factors are multiplying so fast that measures for reform can hardly cope with these problems. Adequate steps become inadequate in view to these evergrowing shortcomings. Reforms
in the urban sector are difficult to achieve due to multifaceted difficulties. Means of bringing about reforms are limited and the self-generating multi-dimensional issues are legion. In India over-populated cities are a source of botheration. Their administration is placed under different political and administrative structures.

Urbanisation

Urbanisation is a process by which villages are getting converted into towns and towns are converted into cities. It is a visible indication of fast economic growth in India which is more than set off by growing population in the cities.

Criteria of defining urbanisation are different from country to country, and in India the concept 'urban' applies to places within corporation, municipality, town area, notified area and all the places with a minimum population of 5,000, where at least 75 per cent of the male population should be engaged in non-agricultural activities, when the density of population is at least 1,000 per square mile.¹

India is the second largest populous country in the world, but has very low percentage of urban population as compared to other countries of the world. In India the urban population is 20 per cent of the total population, while in England urban

¹ Census of India 1971, Series I (India), Paper I of 1971, Supplement, Provisional Population Totals, Chapter II, p.3.
population is 80 per cent, in Japan the urban population is 64 per cent. According to an estimate the urban population of India is 4 times less than that of the United Kingdom, 2.5 times less than in the U.S.S.R. and 2 times less than in U.S.A.

Industrial facilities constitute the main cause of the flow of population from rural areas to urban areas. It is an indicator of the decline in the percentage of rural population and increase in the urban population. The rate at which urbanisation is taking place is obvious from the fact that:

"Between 1800 and 1950, the population of the world, living in cities with 20,000 or more inhabitants, increased from about 21.7 million to 505.2 million, expanding 23 times in 150 years, while the total world population expanded about 2.6 times in the same period. 2.4 per cent of the world's population lived in urban centres of 20,000 or more in 1800, 20.9 per cent in 1950."¹

In developing countries like India, urbanisation has increased from the lack of man power demand in rural areas. The young people of the rural areas or small towns migrate to the big cities with this hope to get better jobs with higher salary. They have little interest in agriculture or in rural industries. Due to the fast growth of urban areas, rural population looks nowhere to diminish. The framers of policies in developing

¹ Gerald Breese, Urbanisation in newly developing countries, Bureau of urban research, Princeton University, p.14, quoting report on the World Social Situation including studies of urbanisation in underdeveloped areas (New York, United Nations), 1957, p.113.
countries started industrialisation and urbanisation are interdependent, the spread of industrialisation is healthy sign. In the last few years, several industrial towns in different parts of the country have been established, but the flow of population on big towns and cities is continued. The migration of the unemployed from the rural areas or small towns to big cities or industrial centres is another factor responsible for the increase in population. Thus urbanisation has taken place against a background of a static occupational structure.

India is facing a tremendous increase in urbanisation "an over all growth rate of 2.20 per cent per year with a total population of 440 million, indicates massive problem India faces at present". The problem is again complicated due to uneven regional distribution of urban centres and rapid growth of larger cities. Continuous development of urban areas resulted in chaotic conditions like the growth of areas, increase in land values, shortage of housing and other problems. The flow of population in India is not as high as in other developed countries. But in recent years, migration has become a dominating factor of population redistribution in the country.

The urban areas continue to be the focus of economic and industrial concentration in developing countries. The census of India 1971 revealed that the total population of India is 547 million out of which 109 million live in urban areas. In India there are nine metropolitan cities which have already crossed one million mark. The result is that local administration

in these centres has failed to cope with the fast growth in population and industrial activity and failed to regulate this growth in a planned manner. It is interesting to note that "the place of Calcutta is 7th, Bombay 12th and Delhi 21st out of the 24 cities of the world."1

In the urban areas the forms of local government are municipal corporations and municipalities. A special system of the municipal corporation is the separation of executive from the deliberative or policy making functions, urban administration has become a difficult work and the part-time duty performed by the elected representatives is perhaps unequal to the task. The separation of municipal affairs has been considered necessary and in one form or another this method is evident in all the states.

The process of urbanisation has its impact on the economic, social and cultural life of the rural areas. Thus increasing urbanisation leads to urban development beyond the municipal limits - physical factors, legal difficulties, administrative techniques and the financial scarcities. Cities make it impossible for governmental administration to cope with the problem of expanding urbanisation. The result is the expansion of municipal autonomy and power.

The major policy emphasis for the urbanisation is to check the influx of population to urban areas, and the recurrent problems that it entails. The problems are large in number and their dimension are not to be underestimated. The following table shows the magnitude of the process (Table 2).

**Growth of Population in India between 1901-1971**

Facilities of housing and the related facilities for the increasing population is universal. The remedies for the urban problems has been made difficult by the rapid pace of urbanisation and the lack of resources. For this purpose a number of committees and commissions should be set up to increase financial assistance to local governments. Moreover, little has been done in this direction and local governments are themselves responsible for it.

Many of the ills of urban areas have resulted from a neglect of the requirements of careful planning. Improvements
<table>
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<th>Total population (in millions)</th>
<th>Percentage variation</th>
<th>Urban population (P.C. cities)</th>
<th>Percentage variation</th>
<th>Percentage of total variation</th>
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<td>547.40</td>
<td>+ 24.6</td>
<td>108.90</td>
<td>+ 37.8</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census year</th>
<th>Total population</th>
<th>Decadal percentage variation</th>
<th>Urban population</th>
<th>Urban decadal percentage variation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>48,627,655</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5,390,611</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>48,154,908</td>
<td>- 0.97</td>
<td>4,906,673</td>
<td>- 8.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>46,672,398</td>
<td>- 0.38</td>
<td>4,936,416</td>
<td>+ 0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>49,779,538</td>
<td>+ 6.66</td>
<td>5,568,789</td>
<td>+ 12.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>56,535,154</td>
<td>+ 13.57</td>
<td>7,016,490</td>
<td>+ 26.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>63,219,655</td>
<td>+ 11.82</td>
<td>8,625,699</td>
<td>+ 22.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>73,754,554</td>
<td>+ 16.66</td>
<td>9,479,895</td>
<td>+ 9.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>88,341,144</td>
<td>+ 19.78</td>
<td>12,388,596</td>
<td>+ 30.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

of these conditions can be achieved only through planned development in a suitable manner. Further expansion of big cities should be discouraged and the new towns should be developed on modern lines. At the same time, pressure upon the already strained urban areas must be lightened through a dispersal of industrial activity and light programme of rural civic development.

Slum Problem

Slums may be defined as the dirty and densely populated areas of a city. Slums are not only found in India but they are also found in developed and developing countries. The kinds and degree of slums may be dissimilar in different countries. The slums of developed countries are much better than the under-developed countries. For example, the slums of U.S.A. are better than the good colonies of India and other developing countries.

The slums originate due to the collection of industries and commercial centres in a few urban areas, which attract the people from rural areas or small urban areas to these centres. In Western countries, the problem of slum came to the forefront after the Industrial Revolution. In Britain, with the rapid establishment of industrial units and mechanisation of agriculture, there was sudden flow from rural to urban areas.¹

In India, slums are found particularly in the big industrial cities and towns and have become a characteristic feature of our urban areas. The people from rural areas migrate to these centres with the hope to get better job with higher salary. These migrants develop the housing and slum problem. Those who have a good job and are financially sound acquire accommodation or construct new house. But those who do not have a good job and whose income is low, face serious problem of housing accommodation. They cannot even pay rents of houses, and find shelter in the areas which have either no rent or with very low rent. These areas generally present a very dirty picture. Out of these migrants those who are comparatively better off, take shelter in single roomed accommodation and abandoned houses, etc., and others settle on marshy land near railway lines, roads and in huts made up of rejected material. This is the process by which slums start and they spread as the number of this type of migrants increases. Their surroundings are unhealthy and they constitute the nerve centre of serious diseases in the form of recurring epidemics.

In India, generally, three kinds of slums are found. The first type is one room accommodation in one story to six or more story buildings. In these 5 to 10 or more persons live in a single room. This type of slums are also found in U.S.A. and other developed and underdeveloped countries. In India, there are dark single rooms accommodating five to 10 persons in each room in the cities like Ahmadabad, Kanpur, Delhi, Calcutta and
Bombay. However, the sanitary and health facilities in slums of this type are much better in U.S.A. than that of India.

The second type of slums is, old forts, caves and war ruins. They are legally or illegally occupied and are inferior to that of the first type of slums. This type of slums are found in India, Pakistan, South America, etc.

The third type is hutments, cardboard shelters, situated in marshy areas near railway lines, roads or behind factories and mills. This type of slums is of worst type. These are found in Bombay and Karachi. However, 'worst of this type is in Bombay'. There small huts are found in marshy areas with accumulates of refuse material around them 8 to 10 persons live in a single hut. A line of this kind huts are seen near railway line and roads in marshy areas opposite huge buildings with all luxuries. This shows a picture of disparity. Persons living in these areas are engaged in factories, mills and other productive activities.

According to a survey carried out in Delhi, showed that 66 per cent households were living in only one room while in Bombay it was found that one in every 66 persons was homeless. The density of per person per room, Kanpur occupies the second highest position in the State. In Lucknow it was seen that about 45 cent houses were located in slum areas, only 2 in civil lines and 53 in general areas. The average size of
urban households too increased and it may witness a further increase resulting in further set back of living standard.

In First Five Year Plan, no importance was given to the slum clearance. In Second Five Year Plan a provision was made for the slum clearance and housing scheme. In the initial stages the central government provided 75 per cent financial assistance and the rest 25 per cent was to be raised by the state government. The state government ordered to local bodies to contribute $12^{1/2}$ per cent for the slum clearance scheme. The total outlay for the housing in this plan was Rs. 120 crores out of which Rs. 20 crores were assigned for slum clearance.

In the Second Five Year Plan, for the state of Uttar Pradesh Rs. 196 lakhs were distributed among the municipal corporations of KAVAL cities. In the third Five Year Plan, total outlay for housing scheme was Rs. 202 crores out of which Rs. 28.6 crores were sanctioned for slum clearance and improvement scheme and increased provision of Rs. 3 crores was made in the state, but due to China War and national emergency, this amount was reduced to Rs. 93.199 lakhs.

Table 4 shows the financial position of slum clearance scheme.

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1. Census of India, 1961, Vol. XV, U.P., Part XV-A, p.105. In the year 1911 the average rise of the urban household was 4.54. In 1961 it increased to 5.03.

2. Slum clearance scheme - A pamphlet ground of lean and subsidies to state government for clearance/improvement projects, Govt. of India, Ministry of Works, Housing and Supply, 1957.

for different local bodies in the state:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of city</th>
<th>Amount of financial assistance</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loan</td>
<td>Assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Kanpur</td>
<td>112.89</td>
<td>108.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Allahabad</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Varanasi</td>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Agra</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lucknow</td>
<td>26.49</td>
<td>14.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>154.14</td>
<td>131.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Slum clearance scheme have not succeeded in their objective and the movement was not a success. It was realised that the main difficulty which hampers large-scale clearance of slums is in adequate financial resources of local bodies and the improvement trust.\(^1\) The underdeveloped countries are also facing the lack of finance as a serious difficulty. In India, the importance is given to other sectors in the plan like agriculture, industry and defence, etc., and the housing gets a low priority. "In the First Five Year Plan public investment in housing was 16 per cent of the total public sector investment, in the Second Five Year Plan it was only 8 per cent and in the Third only 7 per cent. In the Fourth Five Year Plan, the percentage is still lower than 5 per cent."\(^2\) In India the

\(^1\) First Five Year Plan, Govt. of India, Chap. XXXV, p.605.
\(^2\) National Herald (New Delhi), August 19, 1968.
Income of about 50 per cent of the urban households is less than Rs. 100 per month and only 12 per cent have an income more than Rs. 300 per month.¹

The slum clearance scheme could not succeed due to various factors and a non-pragmatic approach is one of them. There was no correct assessment of the problem and the money was pooled, even though a small sum, without suitable planning. It also lacked proper execution on the part of the local authority and many of them are shy of taking up new projects for the same reason.

In Uttar Pradesh there was no legislation to supervise the slum clearance scheme till 1962. The Act that governed the working of different local bodies covered this too. The Second Five Year Plan, recommended that the state should have a separate legislation for slum clearance on the lines of central Slum Areas (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1956, as amended in 1964. In 1962, a separate Act was passed to govern the slum areas.²

The people who are living in slums obviously affect the economy of the country in two ways. Firstly, by diminishing the productivity of persons who are residing in slums. Secondly, by enlarging the demand on state exchequer for more free medical facilities including police protection from different kinds of crimes which are committed by the residents in the slums.

¹ Census of India, 1961, Income Tables.
² U.P. Slum Area (Improvement and Clearance) Act, 1962.
Persons living in the slums do not get proper rest and sleep because of unhygienic atmosphere and noise to which they are exposed, even after 6 to 8 hours of hard work due to lack of privacy, dirty surroundings and dingy atmosphere which make them struggle all the time with various odds. As a result of this, their desire for work almost get spoiled and they work because of certain hard pressing needs. Work done in these circumstances is always less than what a work can do if proper housing facilities is provided. Loss of productivity also results because of more frequent absence of workers due to their recurring illness or strikes, which, of course, are staged for improving their lot.

As a result of living in unhygienic conditions, workers and their families contract different kinds of chronic diseases. To cure them or prevent further spread of these diseases, state exchequer is required to provide free medical services. This expenditure could be avoided if proper housing facilities are provided to them. This would, in fact, remove the very source of diseases. The young boys who are living in this atmosphere, learn theft, pickpocketing and gambling etc. To do away these evils government has to incur considerable amount of expenditure. Apart from economic effects of living in slums, there are other sociological and political implications.

Those persons who are migrated from rural areas and small towns, they find difficulty to adjust with urban life. This
uncompromising situation leads to social conflict among themselves. On political side they are easily exploited by short term benifits offered by any party. They would even sell their vote for paltry sums of money.

How to remove slums is itself a tremendously difficult problem. There is a wide-spread feeling that slum dwellers are not keen to leave their huts even though better houses are offered to them. According to our knowledge a very few persons were offered houses at a cost which they cannot afford. Also at places which are at a great distance from their working places that involves a heavy transportation cost. Obviously in these circumstances they would not prefer leaving slum areas.

Here are some of the suggestions to improve the lot of slum dwellers:

1. As far as possible improved residences for slum dwellers are required to be provided in proximity of their working places.

2. A legislation should be made it compulsory for the factory and mill owners to provide housing facilities to their workers.

3. Government should permit the establishment of industries in smaller towns so as to check the flow of migrants to big
cities where the rents are high, and there is a tendency to establish slums free of cost. The factory workers usually prefer to live in free thatched huts close to the working sites rather than pay rent in cleaner localities. All kinds of diseases are spread by these slums and dirty habits are developed as juvenile delinquency. These slums are centres and schools for training criminals. It becomes law and order problem. Bootlegging is their favourite vocation. The population in these areas is multiplying fast and demographic problems balk all attempts to solve them.

Pollution Problem

Pollution may be described as the indiscriminate discharge of sewage and unhygienic, harmful chemicals, gases and wastes materials into water or atmosphere by the industries or media of transport. Today, human society is facing the biggest challenges of pollution in the following manners:

1. Water pollution
2. Air pollution
3. Noise pollution

Pollution problem is not a new problem. It is as old as human life. It is not only found in India, but is also present in developed countries. This problem is created by the industrialisation, urbanisation and transportation. In developing
countries, poverty, inadequate food and over-population are some causes of this problem.

(1) **Water pollution**

Water pollution may be defined as any change in its character, resulting in its becoming harmful for human as well as animal use.

As we know, human life is largely dependent on water. Industrialisation has caused water pollution as well as air pollution. In developed countries, water pollution is a big problem and they are paying serious attention to prevent the water pollution. In India, before industrialization, water pollution was not so acute as it is today. Because the water and sewage facilities were limited and the industrial growth was very slow. But soon after independence, there has been a remarkable growth and concentration of industries as well as increase in population. Today the condition is that, if all the sewage that people in Bombay discharged in a year were allowed to accumulate, we will soon have another Mount Everest.\(^1\) It is a natural phenomenon that the industries attracted the rural workers to the urban centres, resulting in an urban population increase greatly. As the inhabitants and industries use the water, they need some place to discharge the used dirty water. It is easiest and cheapest to discharge

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\(^1\) *The Hindustan Times* (New Delhi), June 9, 1977.
such wastes and water into the nearest river, lake or nullah. It is all right from the point of view of industry that is disposing of its waste but it is dangerous from the point of view of health because the town is trying to pull water from the same river, lake a little downstream. "Nearly 75 to 90 per cent of people in developing countries are exposed to unsafe drinking water."¹

Different industries discharge different types of wastes. Industrial wastes have some mineral and organic substances like acid, salt, alkalies and oil including some poisonous substances which are highly poisonous for human and plant life. Chemical and organic pollutants may make water undrinkable without treatment for industrial use or crop irrigation, they may poison fish or cause their exhaustion. "In 1973 effluent from a sugar factory near Lucknow caused death of fishes in abundance in river Gomti."²

Community waste contains organic substances which give rise to offensive odours and pathogenic germs which cause many gastro-intestinal diseases. The incident of per capita pollution is more common and widespread in big corporations.

Industrial development in U.P. has not been as rapid as in some other states. A big number of sugar factories, distilleries, tanneries and textile mills were set up in the state in early

¹ Ibid., June 9, 1977.
² Ibid., November 13, 1975.
decades of the century and during last twenty years, there has been a rapid growth of many other kinds of industries. "In U.P. there are 76 sugar factories, the highest number amongst all the states of India, 60 textile mills, 32 tanneries and 24 distillaries." These are the principle industries which are creating water pollution problem in the state. The KAVAL corporations happen to face this problem in a larger measure.

U.P. is the most densely populated state of our country. Ganga river survey carried out near Kanpur has disclosed that the city's water front is totally polluted by sewage and industrial wastes. A survey at Varanasi disclosed that the water near some ghats is near about as dirty as raw sewage diluted with equal amount of plain water. Pollution studies of the Yamuna by the Central Public Health Engineering Research Institute (CPHERI) Laboratory at Delhi disclosed that the river water at Agra is highly polluted by domestic and industrial wastes from large communities of Delhi, Mathura, Agra and Virandavan filth from Villages. The Gomati is another significant river in U.P. and is the principle source of water supply to Lucknow. During the course of its travel the river receives heavy load of pollution from the communities and industries located on its banks.

Another important aspect of water pollution, which may be

described as characteristic of India, is that there exists a sentiment amongst the Hindus to acquire piety by bathing in the rivers which are to be considered to be very sacred. Largely due to the lack of information about the nature and extent of pollution of the many rivers and streams and also due to the lack of information about specific method of treatment of the effluents, little progress could be made in regard to the control of stream pollution in different areas.

A large amount of work has already been made done in the developed countries to prevent water pollution. In our country this problem is being taken very seriously. To prevent the water pollution, the central government passed the water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act in 1974. Under this Act, a central board has been constituted. Its main work is to promote cleanliness of streams and wells. Besides, this coordinating activities of the state, Boards are being set up in term of the Act. The Central Board will provide technical assistance and guidance to state Boards and sponsor investigations and research relating to problem of water pollution. It will also plan a country wide programme for the prevention, control and abatement of water pollution. The Act was adopted by the state government of U.P. in August, 1974, and a Board was set up in 1975 under the caption of "Uttar Pradesh Jal Pradushan Nir Waran Tatha Niyantran Board". The Board met in April 1975, incidentally the world health day.
It is interesting that U.P. has the benefit of some activity in the field of water pollution control in the last decades. Under the provision of Factories Act, the state government constituted a state Effluent Board as early as 1958.

The government of U.P. established an effluent board in the state in 1958 by amending the U.P. Factories Rule. The effluent board has been provided with statutory powers under the U.P. Factories Act 1948, for making an industry treat its effluent so as to comply with the standards recommended by the Factory Effluent Enquiry Committee or as may be amended by the Board.

On the municipal side, water pollution in the state has been partly abated by the implementation of sewerage utilisation scheme which has particularly been taken up in the larger towns and pilgrim centres. The sewage costs very high and municipal bodies could afford little more than skeletons of such scheme.

(2) **Air Pollution**

Air pollution may be defined as the foul air of the atmosphere which is being polluted by the industries or by heavy transportation.

Today, there are so many sources of air pollution, viz., big factories, transportation, emitting gases and raising dust,
urbanisation, nuclear explosions and commercial and domestic heat. The human life is facing a serious health challenge due to this problem. It has been said that 'the air has never been pure'. That may be so. Thousands of years before the industrial revolution, dust storms were producing the haze and volcanoes belching lava that blackened the skies. Nature in those days had time to make adjustments. It could evolve an atmosphere that was self-cleanism. Today man in his thirst for physical comforts are so arrogantly misusing the environment that he is quite close to the stage of suffocation.

Dr. Hansjorg Oetttzschmer who visited India recently said in a talk on waste disposal that the waste is the biggest pollutant in the world today. Some Western countries like U.S.A. and Japan are facing acute air pollution problem. The people of Tokyo are called upon to wear masks when the extent of pollution crosses a particular limit.

It is the primary duty of a welfare state to provide neat and clean environment which may lead to a healthier life, mainly depend upon the air in which we breath. It is necessary for good health that we take breath in hygeinic atmosphere. Air pollution problem is more serious in industrial/highly urbanised cities or centres. Because the air in these cities is polluted due to discharge of gaseous matter from the industries. "According to a survey conducted by the Calcutta Metropolitan Development Authority said that over 50 per cent
of the residents of Calcutta are suffering from respiratory
diseases".¹

The other source such as domestic fuel consumption,
dhobighats and local incineration also play an important role
in the air pollution. Recently in a survey, "Kanpur one of the
India's heavily industrial city has got maximum number of T.B.
patients."² Big industrial cities enjoy a good ventilation of
air due to land and sea breezes. But due to some local
geographical features like tall buildings, and continuous
discharge of pollutants by the industries, heavy transporta-
tion and from other sources, even these excellent natural
ventilations are unable to dispose and dilute the pollutants
and to prevent building up of their concentration to a level
at which they are tending to be harmful for human and plant
life. Among the most offenders is the pollutant sulphur dio-
oxide (SO₂) which is discharged by the almost all the factories
using fossil fuel.

(3) Noise Pollution

Noise pollution is due to heavy transportation and
loudspeaker playing at the loudest-pitch on various occasions
in residential and commercial areas needs special attention
of higher and local bodies authorities. No permission should

¹ The Times of India (New Delhi), September 16, 1976.
² Indian Express (New Delhi), November 16, 1975.
be given for playing loudspeakers in this way, or at least the sound level and direction that they cause least noise, this of course may not apply to public meetings and other occasions.

India is still in an early stage of industrialization, but its harmful effects on the environment have already started showing signs. Prevention of pollution is cheaper than paying its price once it has warned the situation. The pollution menace in India is still largely considered a local problem and municipal bodies are called upon to take necessary action under the Acts passed by them. Maharashtra is the only state which passed a prevention of water pollution Act in 1969, safeguarding its streams and rivers.

The Indian Parliament has already enacted the prevention of Water Pollution Act, 1974, and the Government of India proposes to bring up legislation for an Air pollution control.

It would perhaps be necessary for individual nation to compromise with some of their national interests and to check this menace. The younger generation particularly has a great stock in the future and therefore, government must endeavour to involve them in any programme for environmental conservation. Some years ago addressing the U.N. Conference of Environment at Stockholm, Mrs. Indira Gandhi said, "that only when the inequalities between the rich and the poor were substantially
minimised could the menace of pollution be effectively tackled.\textsuperscript{1}

Unfortunately, municipal organisation, which are required to enforce existing provisions against pollution, are themselves the major polluters. Their outdated methods of solid waste management, crude dumping grounds, inadequate water sources, their polluted water sources, their inadequate administrative machinery to control chimneys, belching black smoke throughout the day and their power-houses pouring out flyash in tons are some of the glaring examples of how the controlling authorities help spread pollution in cities often blame is placed on inadequate finance available.

Information on environment should form an integral part of the school curriculum so as to enable children to understand the inter-dependence of various components of the system of which they form a part. Mass media could be used for publishing the facts and providing information of the environment situation to build up an aesthetical defence of the environment.

Pollution does not restrict itself to local or regional boundaries. In fact, the problem has so many factors that the lead must come from the centre and regions and local areas must be involved in tackling the problem.

\textsuperscript{1} The Hindustan Times (New Delhi), June 9, 1977.
responsibility in this field assumes importance in the face of multiplicity of authorities and conflicting jurisdiction prevailing in our cities and regional areas. The decisions about locating industrial units are taken by authorities other than local and pollutants travel across jurisdictional boundaries. The centre must provide the lead to combat the pollution nuisance at the national level and the states and local boundaries must come forward to share and shoulder responsibility in this common cause.

It is true that the problem of pollution has not yet reached that alarming state in India as in the west. It is however, always safer to take preventive measures in advance, as the proverb goes that a stitch in time saves nine.

Housing Problem in KAVAL Towns

The housing problem in our country has reached the top but it is more serious in big cities particularly in the large urban centres. There is an acute shortage of housing in the urban areas today. It is estimated that it may become worse in future. In the Fourth Five Year Plan, it is estimated that there was a shortage of 12 million houses in the country. At the close of 1976 it is likely to increase by another 12 million houses as the population in big cities is increasing at the rate of 4 per cent per year. It means an amount of
Rs. 30,000 crores would be needed at the close of 1976. In the IV Five Year Plan, an amount of Rs. 2,460 crores was granted for the housing. As the time is being passed the gap is widening as the construction of the urban housing has not kept pace with the overall growth. An overall rate of new construction is 3.5 units per 1,000 persons. After food and clothing, the housing is the next important need. All the developed and developing countries are trying to provide adequate housing facilities to meet their growing requirements.

The housing problem has created due to the rapid growth of population and the urbanisation. Urban migration is not a new phenomenon. Industrial developments and concentration of employment in big cities and towns have acted as population magnets. According to the last census, our urban population has increased by 3 crores in a decade to about 11 crores. Its impact has naturally been felt on housing. Rapid and unplanned growth of towns and cities and the lack of municipal control over the building activities has led to deterioration, of even the quality of existing stock. Slum have grown in the big cities in Kanpur slum dwellers number is near about 5 lakhs and there are about 800 small and big slums, where life becomes a night-mare and pavement living a truth.

According to an estimate based on the kind of material

which is used for the construction, 1/3 of the urban houses have Kacha walls and remaining 2/3 have pucca walls, 1/5 have kaccha roofs and rest have pucca roofs. This shows the extents of housing shortage.¹

At the beginning of IV Plan, the shortage was near about 120 lakhs units in urban areas, the shortage, due to the construction programmes, is enlarging by about 3 lakhs units every year. It is therefore, proposed to grant about Rs. 20 crores to eleven cities having a population of over 8 lakhs under the recently central scheme for the improvement of slum areas. Like many other developmental activities, housing programme in a planned manner started with the first plan. However, it was, designed for industrial workers and low income groups. The programme was enlarged during the II Plan when the slum-clearance scheme was introduced greater significance was laid on 'Social housing' and fruitful results were achieved. During the II Plan, for instance over 61.5 thousand houses were built for industrial workers — 96.5% of the physical targets and over 55 thousand units were provided for the low income groups — 33% of the physical targets.²

The total investment in housing by the public sector has

been increasing in coming Plans. In the III Plan, it has reached Rs. 425 crores when compared to Rs. 300 crores in the Second and Rs. 250 crores in the First Plan. The expenditure in housing and private construction as a percentage of total lay has, however, been declined from about 34% in the First Plan to 19% in the Second Plan and 15% in the Third Plan. Similarly in the private sector although investment of housing has been increasing from Rs. 900 crores in the First Plan to Rs. 1,000 crores in the Second and Rs. 1,125 crores in the Third Plan, the percentage like the public sector, has been going down from 50% in the first Plan to 32% in the Second and 26% in the Third Plan. The following table shows the Plan-wise allocation for the housing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan</th>
<th>Public Sector outlay (Rs. in crores)</th>
<th>Outlay on Social housing scheme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Plan</td>
<td>2,356</td>
<td>38.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Plan</td>
<td>4,600</td>
<td>84.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Plan</td>
<td>7,500</td>
<td>122.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Plan</td>
<td>15,902</td>
<td>193.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Respective Five Year Plans, Planning Commission, Government of India.

It is disclosing that 83.7 million families in India are house lessor without proper housing facilities.1 The total

1 U.N.I., Backgrounder, Vol.III, No.24, June 17, 1971
number of families without a house is estimated to be over 1.5 crores. In other words, three out of every four families have no house or their houses are in worst condition. The Fourth Five Year Plan began with an amount of 837 lakh housing and it may increase by more than 20 lakhs houses annually. It has been stressed that, "On the First Five Year Plan, public investment on housing was 16% of the total public sector investment, in the second it was only 8% and in the third only 7%. The draft outline for the Fourth Five Year Plan brings the figures still lower to 5 per cent."

The urban housing position in Uttar Pradesh is not satisfactory. According to census 1971, the total residential houses reported were 16,33,158 against a total number of 23,29,277 households thus leaving a shortage of 6,96,119 houses. In Class I towns reported for 73.4% of the total housing shortage. 62.4% persons in Kanpur, 49.4% persons in Lucknow, 43.9% persons in Varanasi and 38% persons in Allahabad were living in a single room.

The housing problem is increased by the economic condition of the households. A vast majority of households collect a very low wages resulting their inability to pay the economic

1 Ibid.
2 National Herald (New Delhi), August 19, 1968
3 Civic Affairs (Kanpur), September, 1972, Vol. 20, No. 2, p.15.
The following Table shows the housing shortage in different categories of towns in Uttar Pradesh.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Class I</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13,55,220</td>
<td>843,964</td>
<td>511,256</td>
<td>73.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Class II</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>236,721</td>
<td>186,562</td>
<td>50,159</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Class III</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>376,737</td>
<td>304,203</td>
<td>72,534</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Class IV</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>241,959</td>
<td>200,094</td>
<td>41,865</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Class V</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>111,845</td>
<td>93,278</td>
<td>18,567</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Class VI</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6,795</td>
<td>5,057</td>
<td>1,738</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total |                   | 293                 | 2,329,277               | 16,33,158           | 696,119         | 100.0                     |


rent. In our country 85 per cent of the households are financially weak, the remaining cannot be expected to subsidize such a large majority towards meeting the house cost. The situation again worsened by less facilities given for housing in the National Plans, as in First Plan 1.6%. The remedy for the solving of this huge problem lies in its entirety.

The government should change its attitude towards housing and invite proper participation from private sector as it is doing in other problems. Housing programme should not given to one organisation with monopolistic powers. These programmes should be given to different organisations or agencies. The agencies should be cooperative housing societies and private colonies. Land which is the primary need for the housing should be given.
to the agencies by the government and master plans for all major urban concentrations need to be urgently prepared.

It is clear that the state resources being insufficient and the problem is going on. As cities grow the land values increase even at the fringe areas. The State should invest money in building the social housing to check unprincipled sections exploiting the situation. The housing problem is the challenge of our time.

**Housing shortage in the next decade**

The following table shows that by the end of 1981 there will be a shortage of 12.84 lakhs houses in urban areas of U.P.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Total urban population</td>
<td>94.80</td>
<td>123.68</td>
<td>154.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Average size of the household</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>5.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Total number of urban households</td>
<td>16.97</td>
<td>23.29</td>
<td>29.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Total number of residential houses</td>
<td>15.07</td>
<td>16.33</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Total housing shortage</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>6.96</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Additional houses required in 1981</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


There is apparent that huge sums of money will be required to solve the housing shortage and to supply the housing by the end of 1981. The calculations of financial requirements for the
housing for different income groups is shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly income group of household</th>
<th>Average cost of dwelling unit (in Rupees)</th>
<th>Total cash increase of rupees in 1961</th>
<th>1971</th>
<th>1981</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upto Rs. 300</td>
<td>7,000</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301 - 599</td>
<td>12,500</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600 and above</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Civic Affairs (Kanpur), September 1972, Vol. 20, No. 2, p. 15.

The above table indicates that a total sum of Rs. 806 crores will be required for provision of houses to all the households in 1981 and clearly there is no possibility of the mobilisation of resources of this extent in public and private sector both.

**Problem of Water Supply and Sewerage in KAVAL Towns**

Water is a very essential commodity without which men cannot live. But polluted water is the greatest scourge of life which takes a big toll of lives or spreads diseases.

Provision of the adequate water supply to their inhabitants is one of the obligatory functions of the municipal corporation which is guaranteed in the Corporation Act, Section 114(2). Water is the prime necessity of life. The present system of water through pipe supply came into existence in the last decades of the 19th century. Before the independence the progress was not satisfactory. In big cities with the increase
in population the old sources of water supply like wells and ponds become insufficient to fulfil the demands and water borne diseases take a heavy toll of life.\textsuperscript{1}

In urban areas the strain on water resources is very heavy due to the increasing in population and advancement in industrialisation. "Some districts of the world are suffering from an absolute scarcity of water resources."\textsuperscript{2}

In India, according to the government report, the position of the urban water supply and sanitation is not satisfactory. In our country, the problem of water supply and sanitation was a neglected subject and it makes a haphazard progress without any organised planning. A few towns in each state succeeded in securing a partly satisfactory water supply and sewerage system during the past few decades mostly with financial help from the state government. The facilities so completed were being operated and maintained by the local bodies, without any timely measures being taken to provide further improvements to expand the scheme periodically and to suit the needs of increasing population.\textsuperscript{3}

In the report of the national water supply and sanitation programme (1960-1961) the details are given quite challenging. It estimates that out of 1,736 local urban bodies which data

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{2} \textit{Civic Affairs} (Kanpur), July 1966, Vol. 13, No. 12, p. 21.
\item \textsuperscript{3} Report of the National Water Supply and Sanitation Committee 1960 to 1961, Ministry of Health, Govt. of India, Chap. III, p. 10.
\end{itemize}
available 1,056 local bodies had no facilities for protected water supply, out of the remaining 680 only 245 have the sufficient water supply for drinking purposes. It is also estimated that 60 per cent of urban population has no facility of wholesome water. The same is the case with sewerage system, before independence only five towns had sewerage system and in 1973 it rose to 36.

It may be mentioned that Agra, Allahabad, Lucknow, Kanpur and Varanasi get their raw water for public supply from rivers running nearest to the cities and these cities provide more water supply per capita than the other cities. Many of the cities and towns and a large rural area of the Northern India is facing through one of the worst periods of water scarcity almost bordering on water famine. The drinking water problem in our country will continue challenging if the efforts of to attain the objective are not increased manifold. This view was expressed by Prof. S.J. Argicwala of Bombay, advisor to the World Health Organisation who attended the seminar on water pollution control, inaugurated by Dr. A. Zahara, WHO Director of the Health Service at Delhi. Prof. Argicwala said that Rs. one thousand crores would be needed to provide drinking water to people all over the country. With the present allocation, it would take 20 years to achieve the goal. By the

time the population would double itself and the problem would be as serious as today.¹

A comparative study of the water supply position in big cities was made to evaluate the operation of the system in practice. Kanpur, Varanasi and Lucknow have 24 hours water supply, and the other cities like Agra gets 18 hours water supply. The survey gives the summary of total supply of water sources, hours of distribution demand for domestic and non-domestic uses and average supply per capita in major cities of India. The service standard of the city depends upon its ability to sustain the financial responsibility. The small urban towns do not require the same standard of service that a metropolitan city will need as in big cities, the use of water for industries and public use are much more than the requirements of the small towns. In some semi urban areas the non-essential uses could not be from non-protected sources like wells and ponds while in big cities, the requirements have to be met from piped and filtered water.

In the Four Five Year Plans the government sanctioned huge amounts for the water supply and sanitation programmes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Five Year Plan</td>
<td>Rs. 49 crores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Five Year Plan</td>
<td>Rs. 76 crores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Five Year Plan</td>
<td>Rs. 105 crores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Five Year Plan</td>
<td>Rs. 375 crores</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Ibid, p.258.
It is the established fact that a safe and wholesome water supply is most essential for reduction of high mortality rates through water borne diseases and a sound system of water supply is necessary for the industrial advancement of a developing nation.

In KAVAL towns alone, whose combined present population is 40 lakhs as expenditure to the extent of Rs. 800 lakhs per annum is required at least for the coming five years. It is not necessary to say that the present position of utility services in our State is not at all satisfactory. Further, in U.P., out of 293 towns (urban) only about 180 have water supply facilities. This is a major backlog for providing these facilities in towns where it does not exist.

The availability of finances for the water supply and sewerage during the last five years has given as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Water Supply State</th>
<th>L.I.C.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td>59.60</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>59.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>144.68</td>
<td>215.76</td>
<td>360.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971-72</td>
<td>131.80</td>
<td>164.11</td>
<td>295.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-73</td>
<td>86.37</td>
<td>112.40</td>
<td>198.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973-74</td>
<td>74.80</td>
<td>379.24</td>
<td>354.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>497.25</td>
<td>871.51</td>
<td>1,267.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Sewage State</th>
<th>L.I.C.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td>85.00</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>85.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>136.60</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>136.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971-72</td>
<td>68.00</td>
<td>69.71</td>
<td>137.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-73</td>
<td>30.23</td>
<td>10.04</td>
<td>49.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973-74</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>147.68</td>
<td>247.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>419.83</td>
<td>237.43</td>
<td>655.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Civic Affairs (Kanpur), October 1975, Vol. 23, No.3, p. 15.

A summary of the population served and the proportion with house connections is given below.

TABLE 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Towns</th>
<th>1971 Population (1000s)</th>
<th>1971 % served house connections</th>
<th>Stand post</th>
<th>% of con. metered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanpur</td>
<td>1,154</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varanasi</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>592</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>749</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,570</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>347</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remaining 16 towns (over 100,000 population)
3,229
(34)
(range 2 to 92 per cent)

Remaining towns 153
5,590

Only 35 towns with more than 50 per cent of total urban
population have some form of sewerage. In no case towns are fully serviced by sewers and in many areas few premises adjacent to sewers are connected. The huge backlog of connections is illustrated by the situation in KAVAL towns figures of which are given as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Towns</th>
<th>Water connection</th>
<th>Sewer connection</th>
<th>% of sewer to water</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanpur</td>
<td>44,000</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad</td>
<td>33,300</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varanasi</td>
<td>29,200</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>18,900</td>
<td>1,300</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>2,200</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,65,400</td>
<td>37,300</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It has been estimated that an average investment of Rs. 100 per capita required for the utility services such as water supply and sewerage. During the last decade the urban population of the state has grown from 94.80 lakhs in 1961 to 123.68 lakhs in 1971 which indicates an increase of 3.05 per cent per annum. In future the urban population growth can easily be estimated at 4 per cent per annum. Such an addition roughly means an addition of 5 lakhs persons per annum to the existing population. For maintaining the position of the utility services an investment of about Rs. 500 lakhs per annum is necessary in urban areas for water supply and sewerage system. However, the fact that
quite a few of the water works in our state are very old, some as old as 1890, and require immediate replacement of various equipments, cannot be over looked.

Water supply to the people in commercial way caused the wastage on account of the non-metered consumers, which may be saved. It is also in public interest to charge for the consumption of water by measurement after the meters are provided otherwise leakage of filtered water will cause loss of revenue. The municipal corporation and municipalities which draw raw water from the nearby rivers should arrange for a separate supply for rough use. In this way the filtered water can be saved to fulfil the requirements of domestic supply.

The establishment of U.P. Jal Nigam by the U.P. Government is commendable step and will, it is hoped, go a long way in speedy execution of water supply and sewerage scheme.
Chapter IV

POLITICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

Political Problems

In India political parties involved themselves in civic administration during the non-cooperation movement led by Mahatma Gandhi. In U.P. the municipal elections of 1922 were contested on political basis because Swarajists wanted to come in majority. While in 1923 the non-cooperators gained majority in municipal elections. In 1925, however, the election turned largely on communal and personal lines. On the other hand, during 1923 in Bengal the Swarajists gained majority in Calcutta elections and they adopted a dictatorial policy and are reported "to have established a dictatorship of which the main feature is described as the subordination of civic administration to political and party ends."¹

These dictatorial policies continued only for a short duration. In 1930 these policies were done away within most of the provinces. From this time (1930) onward up to independence

various parties participated in the elections on personal or communal basis.

It has been seen that local self-government institutions have been regarded as the grass-roots of democracy. They are responsible for promoting public participation and developing local leadership. Apart from providing the basic civic requirements they have an important role connected with the building up civic, social and cultural life of the citizens. In a welfare state these duties have enlarged and cover specially all aspects of healthy living and purposeful development of the personality of citizens. In the modern society they are no longer traditional local authorities responsible only for sanitation of area or repair of local lanes and village schools, or developmental activities.

Political parties have of late entered into municipal government and the urban local bodies had been branded as the dens of localism, breeding places of communalism and shallow regionalism. It is a widespread and commonly held opinion that politics should not enter into local government affairs. But the fact remains that these political parties are involved in municipal affairs and have failed to take any concrete steps for the development of civic programme.

The question however, arises whether the party system is necessary at local level, or to put it differently, whether the
political parties are necessary for running the local institutions. Mr. Sanjiva Reddy, while speaking at Ahmedabad at a civic reception, has observed that, "there is no room for party politics in civic reception and the civic problems could at the best be taken by non-party approach." Mr. Jaya Prakash Narayan has also expressed the same views regarding local government. The primary duty of the civic body is to look into the civic problems and work for the community as a whole. The problems of the civic body can best be solved by nonpartisan and cooperative manner. This view, however, neglected some basic social, economic and political facts which have developed in our society. It is difficult for the people to be exempt from party politics at the local level when they elect their representative at central and state levels on party basis. The local self-government is known a government which involves an element of power and power is best represented and controlled by party than an isolated individuals. Individuals cannot be effective and cannot shape policies unless backed by the parties. It is a well known fact that party system plays an important role in building up leadership at the local level. It is an interesting thing that we praise enthusiastically party system at the central and state level in the interest of democracy but we dislike and discourage party system at the local government level especially in the elections of municipal

corporations and municipalities. We expect from the voter in general elections of centre and state to cast their vote for the party. But at the same time we are advised not to cast their vote for those who are contesting election for the local bodies at the party level. It should be absolutely clear that if we consider party politics good for the centre or the state we should apply the same criterion to the civic bodies because the voters are the same and should be judged from the same angle.

It is said that due to adoption of party politics in local bodies there is an adverse effect on the civic management and local administration. In many urban civic bodies, the representatives have shown an irresistible tendency to divide along party lines and insist on passing meaningless resolutions on national, political and even more aridly foreign policy issues.¹ It is a main effect can be seen as a hinderance in the smooth functioning of local bodies because the policies are made on the basis of main party's interest rather than people interest. It is necessary for the smooth functioning of local bodies that policies and rules should be framed purely for its well-beings. It is also seen that the policies for employees of municipal corporation are also formed in the light of party politics as a result the moral and efficiency of municipal

¹ The Hindustan Times (New Delhi), December 29, 1976.
employees also suffer. Moreover, the major political parties remain engaged in the opposing and contradicting each other with the result that instead of planning for prosperity and efficient administration the municipal bodies are turned into battle ground.

A healthy party system based on major and responsible political parties helps to solve problems more from the standpoint of larger interest of the community rather than from the narrow, sectarian angle. All political parties advise for themselves a code of conduct as a means to self-disciplinary measure shunning petty, sectarian and selfish approach in matters of common concern to the community. Political parties can, as they do on certain, levels work for the consensus to promote collective interest of the community without sacrificing the legitimate interest of the individual. In our view, such disciplinary code of conduct is not impossible though may be somewhat difficult. In modern days, with the spread of political consciousness and education of the people for the good of the community party democracy at the local government level can be success though there are bound to be some complications. Let us not decry or oppose the role of political party in the governance of the local community. We must endeavour for the improvement of the party democracy.

The elections for the local bodies should be conducted in a spirit of impartiality and fairplay, because, it is a process by
virtue of which the representatives are elected to municipal councils and made responsible for the running of the civic administration. It is, therefore, very essential that the persons elected for the local bodies should be honest and efficient.

In the present day infra structure of party government we cannot dispense with the role of political parties both vertically and horizontally. Whether we will it or not. There is a network of party agencies and we cannot do without them, much more so in big towns and municipal corporations where the boundaries of constituencies for parliament or state Vidhan Sabha with the same leadership operating at all levels. Political parties are indispensable and sometimes cut across the boundaries of state, centre and local bodies. Moreover, municipal corporations look up to the states legislatives for finances and political support from time to time.

Administrative Problems

Since the close of the Second World War, there has been a visible decline in the condition of urban life in the country. Our late Prime Minister Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru had once remarked:

"Local Administration is the foundation of our democracy and very rightly it is so. A democracy at the top cannot be a success until the foundation on which the super-
structure rests is strong. It is no use starting such a super imposed democracy without a proper base."

Municipal corporation was regarded as the topmost agency on the urban local self-government. Its main duty is to provide better civic amenities to the people. Today, municipal corporations are facing administrative problems in implementation of various programmes like housing, transport, slum clearance, provision of water supply, public health and primary and secondary education. The administrative problems of the Municipal Corporations may be summed up as under:-

1) Haphazard growth of cities and rapid increase in population

Truly speaking, our cities are growing so fast that local bodies find it difficult to cope with such growth. The cities are the nerve centres of political, economic, educational and developmental activities. The big cities attract large rural population in pursuit of employment, education and recreation. The growth rate of population in big cities has generally been higher than the growth rate of population in rural areas. In fact, the corporation cities, due to their importance and opportunities of employment, etc., receive the maximum pressure of in-flux from rural areas. Moreover, the influx of population in

The core area of the large cities has been increasing beyond exception, leading to the creation of a number of problems for municipal administration. The flow of the rural people to the big cities have a number of causes. Firstly, the educated people of the rural areas do not take interest in agriculture or in rural industries. Secondly the white collar job opportunities are less in rural areas than the big cities or the industrial centres, so the poor people migrate to these centres with the hope of better prospects. Thirdly, the industries are generally established in big cities resulting the rural people attracts to these centres.

The area of the big cities is also increasing haphazardly due to the establishment of the industries in the heart of towns. It is a general phenomenon that the industrialisation and urbanisation go side by side resulting in urbanisation creates problems like housing, transportation, slum clearance, sanitation, pollution, etc.

This problem has increased due to the neglect of planning. This can be checked through planned development in a suitable manner. The pressure of population on urban areas must be lightened through the establishment of industries in different areas and tight programme of rural civic development. A serious attention should be attached to the cottage industries in the rural areas and the maximum opportunities of employment to the rural people.
(2) Financial difficulties

Lack of the financial resources is the most important factor which has been responsible for slow growth of development of corporation cities. The financial resources of the municipal corporation are below the required limit. Therefore, the municipal administration fails to provide even the basic amenities to their inhabitants.

Municipal corporation in U.P. have been functioning since February 1, 1960, after passing the U.P. Nagar-Mahapalika Adhiniyam, 1959. The main object in setting up these corporations was to strengthen their financial resources so that they could provide better services and amenities to the people. Provisions were made in the Act for the enlargement of the financial powers of these corporations.

The main financial resources of the municipal corporations are, house tax, water tax, property tax, octroi and grant-in-aid which is given by the State Government. These taxes are not collected properly and in time by the municipal administration resulting in financial set back. The grants in-aid is also not given in time. The rise in expenditure of these corporations may be attributed pastly to the enlargement in their territorial jurisdiction and rise in population special requirements of town planning, slum clearance, housing, water supply, sewerage and drainage, etc., have strained their financial resources.
further.

The income from property tax which is second only to Octroi and terminal tax has not gone higher. The most of the owners are paying two decades back through the expenditure of the corporation in maintaining the areas have gone up several times. In case of property tax, the corporations in U.P. are authorised to levy property tax from 15% to 25% of the annual rental value of the properties. But none of them has increased the rate up to 25 per cent because the members are afraid of losing popularity. In case of land tax and building imposed by the State Government has greatly reduced the scope for the municipal taxation. It seems illogical for the State Government to levy this tax when the municipal bodies are already levying it. A major share of these taxes go to the official functioning in that field. Corruption is rampant and about half of the money goes in the pockets of officials.

A major set back from which these municipal corporation suffer is that under the new condition, all the sources of public income are divided between the state and central government and the local bodies have not been assigned any separate resources. Thus, they have to depend on them by the State government and thus their financial strength depends on the State as such. This has made the financial position of the municipal corporation's deplorable in the economically backward states. The state government has started imposing such
taxes as were reserved since long for the municipal bodies.

The financial problem of municipal corporation can be checked if the corporations make all out efforts to maximise their tax and non-tax revenues by finding out new sources of income by exploiting the existing resources. It is the duty of the municipal corporation to collect taxes properly and in time.

The state government should examine in detail the tax structure of municipal bodies as their own responsibility. In this connection, the suggestion to have the state Municipal Finance Commission periodically on the lines of the central Finance Commission, as recommended by the Rural-Urban Relationship Committee, has been canvassed in various forums during the past few years.

In this regard much has been done but still the municipal corporations are facing the financial difficulties and the municipal administration finds itself in tight corner and is unable to provide basic civic amenities for which the corporations were established. Moreover, it is the duty of the local inhabitants that they pay their taxes properly and in due time.

(3) Misuse of Power

It is a common evil of our administration which is deep rooted in the Municipal Corporations. The tendency to jobbery in municipal appointments is not a feature peculiar to India, and
such a practice is exceedingly difficult to eradicate. In our society caste, religion and family background play an important role and these factors set back to municipal administration. The appointments in the municipal corporations are generally made on the basis of personal relationship, party patronage rather than the efficiency and the academic background of the candidate. The incompetent people are appointed on various posts of the corporation resulting inefficiency in the discharge of their functions. There are many examples such as the appointments are made on the basis of gratification or personal understanding, though the appointees are not suitable for that particular job.

In municipal administration there is lack of coordination between the elected representatives and the beurocratic hierarchy. They often blame each other. The beurocratic hierarchy complained that the elected representatives exercise their influence over them. They make an unnecessary interference in the affairs of the corporation which are purely administrative in nature and are not related to them. They also complain that the local 'netas' of the city also pressurize them to work according to their will. The beurocracy in the municipal corporation have the fear of transfer so they work on the directions of them. They misuse their powers which are harmful in the interest of the municipal corporation.
(4) Lack of trained personnel

In municipal services, especially in municipal corporations there is an acute shortage of trained personnel. Because, unlike the State or Union Government services, the municipal service has not been able to provide a career prospect. Their pay scale and service conditions are also not encouraging in municipal services. The result is that the trained people do not give preference for the municipal services and the municipal corporations always remain in the hands of untrained personnel.

It is realised that the trained personnel be based on merit system (appointed municipal bureaucrats and the elected representatives) is essential for the smooth functioning of the municipal corporation. It is a crying demand that a Municipal Administrative Service is created and made to function after due training.

There is an urgent need to give training to municipal machinery. In the first step, the training of councillors and Government officials is more important. In developing countries like India, the training of councillors is more important. It is a well known fact that elected members of local councils who are starting these jobs have often not governmental experience or in general little background of local self government administration. In the developing countries, there is a shortage of experienced councillors. The training of councillors is more necessary because they do not have an established system of local self
government before their eyes, and the general background of
education is much lower than in the developed countries. We
might send the new councillors to local government schools for
short residential courses, so that they can learn from others
in the course. The tutors at these courses should themselves
be expert in the field of local self government, so that they
give them valuable suggestions to face the problems posed before
them in the local self government. These courses should be
so designed as to prove the councillors with a good understanding
of the objectives and working of local self government. The
training in these courses must not take to fail to take into account
that these councillors must be taught proper conduct in relation
to the officers and the public, because this is an element
which is lacking in many newly elected councillors. These
councillors will have to deal with officials on the one hand, and
the public other. Officials get hurt if the councillors
behave rudely towards them. This will effect their morale. As
councillors are elected by the public, they must conduct
themselves towards the public in a befitting manner.

There is another way of training these councillors. Occasional
conferences and seminars may be held by the political parties on
subject concerned with local self government. The municipal
journals, as for example, the journal of the All India Institute
of Local Self Government, aim to informing municipal councillors
about different problems and aspects of municipal governmental
administration.

The Community Development Programmes may also include some training programmes for councillors for these schemes help to create a sense of civic responsibility.

Training of Government officials is absolutely necessary dealing with local self government in India. It would be quite essential for these officials to possess a knowledge of the principles of local self government because it is only then that they can discharge their duties efficiently. In a developing country like India for example, the local self-government play an important role in the life of the people, as such, training of a high order is essential for the government personnel dealing with local self governments. Hence, these government personnel connected with local self government be sent abroad to take part in study programmes or to get experience on the spot. The lack of experience of the councillors is a great set back to administration in our country. For example, when things go wrong with a new council, it may be the case that the members of the council are more irresponsible, than the officers. The training of councillors is most important so they efficiently discharge their functions.

It goes without saying that untrained and uneducated personnel are a drain to administration and the administration becomes
rickety, expensive and purposeless. The lethargy and slackness which is generally observed in administration is due to the shortcomings.
Chapter V

FINANCIAL PROBLEMS

They constitute the sinews of body politic. Finances are a big problem of every institution. Contemporary state claims to be a welfare state. It looks after education, controls employment, provides social security, insures public health and brings about reform of communication, etc. Local services like local road building, sanitation, primary education, water supply and public health are provided by the local bodies. The maintenance of the required standards in facilitating such local services to the people depends upon many factors, chief among them being suitable well regulated finance and trained technical staff. The financial provision for the local bodies is highly inadequate everywhere in India. Dr. Gyan Chand once said that, "the problem of local finance which dominate all the rest is the problem of finding money for national reconstruction which has in such large measure to be carried out through the agencies of local authorities and with their enthusiastic cooperation."¹

¹ Civic Affairs (Kanpur), August 1972, Vol. 20, No. 1, p. 23
The principle of local finance is the same as that of national finance. Dr. Hugh Dalton, the noted economist observes, "in particular, there is no fundamental distinction between the public finance of central and local authorities." Another eminent economist, Professor Canon does not see much difference between national and local finance. He points out, "The word local is related in character. From the point of an empire, the tax of a country is local and from the point of view of a country the tax of a provincial govt. can be termed local. So the difference between local and national is one of degree only." The principles involved more or less are the same.

Municipal Finance as a sub-field of public finance has not received the attention it deserved. Since independence a number of committees and commissions like Local Finance Enquiry Committee, Rural Urban Relationship Committee and Taxation Enquiry Commission, have been set up to study the problems of municipal finance, and came invariably to this conclusion that the Municipal Finances are in pitiable shape and adequate steps should be taken to increase their resources. The main sources of income depends upon taxes and duties imposed under the statutory provisions of the Act. There is a suitable share in the proceeds of certain taxes with the State.

1 Hugh Dalton, Principle of Public Finance, (Foutlodge and Kegan Ltd.,(London),1957, p. 3.
Government and also in the form of grant-in-aid for general and special purposes. If the local bodies are left suffering from starvation, the welfare activities would be still-born or will get emasculated in course of their working. Finances are the life blood of every administrative activity, without the adequate supply of money, the progress of development will be slow and no proper development will be possible.

The Government of India Act 1919, which came into force in 1921, contained a local list comprising the following taxes:

1. Toll
2. Tax on land and land values
3. Tax on vehicles or boats
4. Tax on buildings
5. Tax on animals
6. Tax on domestic servants
7. Octroi
8. Terminal Tax in areas excluding that are in which octroi was levied
9. Tax on trades and callings professions
10. Tax on private markets

The Government of India Act 1935, did not include any local list of taxes, and so, with the inauguration of this Act in 1937, the local government deprived of the special position in regard to taxation.

The question of increasing the finances of local bodies has been thoroughly examined by the Local Finance Enquiry Committee 1951 and the Taxation Enquiry Commission 1954. The
The Taxation Enquiry Commission’s suggestions that the following taxes and duties be reserved exclusively for the local bodies¹ should be accepted by the State Governments:

(a) Taxes on lands and buildings
(b) Taxes on animals and goats
(c) Octroi
(d) Taxes on vehicles other than mechanically propelled vehicles
(e) Taxes on professions, trades, callings and employment
(f) Taxes on advertisements except newspapers

It was further recommended that the local bodies be permitted to impose theatre or show tax generally known as entertainment tax and duty on transfer of property to be collected by the State Government along with the stamp duty for the local bodies.

The States are almost sovereign units and are authorised by the constitution to set up local bodies within their jurisdiction. They are also empowered to allocate them definite sources of revenues. There are two types of financial resources at the discretion of municipal bodies:

A. Tax revenues
B. Non-tax revenues

A. Tax revenues comprises the following:

1. a consolidated property tax.
2. a tax on trades, callings and professions

3. an octroi
4. a tax on goods and consumptions
5. A tax on advertisements other than advertisements published in the newspapers.

B. Non-tax revenues are as follows:

1. Grant-in-aid received from state governments.
2. Rent from municipal properties utilities and undertakings, licence and different fees and fines.

The powers of taxation of the local bodies are obtained from the respective laws under which they are established. The municipal corporations are empowered to realise compulsory taxes. They can raise the rates within statutory limits whenever they are prescribed, but within assigned jurisdiction. Their power to levy the tax is final and is not submitted to the approval of the State Government.

The following taxes to be imposed under Section 172 of the U.P. Nagar Mahapalika Adhiniyam 1959 by the Corporations:

1. For the purposes of this Act and subject to the provisions thereof and of Article 285 of the Constitution of India:
   a. property taxes;
   b. a tax on vehicles other than mechanically propelled vehicles, and other conveyances plying for hire or kept within the city or on boats moored therein;
   c. a tax on animals used for riding, driving, draught or burden, when kept within the city.
2. In addition to the taxes specified in sub-section (1) the Mahapalika may for the purposes of this Act and subject to the provisions thereof impose any of the following taxes, namely:

(a) a tax on trades, callings and professions and holding of public or private appointments.

(b) an octroi on goods or animals brought within the city for consumption, use or sale therein.

(c) a tax on goods exported from or imported into the city in which an octroi was in force at the commencement of the constitution of India.

(d) a toll on vehicles and other conveyances and animals and laden coolies entering the city.

(e) a tax on dogs kept within the city.

(f) a betterment tax.

(g) a tax on deeds of transfer of immovable property situated within the city.

(h) a tax on advertisements not being advertisements published in newspapers.

(i) a theatre tax.

(j) any other tax which the state legislature has the power under the constitution of India to impose in the State, provided that octroi on goods under clause (b) and a tax under clause (c) shall not be levied at the same time.

3. The Mahapalika taxes shall be assessed and levied in accordance with the provision of this Act and the rules and bye-laws framed thereunder.

4. Nothing in this section shall authorise the imposition of any tax which the State Legislature has no power to impose
in the State under the constitution of India.

Municipal corporations are functioning in U.P. since February 1, 1960, after the enactment of the U.P. Nagarpalika Adhiniyam, 1959. The purpose of setting up of these corporations was to inject vigour by improving their financial resources. One of the purpose was that they could provide better facilities to the people. Provisions were also made in the Act for the enlargement of the financial powers of these corporations. However, the "experience of the working of these five Municipal Corporations has given satisfaction to nobody as it has not improved the living standard of the masses. Despite the increase in taxation powers, the civic amenities have not shown any sign of improvement. The citizens are not enthusiastic about the achievements of these corporations and about the civic future under them."¹ The financial position of these municipal corporations is so poor that, "Kanpur could not make the payment of salaries for eight months. Lucknow corporation had been declared bankrupt by the government. Allahabad and Agra are facing financial crises. Varanasi corporation is going hard to mouth."² The State Government has felt to order these five municipal corporations to dismiss all their employees which were employed after February 1, 1960.³

1 *Civic Affairs* (Kanpur), April, 1963, Vol.10, No. 9, p.3.
2 *Northern India Patrika* (Allahabad), August 20, 1965
3 *Aaj* (Hindi, Varanasi), December 23, 1965
It is time, that the financial position of Municipal Corporations in U.P. is thoroughly examined and to suggest some remedies. In present we should be concerned with an analysis of the finances of these five corporations during 1959-60 to 1964-65.

### TABLE 1

Trend of Income and Expenditure of Municipal Corporations in U.P.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Normal income</th>
<th>Total income</th>
<th>Normal expenditure</th>
<th>Total disbursement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959-60</td>
<td>607.08 (100)</td>
<td>868.08 (100)</td>
<td>737.94 (100)</td>
<td>885.51 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-61</td>
<td>727.38 (120)</td>
<td>1015.13 (117)</td>
<td>774.35 (105)</td>
<td>942.46 (106)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-62</td>
<td>747.69 (123)</td>
<td>1015.18 (117)</td>
<td>815.73 (111)</td>
<td>981.79 (111)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>810.27 (133)</td>
<td>1059.72 (122)</td>
<td>1019.31 (138)</td>
<td>1225.35 (138)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>821.00 (135)</td>
<td>1074.26 (124)</td>
<td>938.66 (127)</td>
<td>1121.42 (127)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>981.19* (162)</td>
<td>1405.33* (162)</td>
<td>1262.73* (171)</td>
<td>1458.43* (165)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual Administration Report of the Corporations for respective years (Figures in brackets show the indices).

* Includes the budgeted amount of Kanpur Corporation.
Overall Position of the Corporations

During the period under study, the Municipal Corporations in U.P. increased their income as well as the expenditure. The rise in the expenditure was more than the income. During 1959-60 - 1964-65, there was an increase of about 62% in their normal income and total income, the rise in their normal expenditure and total disbursement was of the order of 71% and 65% respectively. This resulted in an overall deficit in all the years under revision except 1960-61 and 1961-62.

TABLE 2

Overall position of Municipal Corporations in U.P.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total income</th>
<th>Total disbursement</th>
<th>Deficit (-) or Surplus (+)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959-60</td>
<td>885.51</td>
<td>868.08</td>
<td>(-) 17.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-61</td>
<td>942.46</td>
<td>1015.13</td>
<td>(+) 72.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-62</td>
<td>981.71</td>
<td>1015.16</td>
<td>(+) 33.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>1224.35</td>
<td>1059.72</td>
<td>(-) 164.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>1121.42</td>
<td>1074.26</td>
<td>(-) 47.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>1458.43</td>
<td>1405.33</td>
<td>(-) 53.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Civic Affairs (Kanpur), March 1966, Vol.13, No.8, p.6.

1 'Normal income' excludes the income under the head 'extraordinary and debt' (such as deposits, advances, loan, etc.) The normal income are receipts under the head 'extraordinary and debt' are collectively called total income.

2 'Normal Expenditure' includes the expenditure under the head 'Extraordinary and debt' (such as repayment of loans, advances, deposits, etc.). Normal expenditure and the expenditure under the head 'Extraordinary and debt' are collectively called total disbursements.
An interesting feature of the finances of these corporations is that their expenditure per head of population is more than the per capita income.

**TABLE 3**

Incidence of Tax, Income and Expenditure Per head of population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1 Kanpur</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Incidence of tax</td>
<td>13.55</td>
<td>14.12</td>
<td>15.41</td>
<td>15.83</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>20.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Incidence of income</td>
<td>40.89</td>
<td>37.13</td>
<td>36.54</td>
<td>40.45</td>
<td>40.95</td>
<td>50.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Expenditure per head</td>
<td>58.40</td>
<td>37.52</td>
<td>37.75</td>
<td>52.65</td>
<td>39.88</td>
<td>73.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2 Allahabad</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Incidence of tax</td>
<td>13.75</td>
<td>11.63</td>
<td>12.16</td>
<td>13.57</td>
<td>13.59</td>
<td>14.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Incidence of income</td>
<td>26.76</td>
<td>20.09</td>
<td>21.04</td>
<td>24.46</td>
<td>23.28</td>
<td>27.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Expenditure per head</td>
<td>19.29</td>
<td>25.55</td>
<td>23.91</td>
<td>31.50</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>37.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3 Varanasi</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Incidence of tax</td>
<td>15.05</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>10.65</td>
<td>12.03</td>
<td>12.63</td>
<td>13.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Incidence of income</td>
<td>20.84</td>
<td>18.79</td>
<td>16.72</td>
<td>18.55</td>
<td>20.25</td>
<td>23.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Expenditure per head</td>
<td>27.81</td>
<td>16.89</td>
<td>16.98</td>
<td>20.55</td>
<td>24.89</td>
<td>25.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Contd.)
During the period 1959-60 to 1964-65, the expenditure has increased faster than income from the per capita point of view.

**TABLE 4**

Increase in per capita income and expenditure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>(in Rupees)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1959-60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per capita income</td>
<td>28.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per capita expenditure</td>
<td>34.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ibid.

The income per capita recorded a increase of 19.02% the expenditure increased by 26.02%. In fact, the expenditure per head has been higher than the per capita income of these
corporations both individually and in the aggregate during practically all these years.

The increase in expenditure has increased the debt burden of these corporations during the recent past. When the government appointed administrator to take over them in July, 1953, the Agra and Kanpur municipalities were not all in debt, while the total loan taken by the rest three municipalities (Allahabad, Lucknow and Varanasi) was only Rs. 55.62 lakhs. On the other hand, against this position, we find that the total indebtedness of these corporations had increased to Rs. 12 crores and 41 lakhs in 1959-60 and by that time all the corporations had become heavily in debt. However, there was a decline in the total indebtedness of these corporations in 1960-61 and 1961-62, compared to that in 1959-60, these point out that their debt burden has increased considerably during 1962-63 to 1964-65. This shows chaotic financed position in which these corporations find themselves at present.¹

Analyses of the finances of these corporations, first in relation to their expenditure and then in regard to income

Income

The main source of income of these Municipal Corporations are house tax, water tax and terminal tax or octroi. The

TABLE 5

Total Loan Position of the Corporations in U.P.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanpur</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10.23</td>
<td>478.64</td>
<td>445.76</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad</td>
<td>34.64</td>
<td>141.10</td>
<td>118.71</td>
<td>112.32</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varanasi</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>167.44</td>
<td>187.79</td>
<td>183.03</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100.27</td>
<td>151.30</td>
<td>148.46</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td>243.99</td>
<td>304.50</td>
<td>292.97</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total        | 55.61     | 663.03    | 1240.94    | 1181.64    | 1121.64    |

Source: (1) Civic Affairs (Kanpur), April 1960, p.90.
(2) The Working of Municipal Corporation in U.P., Background Papers, Inst. of Public Administration, Lucknow University, Lucknow, p.93.
Municipal Corporations are also empowered to levy four new taxes, i.e., betterment tax, advertisement tax, theatre tax and the tax on transfer of deeds of property, none of them could draw forth a suitable amount from these sources. While Allahabad and Lucknow municipal corporations did not tap any of new sources, Kanpur, Varanasi and Agra corporations could earn only a little amount and that too only from the transfer deeds of property. Thus, the new taxation powers of the Municipal Corporations have not been made use of by these municipal corporations.

**TABLE 6**

Percentage of tax on transfer deeds of property to total tax revenue.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanpur</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varanasi</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Civic Affairs, op.cit., p.9.

Octroi and terminal tax which have an important place in local taxation, have failed in increase a suitable amount to the incomes of these Municipal Corporations during the past years. However, the consumption of goods increase
within these cities must have gone up with the increase in population and standard of living. This is caused mainly to the looseness in the administrative machinery.

The income from property which is another important source after octroi and terminal tax has not gone up appreciably as all the five KAVAL towns are old. A large number of the owners and occupiers are paying two decades back through the expenditure of the municipal corporations in maintaining their areas have gone up several times. There are so many factors which hinder the growth of income from this source. Firstly, the basis of valuation does not fully reflect the increase in the market value of urban lands. Secondly, so long as rents are controlled, local bodies in India cannot possibly expect to derive the benefit which only a free market for rent can give them and are bound to lose a suitable amount of income. For example, "the Calcutta Municipal Corporation, it has been estimated, looses over Rs. 25 lakhs a year because of rent control. The loss should be much greater in Bombay where the control is much rigid."¹ As no figure with regard to the loss of KAVAL towns corporations due to this act is available, nothing definite about it can be said. However, it can be said that they also lose fairly high amount every year. Thirdly, the Municipal Corporations in U.P. are empowered to levy property tax from 15 to 25% of

¹ Civic Affairs (Kanpur), November 1964, Vol. 12, No. 4, p. 7.
the annual rental value of the properties. But not a single of them has increased the rate upto 25 per cent because the members are afraid of losing their popularity. As Dr. Minocha rightly observes, "the local bodies have not exploited their existing powers of taxation. To some extent, this is because the low paying capacity of the people. But a part from this factor, the elected representatives do not want to incur the displeasure of the electorate and politically a greater exploitation of tax powers is regarded as hazardous venture." Finally, the tax on land and building imposed by the state government has greatly reduced the scope for the municipal taxation. It seems illogical for the state government to levy this tax when the municipal bodies are already levying it.

A big disadvantage from which these corporations suffer is that the under new constitution all the sources of public income are divided between the state and central governments and the local bodies have not been given any separate source. Thus, they have to depend on them by the state governments and their financial position has been made dependent on the financial position of state as such. This has made the financial position of the municipal corporations in the economically backward states deplorable. Thus, for instance, although it is felt

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Property tax</th>
<th>Octroi or terminal tax</th>
<th>Other Taxes</th>
<th>Total tax revenue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959-60</td>
<td>130.79</td>
<td>138.60</td>
<td>12.94</td>
<td>282.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(47.03)</td>
<td>(49.09)</td>
<td>(4.58)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-61</td>
<td>146.44</td>
<td>175.46</td>
<td>13.87</td>
<td>235.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(43.61)</td>
<td>(52.26)</td>
<td>(4.13)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-62</td>
<td>153.70</td>
<td>189.52</td>
<td>19.33</td>
<td>362.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(42.39)</td>
<td>(52.27)</td>
<td>(5.34)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>157.29</td>
<td>206.06</td>
<td>25.18</td>
<td>388.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(40.48)</td>
<td>(53.04)</td>
<td>(6.48)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>171.14</td>
<td>222.38</td>
<td>23.97</td>
<td>1417.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(40.94)</td>
<td>(53.32)</td>
<td>(5.74)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>157.06</td>
<td>236.62</td>
<td>57.21</td>
<td>450.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(34.83)</td>
<td>(52.48)</td>
<td>(12.69)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: *Civic Affairs*, op. cit., p. 70.
(Figures in brackets show the percentage).
that the state government in U.P. should share with the municipal apart of the revenue derived by it from the entertainment tax, electricity duty, etc., the U.P. Government has flatly refused to accept any such suggestions pleading its own financial difficulties. Not only that, it has now started imposing such taxes as were reserved since long for the municipal bodies.

The most significant cause of the low income of Indian local bodies is the general poverty of the country. The annual national per capita income in England has been computed of Rs. 1,092; in U.S.A., Rs. 2,053; in Canada, Rs. 1,268; in France Rs. 636; in Japan Rs. 271, while in India only Rs. 125. The national wealth per head of population in England some years ago was Rs. 6,371; in U.S.A. Rs. 9,356; in Canada, Rs. 8,023; in France Rs. 4,584, in Japan Rs. 230 and in India only Rs. 441. This means that India is 10 to 20 times poorer as compared with the prosperous countries of the west.1 The wealth and income of Indian people increase as a result of economic and industrial development of the country, her taxable capacity is bound to remain low.

Another cause responsible for the poverty of Indian Local bodies has been the ill-distribution of resources. In England, the local bodies incur about 33 per cent of the total national expenditure, in U.S.A. about 54 per cent, while in India only 20%.

1 M.P. Sharma, "Local Self Government in India", Kitab Mahal (Allahabad), 1967, p. 175-76.
2 Ibid.
The municipal corporation of Bombay has the highest per capita income of Rs. 30.24 followed by the municipal corporation of Ahmedabad and Delhi, Rs. 35.97 and 34.91 respectively. The corporation of Trivandrum has the lowest per capita income, only Rs. 7.83.1

**Expenditure**

The increase in expenditure of these corporations may be classified partly to the enlargement of their territorial jurisdiction and partly increased population. Special requirements of town planning, slum clearance, housing, water supply, health, drainage, sewerage, etc., have strained their financial resources further. The general increase in price and the incidental increase in the cost of living index have also been forcing the corporations to pay out more for wages, salaries and supplies, plants and equipments. Besides these, lack of proper control over their expenditure, inordinate extravagance on the part of municipal officials, undesirable expenditure over and above what is provided in the budget, etc., are some other factors which are responsible for the increase in the expenditure.

However, this reflects the increasing burden of public health and public works. The share of these two items alone

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1 R.L. Khanna, "Municipal Government and Administration in India", Mohindra Capital Publishers (Chandigarh), 1967, p.57
in the budgets of local bodies has increased from Rs. 25 crores in 1955-56 to Rs. 63.3 crores in 1960-61 and still further to Rs. 80.6 crores in 1961-62. In fact, the expenditure of the city corporations on public health and conveyance more than doubled between 1955-56 and 1960-61 and their outlay on public works increased by 700 per cent during this period.

An item which may figure more and more in the future is debt charges which absorbed as much as Rs. 8.1 crores in 1961-62 as against Rs. 7.0 crores in the last year. The outstanding debt of Corporations and Municipalities is increasing year by year and in the period 1955-56 to 1960-61, the city corporations increased their indebtedness by 78 per cent the parallel rise in the case of municipalities being 73 per cent. "At the end of March 1961, the combined debt of municipalities and corporations stood at Rs. 132.2 crores, a rise of Rs. 57.8 crores over the debt position at the end of March 1956."1

It appears from Table 8, the variations in the proportion of total expenditure on revenue and capital head have been confined within a narrow range. In view of the rapidly mounting indebtedness, however, the capital expenditure should have improved its share considerably. It is not able that capital expenditure in all years under study has been much less than the loans incurred in those years. Thus, the

1 Civic Affairs (Kanpur), February 1963, Vol. 10, p.25.
Municipal Corporations in U.P., have used a part of their loans to finance the increase in their revenue expenditure which condition has to be viewed with concern. Normally, loans should be contracted to finance capital expenditure only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Revenue Expenditure</th>
<th>Capital Expenditure</th>
<th>Total Disbursement</th>
<th>Total loan taken during year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959-60</td>
<td>801.37 (92.32)</td>
<td>66.71 (7.68)</td>
<td>868.08 (100)</td>
<td>163.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-61</td>
<td>960.27 (94.60)</td>
<td>54.86 (5.40)</td>
<td>1015.13 (100)</td>
<td>188.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-62</td>
<td>965.98 (95.15)</td>
<td>49.20 (4.85)</td>
<td>1015.18 (100)</td>
<td>171.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>964.96 (91.06)</td>
<td>94.76 (8.94)</td>
<td>1059.72 (100)</td>
<td>114.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>987.08 (91.88)</td>
<td>87.18 (8.12)</td>
<td>1075.26 (100)</td>
<td>99.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>1299.10 (92.44)</td>
<td>106.23 (7.56)</td>
<td>1405.33 (100)</td>
<td>263.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Civic Affairs, op.cit., p. 9.  
(Figures in brackets show the percentage).

Grants-in-Aid

The percentage of grants-in-aid varies from state to state. In all urban local bodies in India grants estimated for 14.5% of
their ordinary income. The main purposes of grants are as follows:

1. Ad hoc non-recurring grants to meet a part of the capital cost of water supply and drainage schemes, slum clearance, housing, etc.

2. For the maintenance of primary schools where the state government themselves have not assumed responsibility for this service.

3. Towards payments of dearness allowances to staff.

4. To meet part of the cost incurred on secondary schools, medical institutions, maternity and child welfare centres and public measures such as anti-malaria and anti-filaria operations.

5. Towards the pay of certain officers such as health officer and engineers, etc.

6. General purposes in a few states to support municipal finance generally.

State grants-in-aid to municipal bodies did not change much during the period from 1950-51 to 1960-61. It was stated in the report of the committee of Ministers constituted by the Central Council of the Local Self Government that although the state governments were receiving larger grants-in-aid from the Union Government than what they used to get about a decade back, 'they in turn have not passed on this to the
State grants to local authorities in India have been discretionary in character and dependent on the exigencies of state financial conditions. The state governments themselves have mostly been in violence and they have been looking for more central assistance to cope with their financial difficulties. A recent committee has even recommended the constitution of a Municipal Finance Commission in every state well before the appointment of the quinquennial Finance Commission by the President of India. The Municipal Finance Commission, according to this committee, would, "examine the financial requirements of local bodies for meeting their financial obligations for water supply, sanitation, health and other obligatory services and expenditure on schemes of planning and development forming part of the States Five-Year Plan but meant to be executed by the local bodies."^2

It was also recommended by the committee constituted by the Central Council of Local Self-government that, "at least 25 per cent of the proceeds of the motor vehicle tax should be earmarked for local bodies."^3

Like other recommendations, this also has fallen on deaf ears. Incidentally, central plan funds have been made available via the state governments to the bodies for their water supply.

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3 Ibid., p.55.
and sewerage projects and limited housing schemes such as those for sweeper's housing, preparation of city master plans and urban community development.¹

Municipal Corporations very often complain about the inadequacy of grants in relation to needs and strict conditions regarding their receipts. The money as grant neither represented the relative state interest in the various services administered by municipal bodies nor reflecting balancing of need for the various services in relation to the state and local funds available for financing the grants given are "based on no understandable principle and generally they are not based on needs."² The same observation can be made with regard to the loans granted to the corporations in the State. In addition, they have not been able to find out their clear limitations.


2 Local Finance enquiry Committee Report, 1951
Chapter VI

EACH MUNICIPAL CORPORATION IS DEALT WITH SEPARATELY

KANPUR MUNICIPAL CORPORATION

INTRODUCTION

The city of Kanpur, which is often described as a "Manchester of North India" owes its present importance and economic prosperity due to its industrialisation and private enterprises. Though the city lacks attraction from the tourist point of view, it had own importance during Mahabharat times of ancient India. In the British days the city was called as Cawnpore. In the course of time the spelling was gradually replaced by Kanpur. It is the city of mills, factories and workshops and linked by road, rail and air with other parts of the country. It is served by Northern, Central and North-Eastern railways. District is comprise of six tahsils and three towns. Kanpur town Group consists of Kanpur Municipal Corporation, Railway Colony -- Northern and Central Railway Colony, Rawatpur Station Yard, Kanpur Cantonment, Armapor Estate and Chakeri Aerodrome.

The Kanpur Municipal Corporation is composed of 72 members
directly elected by the people from 36 wards. Each ward having double-members constituency and each voter has two votes. Out of the 72 members, the seats for six members are reserved for scheduled castes. The members so elected are called Councillors (Sabhasads). These elected councillors further elect 8 Aldermen (Vishishta Sadasyas) in accordance with the system of proportional representation/single transferable vote. The term of office of these councillors including Aldermen is five years.

FUNCTIONS

Municipal Corporation carry out different functions. These functions may be classified under the following two heads:

1. Obligatory functions
2. Discretionary functions

Obligatory functions:

It shall be incumbent on the Mahapalika to make reasonable and adequate provision, by any means or measures which it is lawfully competent to it to use or to take, for each of the following matters, namely:

1. Erection, where there are no natural boundary marks, of substantial boundary marks of such description and in such a position as shall be approved by the State Government defining the limits or any alteration in the limits of the city;
2. The naming or numbering of streets and of public places vesting in the Mahapalika and the numbering of premises;

3. The collection and removal of sewage, offensive matters and rubbish and treatment and disposal thereof including establishing and maintaining farm or factory;

4. The watering, scavenging and cleansing of all public streets and places in the city and the removal of all sweepings therefrom;

5. The construction, maintenance and cleansing of drains and drainage works, and of public laterines, water-closets, urinals and similar conveniences;

6. Supplying, constructing and maintaining in accordance with the general system approved by the Mahapalika receptacles fittings pipes and other appliances whatsoever on or for the use of premises for receiving and conducting the sewage thereof into drains under the control of the Mahapalika;

7. The management and maintenance of all Mahapalika water works and the construction or acquisition of new works necessary for a sufficient supply of water for public and private purposes;

8. Guarding from pollution water used for human consumption and preventing polluted water from being so used;

9. The lighting of public streets, Mahapalika markets and public buildings and other public places vested in the Mahapalika;
10. The establishment, maintenance or supports of public hospitals and dispensaries including hospitals for the isolation and treatment of persons suffering or suspected to be infected with a contagious or infectious disease and carrying out other measures necessary for public medical relief;

11. Preventing and checking the spread of contagious, infectious and dangerous diseases;

12. Provision for anti-rabic treatment;

13. Maintenance of ambulance service;

14. Establishing and maintaining a system of public vaccination;

15. The registration of vital statistics including births and deaths;

16. Establishing, maintaining and assisting maternity centres and child-welfare and birth control clinics;

17. The organisation, maintenance or management of chemical or bacteriological laboratories for the examination or analysis of water, food or drugs, for the detection of diseases or adulteration or for researches connected with public health;

18. The reclamation of unhealthy localities, the removal of noxious vegetation and generally the abatement of all nuisances;

19. The regulation and abatement of offensive and dangerous trades, callings or practices including prostitution;
20. The maintenance, fixing and regulation of places for the disposal of the dead and the provision of new places for the said purpose and disposing of unclaimed dead bodies or aiding within its means any arrangement made with the same objects by any other institution;

21. The construction and maintenance of public markets and slaughter houses and the regulation of all markets and slaughter houses;

22. The securing or removal of dangerous buildings and places;

23. Maintaining hydrants and rendering such assistance, including the maintaining or managing of a fire brigade in extinguishing fires and protecting life and property when first occur, as the state government may be general or special order direct from time to time.

24. The removal of obstructions and projections in or upon streets, bridges and other public places;

25. Establishing, maintaining, aiding and suitably accommodating schools for primary education including nursery education;

26. Establishing and maintaining or granting aid to institutions of physical culture;

27. Maintaining or contributing to the maintenance of veterinary hospitals;

28. The construction or acquisition and maintenance of cattle-ponds,
29. The construction, maintenance, alteration and improvement of public streets, bridges, subways, culverts, causeways and the like;

30. Planting and maintaining trees on road sides and other public places;

31. Regulation of traffic and provision of traffic signs;

32. Assisting by constructing and maintaining residential quarters, by giving loans in the proper housing of Mahapalika conservancy staff and all sections of working classes;

33. Town planning and improvement including slum clearance and preparation and execution of housing schemes and laying out of new streets;

34. Maintaining and developing the value of property vested in, or entrusted, to the management of the Mahapalika;

35. The maintenance of a Mahapalika office and of all public monuments and open space and other property vesting in the Mahapalika;

36. The issue of a Bulletin reporting proceedings or substance of proceedings of the Mahapalika and of its committees and giving other information about the activities of the Mahapalika;

37. Prompt attention to official letters and preparation and submission of such return, statements and reports as the State Government requires the Mahapalika to submit, and
38. Fulfilment of any obligation imposed by or under the Act or any other law for the time being in force.

**Discretionary Functions**

The Mahapalika may, in its discretion, provide from time to time, either wholly or partly, for all or any of the following matters namely:

1. The organisation, maintenance or management of institutions including lunatic asylums, leper homes, orphanages and rescue homes for women, within or without the city for the care of persons who are infirm, sick or incurable; or for the care and training of blind, deaf, mute or otherwise disabled persons or of handicapped children;

2. The provision of milk to expectant or nursing mothers or infants or school children;

3. Swimming pools, public wash houses, bathing places and other institutions designed for the improvement and construction of bathing ghats on river banks.

4. Dairies or farms within or without the city for the supply, distribution and processing of milk or milk products for the benefit of the residents of the city;

5. The construction and maintenance in public streets or places of drinking fountains or drinking sheds or stand-posts for human beings and water-troughs for animals.

6. Encouraging music and other fine arts and providing music in public places or places of public resort;
7. Making grants to educational and cultural institutions situated within and outside the city;

8. The provision of public parks, gardens, play-grounds and recreation grounds, installing statues and beautifying the city;

9. The holding of exhibitions, athletics or games;

10. The regulation of lodging houses, camping grounds and rest-houses in the city;

11. The construction, establishment and maintenance of theatres, rest-houses and other public buildings;

12. The organisation or maintenance in times of scarcity, of shops or stalls for the sale of necessaries of life;

13. The building or purchase and maintenance of dwellings for Mahapatika officers and servants;

14. The grant of loans for building purposes to Mahapatika servants on such terms and subject to such condition as may be prescribed by the Mahapatika;

15. Any other measures for the welfare of Mahapatika servants or any class of them;

16. With the State Government's previous sanction, the purchase of any undertakings for the supply of electrical energy or gas or the starting or subsidizing of any such undertaking which may be in the general interest of the public;

17. With the State Government's previous sanction the construction, purchase, organisation, maintenance
or management of tramways, trackless trams or motor transport facilities for the conveyance of the public or goods within or without the city;

18. The furtherance of educational objects other than those mentioned in clause (XXV) of Section 114 and making grants to educational institutions within or without the city;

19. The establishment and maintenance or the aiding of libraries, museums and art galleries, botanical or zoological collections and the purchase or construction of buildings therefor;

20. Construction, establishment, maintenance or contributions to the maintenance of baths, bathing ghats, washing places, tanks, wells, dams and other works of public utility;

21. The construction or maintenance of infirmaries or hospitals for animals;

22. The destruction of birds or animals causing a nuisance or of vermin, and the confinement or destruction of stray or ownerless dogs;

23. Contributions towards any public funds raised for the relief of human suffering within the city or for the public welfare;

24. Presentation of civic adresses and holding of civic receptions;

25. The acquisition and maintenance of grazing grounds and the establishment and maintenance of a breeding stud;
26. Grants of loans or other facilities to any person, society or institution interested in the provision of dwellings or the execution of house schemes;

27. The provision of poor relief;

28. The building or purchase and maintenance of gauhalas and of sanitary stables of horses, ponies or cattle used in hackney carriages or cart;

29. Surveys of buildings or lands;

30. Relief measures to meet any calamity affecting the public in the city;

31. The adoption of any measure likely to promote the public safety, health or convenience than a measure specified in Section 114 or in the other clauses of this section;

32. Subject to the provision in the budget, the making of a contribution towards any public ceremony or entertainment in the city;

33. The establishment and maintenance of tourist bureau;

34. The establishment and maintenance of a press and workshop for Mahapalika work as also for undertaking private work on charges in spare time;

35. Making arrangement for preparation of compost manure from night soil and rubbish;

36. Taking measures to promote trade and industry and establishing a Mahapalika bank;

37. Establishing Labour Welfare centres for its employees and subsidizing the activities of any association,
union or club of such employees by grant or loan for its general advancement;

38. Organising or contributing to municipal board unions;

39. Making provision for removal of social disabilities of scheduled castes and backward classes;

40. Taking measures for the control and relief of beggary;

41. With the previous sanction of the State Government the setting up and maintenance of a Mahapalika police force for taking over and discharging such police duties and in such manner as may be prescribed;

42. With the previous sanction of the State Government, the undertaking of any commercial duty providing or promoting amenity or employment or removing unemployment;

43. The doing of anything whereupon expenditure is declared by the State Government or by the Mahapalika with the sanction of the State Government to be an appropriate charge on the Mahapalika fund.

Provided that the State Government may in respect of any Mahapalika or all Mahapalikas by notification in the official Gazette declare any of the functions mentioned in this section to be a duty of the Mahapalika or all Mahapalikas and thereupon the provisions of this Act shall apply thereto as if it had been a duty imposed by Section 114.
**AREA**

The total area of the district is 6,121.0 sq. km, out of which 5,820.1 sq. km is rural area and 300.9 sq. km is urban area. The density of population in the district is 490 persons per sq. km. In rural area the density of population per sq. km is 294 persons as against 4,261 persons in urban area.\(^1\)

The total area of the corporation is 261.59 sq. km and the density of population per sq. km is 4,413 persons.

The following table shows the area and density of population in the corporation from 1951-1971:

**TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Corporation</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Area in sq. km</th>
<th>Population per sq. km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanpur Municipal Corporation</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>65.66</td>
<td>6,301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>261.59</td>
<td>3,369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>261.59</td>
<td>4,413</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**POPULATION**

The total population of the district is 2,996,232, out of which 1,282,331 is urban population and 1,713,901 is rural population.\(^2\)

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2 Ibid.
is 1,154,388 persons out of which 652,369 are males and 501,819 are females.

Table 2 (p. 138) shows details of population from 1901 to 1971.

**ECONOMIC STATUS**

Kanpur is a highly industrialised city of the State. A number of cotton and woollen industries have been set up in this city. In Uttar Pradesh, Kanpur is the home of cotton textiles. In 1778, it started as a cantonment and an agency of the East India Company was established. In the beginning navigation was the only source of transportation. Development in roads and construction of railway lines gave facility to trade and commerce. Kanpur soon grew into a great collecting and distributing centre of Northern India for cotton, woollen, leather, sugar, etc. Tanning and currying of leather and production of leather goods are the important large scale industries in the city. In 1951 the number of registered factories was 292 and in 1961 it increased to 420.¹

Table 3 (p. 139) shows total number of workers and non-workers of different age groups in the total population of Kanpur Municipal Corporation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of Town</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Decade Variation</th>
<th>Percentage decade variation</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1901</td>
<td>202,797</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>114,573</td>
<td>88,224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1911</td>
<td>178,557</td>
<td>-24,240</td>
<td>-11.95</td>
<td>103,316</td>
<td>75,241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1921</td>
<td>216,436</td>
<td>+37,879</td>
<td>+21.21</td>
<td>129,764</td>
<td>86,672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1931</td>
<td>219,189</td>
<td>+2,753</td>
<td>+1.27</td>
<td>129,276</td>
<td>89,913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1941</td>
<td>452,495</td>
<td>+233,306</td>
<td>+106.44</td>
<td>275,248</td>
<td>177,247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>636,443</td>
<td>+183,948</td>
<td>+40.65</td>
<td>374,286</td>
<td>262,157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>881,177</td>
<td>+244,734</td>
<td>+38.45</td>
<td>505,063</td>
<td>376,114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>1,154,383</td>
<td>+273,211</td>
<td>+31.01</td>
<td>652,569</td>
<td>501,819</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 3

| Age-Group | TOTAL POPULATION | | TOTAL WORKER | | TOTAL NON-WORKER |
|-----------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
|           | Persons Males Females | Males Females | Males Females |
| Total     | 1,154,388 652,569 501,819 | 327,474 11,989 | 325,095 489,830 |
| 0-14      | 448,344 236,860 211,484 | 4,554 225 | 232,306 211,259 |
| 15-19     | 113,081 64,266 48,813 | 19,862 541 | 44,406 48,272 |
| 20-24     | 110,476 62,893 47,583 | 41,450 1,456 | 21,443 46,127 |
| 25-29     | 97,500 54,865 42,635 | 49,365 1,647 | 5,500 40,986 |
| 30-39     | 155,518 89,651 65,867 | 86,107 3,139 | 3,544 62,728 |
| 40-49     | 115,473 72,100 43,373 | 69,381 2,636 | 2,719 40,737 |
| 50-59     | 65,241 42,943 22,298 | 39,114 1,451 | 3,829 20,847 |
| 60+       | 48,681 28,950 19,731 | 17,631 890 | 11,319 18,841 |
| Age not stated | 74 39 35 | 10 4 | 29 31 |

CLIMATIC CONDITION

The climate of the city is dry and healthy. Hot westerly winds blow during summersperiod. Occasionally these winds interrupted by violent dust storms. Overall the weather of the city is most oppressive.

The following table shows the temperature and annual rainfall of the city:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the city</th>
<th>Annual Rainfall in mm</th>
<th>Temperature in Centigrade</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanpur</td>
<td>741.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


LITERACY

In 1961 the percentage of literate persons in the district was 31.5 and in 1971 it increased to 36.6. In urban population the percentage of literacy in 1961 was 46.7 and in 1971 it rose to 50.8 as against the rural percentage of 20.9 and 26.0 respectively.

Out of 1,154,383 total population of Municipal Corporation 376,246 males and 207,761 females are literate.

Table 5 (p.141) shows the percentage of literate and educated persons to total population (including age group 0-4) in the district.
TABLE 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1961 Percentage</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>1971 Percentage</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


LANGUAGE

Hindi language is widely spoken in the district. It is the mother tongue of 89.4 per cent of the population while only 7.5 per cent population speaks Urdu. In urban area, Hindi is spoken by 78.6 per cent and Urdu by 14.0 per cent of the population. 1

AGRA MUNICIPAL CORPORATION

INTRODUCTION

The city of Taj, Agra, lies on the banks of river Yamuna. It is famous for its beautiful monuments known as Taj Mahal and attracts large number of tourists from every corner of the

1 Census of India 1961, District Census Hand Book, Uttar Pradesh, Kanpur District, p.VI.
world. There are many other places being centres of attraction to tourists in the city. Agra has been the capital of Mughal rulers. It rose to the glory under the Mughal Emperors, particularly Shahjahan. Fatehpur Sikri is famous for its red rocks. Historically, Agra is one of the most important cities of India. The city has also flourished in trade and is the principal centre of shoe making. It is rightly called the Northampron of India. It is linked by road, rail and air with other parts of the country. The most important road is Grand Trunk Road. Agra is served by Northern, Central and Western railways. District is comprise of seven tahsils and twelve towns. Agra town group consists of Agra Municipal Corporation, Agra Cantonment, Dayalbagh Town Area and Swamibagh Town Area.

The Agra Municipal Corporation consists of 54 Councillors (Sabhasads). The seats for eight councillors are reserved for Scheduled Caste candidates. These councillors are directly elected by the people from 27 wards. These elected Councillors further elect 6 Aldermen (Vishishta Sadasyas) in accordance with the system of proportional representation by single transferable vote. The term of office of these councillors including Aldermen is five years.

FUNCTIONS*

* Supra, see details, "Functions", p. 126.
**AREA**

The total area of the district is 4,816.0 sq. km, out of which 4,704.6 sq. km is rural area and 111.4 sq. km is urban area. The density of population in the district is 479 persons per sq. km. In rural area the density of population per sq. km is 311 persons as against 7,587 persons is in urban area. The total area of the corporation is 61.80 sq. km and the density of population per sq. km is 9,578 persons.

The following table shows the area and density of population in the corporation from 1951 to 1971.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Corporation</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Area in sq. km</th>
<th>Population per sq. km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agra Municipal Corporation</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>19.17</td>
<td>17,396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>61.80</td>
<td>7,476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>61.80</td>
<td>9,578</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**POPULATION**

The total population of the district is 2,308,638 persons out of which 845,236 is urban population and 1,463,402 is rural population.

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2 Ibid.
The total population of Agra Municipal Corporation is 591,917 persons out of which 323,473 are males and 268,444 are females.

Table 7 (p. 145) shows details of population from 191 to 1971.

**ECONOMIC STATUS**

Agra is an industrialised city of the State. It is famous for leather and leather goods specially for shoes. It is one of the two districts in the State having factories and workshops between eight and ten thousands. There are 344 registered factories in the district. The number of factories and workshops registered and unregistered in the district is 9,127. In 1951, there were only 285 registered factories and in 1961, it decreased to 231.¹

Table 8 (p. 146) shows total number of workers and non-workers of different age groups in the total population of Agra Municipal Corporation.

**CLIMATIC CONDITIONS**

The climate of the city is dry and hot. The hot weather stays longer. Cold weather runs from October to January. Frosts are common.

Table 9 shows annual rainfall and temperature of the city.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of town</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Decade variation</th>
<th>Percentage decade variation</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1901</td>
<td>188,022</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>99,903</td>
<td>88,119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1911</td>
<td>185,449</td>
<td>- 2,573</td>
<td>- 1.37</td>
<td>101,335</td>
<td>84,114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1921</td>
<td>185,532</td>
<td>+ 83</td>
<td>+ 0.04</td>
<td>104,051</td>
<td>81,481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1931</td>
<td>205,487</td>
<td>+ 19,955</td>
<td>+ 10.76</td>
<td>113,320</td>
<td>92,167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1941</td>
<td>257,368</td>
<td>+ 51,881</td>
<td>+ 25.25</td>
<td>141,453</td>
<td>115,915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>333,530</td>
<td>+ 76,162</td>
<td>+ 29.59</td>
<td>181,393</td>
<td>152,137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>462,020</td>
<td>+128,490</td>
<td>+ 38.52</td>
<td>251,674</td>
<td>210,346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>591,917</td>
<td>+129,897</td>
<td>+ 28.12</td>
<td>323,473</td>
<td>268,444</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age-group</th>
<th>TOTAL POPULATION</th>
<th>TOTAL WORKERS</th>
<th>TOTAL NONWORKERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persons</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>591,917</td>
<td>323,473</td>
<td>268,444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 -14</td>
<td>251,663</td>
<td>130,667</td>
<td>120,996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 - 19</td>
<td>61,530</td>
<td>38,107</td>
<td>27,423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>51,991</td>
<td>28,443</td>
<td>23,558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>41,808</td>
<td>22,209</td>
<td>19,599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>74,181</td>
<td>45,548</td>
<td>28,633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>50,213</td>
<td>28,526</td>
<td>21,687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>30,909</td>
<td>17,768</td>
<td>13,141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 +</td>
<td>29,608</td>
<td>16,205</td>
<td>13,403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age not Stated</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of city</th>
<th>Annual Rainfall in (mm)</th>
<th>Temperature in Centigrade Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>734.9</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census of India 1971, Uttar Pradesh, Part VI-A, Town Directory, p. 64

LITERACY

In 1961 the percentage of literate persons in the district was 24.0 and in 1971 it increased to 28.0. In urban population the percentage of literacy in 1961 was 37.7 and in 1971 it rose to 40.9 as against the rural percentage of 16.6 and 20.5 respectively. Out of 583,856 total population of Municipal Corporation, 169,119 males and 82,751 females are literate.

The following table shows the percentage of literate and educated persons to total population (including age-group 0-4) in the district:

TABLE 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1961</th>
<th>1971</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LANGUAGE

Hindi language is widely spoken in Agra. It is the mother tongue of 90.7 per cent of the population while only 6.4 per cent of the population speaks Urdu. In urban areas, Hindi is spoken by 75.8 per cent of the population and Urdu by 16.2 per cent of the population.¹

VARANASI MUNICIPAL CORPORATION

INTRODUCTION

The city of Varanasi or popularly known as Banaras is situated on the banks of Ganges. Its original name was 'Kashi' and it is a holy and religious place of the country. It is in fact the religious centre of Hindus and contains about 1,500 comparatively large temples besides countless minor shrines. It is reputed to be one of the ancient cities of the country. For more than thousand years great masses of people have come here from every corner of the country to receive spiritual sustenance by the banks of the river. Varanasi is bounded by two tributaries of Ganges, Varuna, on the North and Asi on the South and thus it is called Varanasi. Describing a rough semi-circle round the city is the Panchkosı

Road, an ancient path of pilgrimage taken by pious pilgrims now as before. Varanasi is linked by road, rail and air with other parts of the country. It is an important junction of Northern, North-Eastern and Eastern railways. District Varanasi is comprise of four Tahsils and seven towns. Varanasi consists of Varanasi Municipal Corporation, Banaras Hindu University, Railway Colony and Varanasi Cantonment.

The Varanasi Municipal Corporation consists of 54 councillors (Sabhasads). The seats for four councillors are reserved for Scheduled Caste candidates. These councillors are directly elected by the people from the 27 wards. These elected councillors further elect 6 Aldermen (Vishishta Sadasyas) in accordance with the system of proportional representation by a single transferable vote. The term of office of these councillors including Aldermen is five years.

**FUNCTIONS**

**AREA**

The total area of the district is 5,091.0 sq. km out of which 4,961.8 sq. km is rural area and 129.2 sq. km is urban area. The density of population in the district is 560 persons per sq. km. In rural area, the density of population per sq. km is 430 persons as against 5,552 persons is in urban area.¹ The

---

total area of the corporation is 73.82 sq. km and the density of population per sq. km is 7,909 persons.

The following table shows the area and density of population in the corporation from 1951-1971:

**TABLE 11**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Corporation</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Area in sq. km</th>
<th>Population per sq. km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Varanasi Municipal Corporation</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>34.45</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>73.82</td>
<td>6,384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>73.82</td>
<td>7,909</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**POPULATION**

The total population of the district is 2,852,459 persons out of which 716,774 is urban population and 2,135,685 is rural population. The total population of Varanasi Municipal Corporation is 583,856 persons out of which 317,402 are males and 266,454 are females.

Table 12 (p.151) shows details of population from 1901 to 1971.

**ECONOMIC STATUS**

Varanasi is an industrialised city of the State. It is

---

1 Ibid.
TABLE 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of town</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Decade variation</th>
<th>Percentage decade variation</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1901</td>
<td>215,223</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>111,857</td>
<td>103,366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1911</td>
<td>205,420</td>
<td>-9,803</td>
<td>-4.55</td>
<td>106,651</td>
<td>98,769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1921</td>
<td>200,022</td>
<td>-5,398</td>
<td>-2.63</td>
<td>107,008</td>
<td>93,014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1931</td>
<td>203,372</td>
<td>+3,350</td>
<td>+1.67</td>
<td>112,894</td>
<td>90,478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1941</td>
<td>256,646</td>
<td>+55,274</td>
<td>+27.18</td>
<td>143,902</td>
<td>114,744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>341,923</td>
<td>+83,277</td>
<td>+32.20</td>
<td>186,545</td>
<td>155,378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>471,258</td>
<td>+129,335</td>
<td>+37.83</td>
<td>257,831</td>
<td>213,427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>583,856</td>
<td>+112,598</td>
<td>+23.89</td>
<td>317,402</td>
<td>266,656</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

famous for silk industry and artistic brasswears. Both the industries have flourished as cottage industries and have earned a good name for the city. Banarasi sarees are famous all over in India and abroad. In Varanasi many families are dependent on these industries. In 1951, there were only 125 registered factories and in 1961, it decreased to 112.  

Table 14 (p. 153) shows total number of workers and non-workers of different age groups in the total population of Varanasi Municipal Corporation.

CLIMATIC CONDITIONS

The climate of the city is healthy and dry. The westerly winds blow in the months of May and June. The temperature also goes high in these months. During the months of July and August, weather becomes pleasant and heavy rainfall is recorded.

The following table shows the temperature and annual rainfall of the city:

**TABLE 13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the city</th>
<th>Annual Rainfall in mm.</th>
<th>Temperature in Centigrade Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Varanasi</td>
<td>1156.1</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age-Group</th>
<th>TOTAL POPULATION</th>
<th>TOTAL WORKERS</th>
<th>TOTAL NON-WORKERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persons</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>583,856</td>
<td>317,402</td>
<td>266,454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-14</td>
<td>242,248</td>
<td>128,098</td>
<td>114,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>56,333</td>
<td>31,926</td>
<td>24,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>49,557</td>
<td>27,174</td>
<td>22,383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>42,488</td>
<td>22,239</td>
<td>20,249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>72,812</td>
<td>39,174</td>
<td>33,638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>53,913</td>
<td>30,200</td>
<td>22,713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>32,672</td>
<td>19,386</td>
<td>13,286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>34,715</td>
<td>19,190</td>
<td>15,525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age not Stated</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LITERACY

In 1961 the percentage of literate persons in the district was 23.6 and in 1971 it increased to 27.3. In urban population the percentage of literacy in 1961 was 40.6 and in 1971 it rose to 44.1 as against the rural percentage of 18.4 and 21.6 respectively. Out of 583,856 total population of Municipal Corporation, 169,119 males and 82,751 females are literate.

The following table shows the percentage of literate and educated persons to total population in Varanasi district:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Varanasi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


LANGUAGE

Hindi language is widely spoken in Varanasi. It is the mothertongue of 90.9 per cent of the population while only 7.5 per cent population speaks Urdu. In Urban area, Hindi is spoken by 71.3 per cent of the population and Urdu by 22.2 per cent of the population.

INTRODUCTION

Allahabad is situated at the confluence of Ganges, Yamuna and invisible Saraswati. In ancient times Allahabad, then known as Prayag, was an important place of pilgrimage and it has the same importance even today. It attracts thousands of millions of Hindu pilgrims every year to take a dip at Sangam. For every religious minded Hindu, Kumbh, which comes every twelve years, has a unique importance. People come from far and wide, poor and rich alike belonging to various sects and communities, just to take a dip at the holy Sangam. Besides, it has become the seat of the High Court of the State. Allahabad is linked with other parts of the country by road, rail and air. It is an important junction of Northern, Central and North-Eastern Railways. District is comprise of eight tahsils and four towns. Allahabad Town Group consists of Allahabad Municipal Corporation, Subedarganj Railway Colony and Allahabad Cantonnement.

The Allahabad Municipal Corporation consists of 54 Councillors.
(Sabhasads). The seats for five Councillors are reserved for scheduled caste candidates. These councillors are directly elected by the people from the 27 wards. These elected Councillors further elect 6 Aldermen (Vishishta Sadasyas) in accordance with the system of proportional representation by single transferable vote. The term of office of these councillors including Aldermen is five years.

FUNCTIONS*

AREA

The total area of the district is 7,255.0 sq. km, out of which 7,161.0 sq. km is rural area and 93.9 sq. km is urban area.

TABLE 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Corporation</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Area in Sq. Km.</th>
<th>Population per Sq.Km.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad Municipal Corporation</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>62.68</td>
<td>12,903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>62.68</td>
<td>6,572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>62.68</td>
<td>7,795</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The density of population in the district is 405 persons per sq. km. In rural area the density of population per sq. km is 334 persons as against 5,771 persons is in urban area.\(^1\) The total

* Supra, See details, "Functions", p. 126.

area of the Corporation is 62.68 sq. km and the density of population is 7,795 persons per sq. km.

Table 16 shows the area and density of population in the corporation from 1951 to 1971.

**POPULATION**

The total population of the district is 2,937,278 persons out of which 542,103 persons is urban population and 2,395,175 is rural population.¹ The total population of the Municipal Corporation is 490,622 persons out of which 273,347 are males and 217,275 are females.

Table 17 (p. 158) shows details of population from 1901 to 1971.

**ECONOMIC STATUS**

Allahabad is an industrialised city of the State. Major Government Presses of the State are located in the city and are engaged in Government printing and other works. In urban area the number of factories and workshops is 3,625. Allahabad is one of the 9th district in the State having factories and workshops between 6,000 and 7,999. In 1951, the number of registered factories in the city was 91 and in 1961 it increased to 132.²

¹ Ibid.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of Town</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Decade Variation</th>
<th>Percentage Variation</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1901</td>
<td>172,032</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>91,762</td>
<td>80,270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1911</td>
<td>171,697</td>
<td>-335</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>96,208</td>
<td>75,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1921</td>
<td>157,220</td>
<td>-14,477</td>
<td>-8.43</td>
<td>89,663</td>
<td>67,557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1931</td>
<td>173,895</td>
<td>+16,675</td>
<td>+10.61</td>
<td>97,909</td>
<td>75,986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1941</td>
<td>246,226</td>
<td>+72,331</td>
<td>+41.59</td>
<td>138,484</td>
<td>107,742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>312,259</td>
<td>+66,033</td>
<td>+26.82</td>
<td>172,988</td>
<td>139,271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>411,955</td>
<td>+99,796</td>
<td>+31.93</td>
<td>229,980</td>
<td>191,975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>490,622</td>
<td>+78,667</td>
<td>+19.10</td>
<td>273,347</td>
<td>217,275</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age-Group</th>
<th>TOTAL POPULATION</th>
<th>TOTAL WORKERS</th>
<th>TOTAL NON-WORKERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persons</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>490,622</td>
<td>273,347</td>
<td>217,275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-14</td>
<td>199,999</td>
<td>105,999</td>
<td>94,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>48,095</td>
<td>27,399</td>
<td>20,696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>43,600</td>
<td>25,340</td>
<td>18,260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>36,058</td>
<td>20,010</td>
<td>16,048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>61,424</td>
<td>35,068</td>
<td>26,356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>48,644</td>
<td>29,408</td>
<td>19,236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>28,354</td>
<td>17,129</td>
<td>11,225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>24,377</td>
<td>12,925</td>
<td>11,442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age not stated</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18 (p. 159) shows total number of workers and non-workers of different age-groups and non-workers of different age-groups in the total population of Allahabad Municipal Corporation.

CLIMATIC CONDITION

The climate of the city is known for a decent cold weather with hot summer and pleasant rainy season. Over all the climate of Allahabad is healthy.

The following table shows the temperature and annual rainfall of the city.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the city</th>
<th>Annual Rainfall</th>
<th>Temperature in Centigrade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in mm</td>
<td>Maximum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad</td>
<td>923.9</td>
<td>46.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


LITERACY

In 1961 the percentage of literate persons in the district was 19.5 and in 1971 it increased to 23.9. In urban population the percentage of literacy in 1961 was 47.6 and in 1971 it rose to 51.7 as against the rural percentage of 13.3 and 17.6 respectively. Out of 490,622 total population of Municipal Corporation, 167,088 males and 90,514 females are literate.
The following table shows the percentage of literate and educated persons to total population (including age-group (0-4) in the district.

**TABLE 20**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Allahabad</th>
<th>1961</th>
<th>1971</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>57.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**LANGUAGE**

Hindi language is widely spoken in Allahabad. It is the mother tongue of 89.4 per cent of the population while only 9.3 per cent population speaks Urdu. In Urban area, Hindi is spoken by 71.8 per cent population and Urdu by 21.4 per cent of the population.¹

LUCKNOW MUNICIPAL CORPORATION

INTRODUCTION

The city of Lucknow lies mainly on the south bank of river Gomti. It is the Capital of Uttar Pradesh. Lucknow is one of the most beautiful and picturesque cities of the country. It is well known for its pottery, copper and brassware, wood and ivory carvings, and gold and silver embroidery on cloth, and rich perfumes. A city of garden, as it is often rightly described has a history dating back to far in ancient days. Lucknow has been the city of Nawabs. It is linked by road, rail and air with other parts of the country. It is an important junction of Northern and North-Eastern Railways.

District is comprise of three tahsils. Lucknow town Group consists of Lucknow Municipal Corporation, Charbagh, Alambagh and Lucknow Cantonment.

The lucknow municipal corporation consists of 63 Councillors (Sabhasads). The seats for five Councillors are reserved for Scheduled caste candidates. These councilors are directly elected by the people from 32 wards. These elected Councillors further elect 7 Aldermen (Vishishta Sadasyas) in accordance with the system of proportional representation by single transferable vote. The term of office of these councillors including Aldermen is five years.
The total area of the district is 2,528.0 sq. km, out of which 2,394.1 sq. km is rural area and 133.9 sq. km is urban area. The density of population in the district is 640 persons per sq. km. In rural area the density of population per sq. km is 332 persons as against 6,150 persons in urban area.¹ The total area of the corporation is 95.83 sq. km and the density of population is 7,818 persons per sq. km.

The following table shows the area and density of population in the corporation from 1951 to 1971.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Corporation</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Area in sq. km</th>
<th>Population per sq. km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>44.03</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Corporation</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>103.60</td>
<td>5,747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>95.83</td>
<td>7,818</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census of India 1971, Series 21, U.P., Part II-A, General Population Tables, p.179

The total population of the district is 1,617,846 persons out of which 8,23,470 is urban population and 794,376 is rural population.²

* Supra, See details, "Functions", p. 126.
2 Ibid.
The total population of the Municipal Corporation is 749,239 persons out of which 409,603 are males and 339,636 are females.

Table 22 (p. 165) shows details of population from 1901 to 1971.

**ECONOMIC STATUS**

Lucknow is an industrialised city of the State. There are 173 registered factories in Lucknow all of which situated in Town Group except only three. The total number of factories and workshops registered and unregistered in the district is 6,052 against the State average of 4,460 per district. In 1951, the number of registered factories and workshops in the city was 104 and in 1961, it increased to 173.¹

Table 23 (p.166) shows total number of workers and non-workers of different age groups in the total population of Municipal Corporation.

**CLIMATIC CONDITIONS**

The climate of the city is of subtropical monsoon type. It avoids parching drought and the opposite extremes of heat and cold. Temperature rises in the months of May and June when the hot westerly winds blow.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of town</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Decade variation</th>
<th>Percentage decade variation</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1901</td>
<td>256,239</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>136,653</td>
<td>119,586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1911</td>
<td>252,114</td>
<td>-4,125</td>
<td>-1.61</td>
<td>140,558</td>
<td>111,556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1921</td>
<td>240,566</td>
<td>-11,548</td>
<td>-4.58</td>
<td>135,613</td>
<td>104,953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1931</td>
<td>251,097</td>
<td>+10,531</td>
<td>+4.38</td>
<td>143,876</td>
<td>107,221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1941</td>
<td>354,560</td>
<td>+103,463</td>
<td>+41.20</td>
<td>200,623</td>
<td>153,937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.B.</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>444,711</td>
<td>+90,151</td>
<td>+25.43</td>
<td>246,506</td>
<td>198,205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.C.</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>595,440</td>
<td>+150,729</td>
<td>+33.89</td>
<td>329,801</td>
<td>265,639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.G.</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>749,239</td>
<td>+153,799</td>
<td>+25.83</td>
<td>409,603</td>
<td>339,636</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 23**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age-Group</th>
<th>TOTAL POPULATION</th>
<th>TOTAL WORKERS</th>
<th>TOTAL NON-WORKERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persons</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>749,239</td>
<td>409,603</td>
<td>339,636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-14</td>
<td>293,147</td>
<td>153,982</td>
<td>139,165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>76,826</td>
<td>42,612</td>
<td>34,214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>71,782</td>
<td>40,282</td>
<td>31,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>59,229</td>
<td>32,251</td>
<td>26,978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>96,416</td>
<td>52,719</td>
<td>43,697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>72,511</td>
<td>42,225</td>
<td>30,286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>41,640</td>
<td>24,921</td>
<td>16,719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>37,685</td>
<td>20,609</td>
<td>17,076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age not stated</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following table showing annual rainfall and temperature of the city:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the city</th>
<th>Annual Rainfall in mm</th>
<th>Temperature in centigrade Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>972.2</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>5.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


LITERACY

In 1961, the percentage of literate persons in the district was 30.2 and in 1971, it increased to 34.0. In urban population the percentage of literacy in 1961, was 47.2 and in 1971, it rose to 50.8 as against the rural percentage of 13.5 and 16.5 respectively. Out of 749,239 total population of Municipal Corporation, 237,816 males and 143,616 females are literate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lucknow</th>
<th>1961</th>
<th>1971</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25 shows the percentage of literate and educated persons to total population (including age group 0-4) in the district.

**LANGUAGE**

Hindi language is widely spoken in Lucknow. It is the mother-tongue of 78.6 per cent of the population while only 17.4 per cent population speaks Urdu. In Urban area, Hindi is spoken by 64.6 per cent of the population and Urdu by 27.5 per cent of the population.¹

¹ Census of India 1961, District Census Hand Book, Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow District, p. V.
CONCLUSION

It is substantially evident from the facts martialed in this work that the Local Self-governing institutions, from whatever angle they may be assessed are more or less a total failure in India. The main reasons for this failure as narrated in the thesis are given below succinctly:

(a) The political culture of the Indian masses has not developed up to the level required for their success. We are mostly living in fool's paradise and have not developed the habit of objective assessment and causes of our failures. We are in the habit of placing the blame of failures at other people's door heavenly factors, thus completely absolving ourselves of the faults or shortcomings that come our way. The habit of passing the buck is so common that it leaves little room for introspection.

(b) The division of local self-governing bodies is traditional and no attention is paid to the regional imbalances and the disproportionate division of assets. Nor are real causes critically and objectively examined.

(c) The habits of indolence, lethargy and parasitism is very common. The Britishers left India long ago but the maladies
which they left as heritage is still persisting. But to blame others for all the ills is a travesty of facts and would not stand scrutiny.

(d) Too much emphasis on theory is one of the main causes of failure. We wrongly believe that all is well both the local bodies though much literature has come out pointing out the failures and their reasons. Every malady is attributed to the misdeeds of the Raj, even though most of them are indigenous.

(e) Panchayat Raj institutions are unimaginatively appended to local self governing institutions. There is paucity of well trained personnel and adequate finances. Bureaucracy recruited and trained for the central administration and state administration is made to work for Municipal administration. They have to be round pegs in square holes, and are utterly ill-suited for local bodies.

(f) Politicians play a destructive role and there is too much of unwarranted interference from their side. Cases of corruption, embezzlement, misappropriation and reckless expenditure are frequently reported and justifiably alleged. Leaders of public opinion are self-centred and lay great emphasis on their political prospects. They do not bother for the economic prosperity or social security which is considered to be the main objective of civic institutions. Political bickering seems to be occupying most of their time and their
main enthusiasm is focussed on the future of their party with which their future is hitched.

Our experience with the local bodies, particularly the Panchayat Raj institutions has been disappointing. Local self government institutions (urban) are mostly suspended and administrative officers are appointed to run these Municipalities, District Boards, Town Areas, Cantonment Areas. In the light of these experiments what logic was there in establishment of Municipal Corporations in metropolitan towns.

Interviews with persons who have worked in these bodies go to reveal that the defects in these bodies were too obvious to be controverted. Lack of manpower resources, paucity of well-trained and suitable staff both at the administrative and political levels, have been mainly responsible for the debacles of these five municipal corporations.

Lack of financial resources, lack of cooperation and coordination between the generalist administrator, political leader and the expertise lack of suitable organisation all these maladies were pointedly considered responsible for the mismanagement at all levels. The basis of our planning is statistics which is wrong, exaggerated leave much to be desired.

(g) Urban local self government institutions are ill-managed and even the very basic unhygeinic amenities are never looked
after with adequate care and thought. The people often complain to authorities about the unhygienic conditions that prevail in the cities with the dust and pollution. KAVAL towns often face these problems. One of the perennial source of pollution is the night-soil which is thrown into open and the cowdung which is considered the source of fertile soil. Proper sanitary arrangements are lacking even in prestigious towns which are humming with activities. The main source of pollution in industrial towns is the smoke emitting from chimneys with which the whole landscape is punctuated. This smoke is harmful for lungs and eyes. The urban as well as rural like such squalor is common sight. Such a pollution increases tremendously the burden of the administration and eat into the vitals of civic life, which ultimately leads to a complete breakdown of administration. It has its social and cultural aspects also. The KAVAL Corporations accentuated the situation due to over population and administrative differences.

It is rather matter of common belief that local self-government has got great educative value but in India it is just the reverse of it. So much of hum drum is let loose at the time of local election that sober thinking is totally lost in the process. So much money, time and talent is wasted that the loss is immeasurable. But the advantages purported is still far to seek. The role of cooperative is also not up to the mark.
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## Municipal Corporations in India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the State</th>
<th>Name of the city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>Hyderabad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Bihar</td>
<td>Patna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Gujarat</td>
<td>Ahmedabad Baroda Surat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Karnataka</td>
<td>Bangalore Hubli-Dharwar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Kerala</td>
<td>Trivandrum Calicut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>Gwalior Indore Raipur Jabalpur Bhopal Sagar Ujjain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Maharashtra</td>
<td>Bombay Poona Nagpur Sholapur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>Madras Madurai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>Kanpur Agra Varanasi Allahabad Lucknow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. West Bengal</td>
<td>Calcutta Chandranagore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Union Territory of Delhi</td>
<td>Delhi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
District Kanpur

- District Boundary
- Tahsil Boundary
- Headquarters

UP - CENSUS 1965,
District Boundary

Tahsil Boundary

Headquarters

River

UP - CENSUS 1965
FROM CENSUS 1971,
APPENDIX III

An interview with Mr. Raj Mukut Jain (Deputy Mayor, Agra Municipal Corporation).

1. Incompetence of the elected office bearers:

   It is not correct to say that all the elected office bearers of the municipal corporation are incompetent and inefficient. It is true, that some of the office bearers are elected through consideration but their percentage is little. The majority of the office-bearers is elected through literary and administrative ability. In the election of the corporation, caste, religion, party and economic condition play a major role, as a result of which some of the office bearers who are not deserving get success and thus they prove to be incompetent in the discharge of their functions. It is the duty of the voter to see that who is the deserving and competent person on the basis of literacy and administrative ability other than caste, religion, party and economic background.

2. Incompetence of the Bureaucracy

   (Functioning in the control of the elected representatives).

   The bureaucratic hierarchy in the municipal corporation is extremely limited by virtue of over all influence and control of the elected representatives. Sometimes, the elected
representatives pressurize the bureaucratic machinery to work according to their will. It is because the elected representatives come directly through the people and represent them. The bureaucratic hierarchy work under their control and influences. This results in the lack of development on professional ethics, administrative skills and capacity.

3. Lack of Experience

It is correct, that the elected representatives are usually men without any administrative experience. In fact, the position of the elected representatives remains rooted in politics and remains so even during their tenure. Some old elected representatives have experience in comparison of the newly elected representatives. Political considerations over rule genuine administrative demands.

4. Lack of Finances

The finances are sufficient but practice is that most of the municipal corporations claim to lack in requisite finances and remains always hand to mouth. In the municipal corporation the collection of taxes is not proper and timely. A number of taxes like water tax and house tax are not collected in time. This gives a financial set back to the municipal corporation. The utilization of the finance is also incorrect. The result of which many of the positive activities of the municipal
corporation are effected. But it cannot be denied that mostly there is lack of proper budgeting and optimum utilisation of existing finances.

There is no lack of finances if the taxes are properly collected.

5. Official interference

Usually it is seen that unnecessary interference does not come from the officials. Though some interference is necessitated by the problems of district administration. Where in the district civil services work in cooperation with municipal corporation. However, in matter of purely municipal importance, the mayor and the councillors have full initiative to work out programmes on their own, as necessitated by local needs. The official interference is limited and they do not make any unnecessary interference in the affairs of municipal corporation.

6. Political interference by Netas

Political interference by district any city netas or prominent members of district party organisations, M.P., or M.LAs are limited. Although some party politics and group pressures cannot be avoided. But they too are limited. This however, exercises a negative impact on administrative requirements. The local netas also do not make any unnecessary
interference in the affairs of the municipal corporation.

7. Corruption among office-bearers

The corruption among office-bearers of the municipal corporation is very low and nominal. Many of the elected office bearers are well off economically although some belong to lower income groups and humble backgrounds. Though self-gratification is low, nevertheless, pecuniary advantage is often levelled to suit certain group ends or those of party. Moreover, instances of corruption of elected representatives too is not lacking.

8. Lack of any code of conduct

One of the worst malaise affecting municipal corporation is the lack of a proper code of conduct both at the decision making level and also at the level of representative official relationship. This creates too many difficulties in smooth functioning of municipal corporation.

9. Haphazard allocation of functions

The allocation of departmental portfolios in municipal corporation is devoided of any consideration or regard for the respective abilities of the elected members. The group pressure also play a major role in allocation of the portfolios. The
naturally results in putting square pegs in round holes.
The result is much wastage of efforts and scarce resources.

10. Remedies

Firstly, the elections should be conducted on a free basis that is not on party lines, but on grounds of individual competence and services.

Secondly, the members should be paid to ensure their attendance at the time of meetings. The attendance should be made compulsory.

Thirdly, due regard must be paid to framing a code of conduct in order to demarcate between the respective spheres of municipal official and elected councillors.
An interview with Dr. Mohd. Abdul Haleem (Councillor, Lucknow Municipal Corporation).

1. **Incompetence of the elected office bearers**

   Majority of our elected office bearers in municipal corporation is competent in their work. A few members are elected on the basis of party, religion, caste and economic background, but their percentage is little. These factors not only play a major role in the election of corporation as well as the election of M.Ps. and M.L.As. It is a common evil which is deep rooted in our society. Some of the members after getting success do not take interest in local problems. The practice should be this, that election contested on the basis of literary and administrative ability. But it is a matter of sorrow, that the people of our country are not highly educated. This results that those who are elected on the basis of party, religion, caste and economic background, other than literary and administrative ability, prove incompetence in the discharge of their function.

2. **Incompetence of Bureaucracy**

   (Functioning in the Control of the elected representatives)

   Bureaucracy in the municipal corporation has more powers than the elected representatives. Bureaucratic hierarchy try to
show influence over the elected representatives. But they are failed to do so. Some times it is observed that bureaucratic hierarchy does not exercise their powers for the fear of transfer. The elected representatives work with full freedom and without any fear. Because they come directly through the people and represent them. In this way the bureaucratic hierarchy fail to control the elected representatives.

3. Lack of Experience

There is no need of experience for the members in the municipal corporation. Majority of our elected representatives have a suitable experience. The municipal corporation is a primary stage of our political institutions. A few fresh members which are elected first time for the corporation learn by their some old experienced colleagues. No experience is compulsory for the members of the municipal corporation.

4. Lack of Finances

Finance is a crux of all our problems. There is an acute shortage of finances in the municipal corporation. Grants-in-aid is very nominal which is given by the state-government.

It should be increased. The method of tax collection is defective and slow. Taxes are not collected regularly and in time. Sometimes it is observed that the state government does
not cooperate with the municipal corporation when a different party comes in power in the municipal corporation. This creates so many problems. A few taxes which were collected previously by the municipal corporation are taken away by State government, but the grant remains the same. The paucity of finances affect many developmental work of the municipal corporation. There is an urgent need of increased finances of the corporation. Most of our municipal corporations in U.P. are facing a serious finance threat.

5. Official interference

Official interference is unlimited in the municipal corporation. The officers make an unnecessary interference in the matters of the municipal corporation. Although some interference is needed to solve the administrative problems, but it should be limited. Mayor and Dy. Mayor have full freedom in the matters of the corporation. The unnecessary interference creates difficulties.

6. Political interference by Netas

Political interference is also unlimited. Most of our local netas and M.Ps. and M.L.As make interference in municipal corporation. Some pressure groups also play an important role. They pressurize the municipal machinery on unfair matters. This creates too many difficulties in smooth functioning of the municipal corporation. This should be checked.
7. Corruption among office-bearers

Corruption among office-bearers is limited, but it cannot be denied. Majority of our office-bearers is honest and avoid unfair mens. This is because most of our office-bearers belong to well off families. Self-gratification among office-bearers is nominal. Though some lower heierarchy accept self-gratification due to their low salary, but their percentage is little.

8. Lack of any code of conduct

It is a common evil which not only observed in the municipal corporation as well as in other departments. It affects the smooth functioning of the corporation. There is a lack of proper code of conduct. This evil should be ended.

9. Haphazard allocation of functions

There is no allocations of respective functions among elected representatives of the municipal corporation.

10. Remedies

1. No party should be involve in the election of the municipal corporation.
2. Telephone facilities should be provided to every member of the corporation.
3. Conveyance facilities should be provided to every member by the municipal Corporation.
4. Attendance should be compulsory for every member.
5. Finances and grants-in-aid is insufficient, it should be increased.
An interview with Mr. Maqbool Husain Quraishi (Councillor, Kanpur Municipal Corporation).

(1) Incompetence of the elected office-bearers

It is incorrect to say that all the elected office bearers are incompetent. It is true that some of the office bearers of the municipal corporation elected on the basis of party, religion, caste and economic background but their percentage is little. These factors not only play an important role in the election of municipal corporation as well as the election of Vidhan Sabha and Lok Sabha. It is a common evil of our elections. There is another factor to prove the incompetence of the elected office bearers that is they do not take interest in local problems after being elected, due to their side professions. They do not devote full time to solve the local problems. Those who are elected on the basis of party, religion, caste and economic condition other than administrative ability, prove incompetence and failing in solving local problems. Majority of our elected office bearers is competent. They take interest in local problems.

2. Incompetence of Bureaucracy
   (Functioning in the control of the elected representatives).

Bureaucracy in the municipal corporation does not have a freedom to work independently. The elected representatives
have influence over the bureaucracy. Sometimes it is observed that the bureaucracy does not make any decision or planning without the consultation of the elected representatives. Bureaucracy has more powers but it does not exercise them. In the municipal corporation the elected representatives control the bureaucracy because they come directly through the people and represent them. This leads in the lack of developmental work.

3. **Lack of experience**

Well, I think there is no need of experience. It is not that all the elected representatives are unexperienced. Most of them have experience, a few enter first time in the municipal corporation. In fact, the position of the newly elected representatives remains rooted out in politics and remains so even during their term. Most of the elected representatives which have an experience, their position is different to the newly elected representatives. They well know how to discharge their functions.

4. **Lack of finances**

The finances and government aid which is given to the municipal corporation is in sufficient. Due to this municipal corporation remain always hand to mouth. The grants in aid are not given in time. The method of tax collection is very slow and improper. Taxes are not collected in time. Sometimes it is
observed that the State government does not cooperate with the municipal corporation when a different party capture the power in the corporation. This results that many developmental work is effected and municipal corporation becomes paralysed. But it cannot be denied that mostly there is lack of proper budgeting and optimum utilisation of existing finances. The financial problem can be solved if the State government cooperates with the municipal corporation and the taxes collected in time.

5. **Official interference**

Usually, official interference is limited. They does not make any unnecessary interference. Some times the official interference is necessary to solve the administrative problems of the municipal corporation. But the matters of purely municipal corporation the Mayor, By, Mayor and Corporators have full freedom and authority to work out programmes on their own as necessaciated by local demands. The official interference is limited and they does not make any unnecessary interference.

6. **Political interference by Netas**

Political interference by netas is also found but is limited. Although some local netas and pressure groups play an important role and they cannot be avoided. Some times they pressurize the municipal machinery according to their will. Some time municipal machinery accept their interference on genuine lines.
But they do not make any unnecessary interference.

7. **Corruption among office bearers**

Corruption among office-bearers of the municipal corporation is found in a low key. Most of the elected office bearers belong to well-off families and are economically stable. Although a few belong to lower groups and humble background though self-gratification is very low. It is observed that some lower hierarchy of the municipal corporation spoils the image of the corporation. They accept self-gratification, but their percentage is nominal.

8. **Lack of any code of conduct**

It affects the smooth functioning of the municipal corporation. There is a lack of a proper code of conduct both at the decision making level and at the level of elected representatives official relationship. This creates a number of difficulties in proper and smooth functioning of the municipal corporation. This curse should be ended.

9. **Haphazard allocation of functions**

It is wrong to say that there is a haphazard allocation of functions. The departmental portfolios are allocated without any consideration. The function allocated on the basis of administrative ability.
10. **Remedies**

(1) Elections should be conducted without any party line.

(2) The attendance should be compulsory to ensure the presence of the members in the meetings of the municipal corporation.

(3) The members of the municipal corporation should be elected on grounds of individual competence not on the basis of party, religion, caste and economic backgrounds.

(4) Conveyance facilities should be provided to the members of the municipal corporation.

(5) Finances and grants-in-aid given in time and raised to ensure the smooth functioning of the municipal corporation.
1. Incompetence of the elected office bearers

The elected office-bearers of the municipal corporation are competent and efficient in their work. A few members who are elected on the basis of party, religion, caste and economic background, are little in number and they prove competence in the discharge of their functions.

2. Incompetence of the Bureaucracy
   (Functioning in the control of elected representatives).

Bureaucracy in the corporation has more powers than the elected representatives. Bureaucratic hierarchy does not accept the pressure of the elected representatives and workers independently without any control and influence. The elected representatives do not work under the control of the bureaucracy. They do not cooperate with them. This results that bureaucracy fails to control the elected representatives of the municipal corporation.

3. Lack of experience

There is no need of any kind of experience in the corporation. Majority of our representatives have a suitable experience. A few
new members who elected for the first time, also prove competence in the discharge of their functions. The municipal corporation is a primary institution and new members learn by their colleagues and get experience.

4. Lack of finances

Finances of the corporation are insufficient. Grants-in-aid which is given by the State-government is also insufficient, our resources of finance are also little taxes are not collected in time and the method of collection is also defective. This results that most of the developmental works of the corporation remain incomplete. Sometime, the State-Government does not cooperate with the corporation if a different party captures the power in the corporation. Kanpur Municipal Corporation is also functioning in difficult from the last few years.

5. Official interference

Official interference is unlimited in the corporation. Although some interference is necessary for the smooth functioning but it should be limited. Our local officers make an unnecessary interference in the affairs of the corporation.

6. Political interference by Netas

Political interference by Netas is also unlimited in the
corporation. Our local M.P.s, M.Ps make an unnecessary interference in the corporation, and exhibit their influence. Some pressure groups also pressurise the corporation machinery to work according to their will. It is a common evil. This creates a number of difficulties in smooth functioning.

7. Corruption among office bearers

Corruption among office-bearers is not found because most of our office-bearers belong to a well-off families. They work without any monetary gain. Self gratification is nominal.

8. Lack of any code of conduct

It is a common evil which is found in every department. This creates, delay in development of works. It should be checked.

9. Haphazard allocation of functions

There are no special functions for the representatives. Every elected representative is responsible for their respective functions.

10. Remedies

(1) Provision of conveyance to every elected member.
(2) Telephone facilities should be provided.
(3) Elected members should be paid.
(4) Finances of the corporation should be increased.
(5) Attendance should be compulsory.
(1) **Incompetence of the elected office-bearers**

Most of our elected office bearers of the corporation are competent. A few incompetence once are negligible properly. There are a number of factors which are responsible for their incompetence. There is a practice that after being elected, members do not take interest in their word's problems. Those who are elected on the basis of party, caste and economic background prove incompetence in the discharge of their functions. Some members do not devote full time due to their side professions.

(3) **Incompetence of the bureaucracy**

(Functioning in the control of the elected representatives).

Bureaucratic hierarchy in the municipal corporation gets in a tight corner. It does not take any independent decision without the consultation of the elected representatives. Bureaucratic hierarchy has more powers but it does not exercise them. This results that it fails to control the elected representatives.

(3) **Lack of Experience**

Most of our elected representatives are experienced. A few
new faces which are elected first time for the corporation are unexperienced. I think, there is no need of any experience. Municipal corporation is the first step towards the political institutions. New members learn here and get experience.

4. **Lack of finances**

There is an acute shortage of the finances. Our resources of finance are little. Grants-in-aid which is given by the State Government is also insufficient. Taxes which are collected by the municipal corporation are also insufficient, and their method of collection is not proper. This results that a number of developmental works remain incomplete. There is an urgent need to increase the municipal finances. This problem cannot be solved without the cooperation of the State Government. Most of our municipal corporations are functioning indeﬁcit. Lucknow Municipal Corporation is also in the grip of serious financial threat.

5. **Official interference**

Official interference is not only a problem for the municipal corporation but other departments also. It is unlimited in the municipal corporation. Officials make an unnecessary interference in the matters of the Municipal Corporation. It creates too many difficulties in the smooth functioning of the municipal corporation.
6. **Political interference by Netas**

Political interference is also a common evil. It is deep rooted in the municipal corporation. Local Netas, M.L.As and some pressure groups make an unnecessary interference in the matters of the municipal corporation. This also creates problems for the corporation.

7. **Corruption among office-bearers**

Most of our elected representatives are away from this evil. Because they belong to a well off families and their position is economically sound. Although, it cannot be avoided. Self-gratification is nominal. Some clerks spoil the image of our municipal corporation. It should be properly checked.

8. **Lack of any code of conduct**

It is a common evil which is found everywhere. This creates a number of difficulties in proper and smooth functioning of the corporation.

9. **Haphazard allocation of functions**

There are not specified functions. Every elected representative is responsible for their functions.

10. **Remedies**

1. Telephone facilities should be provided to every elected member.
(2) Convenance facilities should be provided.

(3) Attendance should be compulsory.

(4) Allowances should be given to every member.

(5) Finances are insufficient, it should be increased.
APPENDIX IV

U.P.

NAGAR MAHAPALIKA ADHINIYAM, 1959


Sections

CHAPTER I

Preliminary

1. Short title extent and commencement.
2. Definition
3. Declaration of local areas to be cities for purposes of the Act

CHAPTER II

Constitution and Governance of Mahapalika

4. Mahapalika for every city.
5. Mahapalika authorities
6. Constitution of the Mahapalika
7. Reservation for Schedule Castes.
8. Duration of Mahapalika
10. Upa Nagar Pramukh.
Sections

11. Qualification for election as Nagar Pramukh and Upa Nagar Pramukh.
12. Election of Nagar Pramukh and Upa Nagar Pramukh.
13. When election of Sabhasads to be deemed completed.
14. Casual vacancy in the office of Nagar Pramukh or Upa Nagar Pramukh.
15. Terms of Nagar Pramukh and Upa Nagar Pramukh.
16. Motion of non-confidence against Upa Nagar Pramukh.
17. Nagar Pramukh to be member.
18. Allowance of Nagar Pramukh.
20. Qualification for election as Vishishta Sadasya.
23. Resignation of Vishishta Sadasya.
24. Qualifications for election as Sabhasad.
27. Election of Sabhasads.
29. Resignation of Sabhasads.
30. Conveyance allowance or facilities for members.
31. Provision of wards.
32. Delimitation Order
33. Alteration or amendment of delimitation Order and its effect.
34. Nirvachak Registrikaran Adhikari (Electrol Registration Officer).
Sections

35. Electoral Roll for each ward.
36. Qualification of electors.
37. Disqualifications for electors.
38. Registration to be in one ward and in one place.
39. Preparation of electoral rolls.
40. Annual revision of electoral rolls.
41. Other matters relating to electors and electoral rolls.
42. Right of vote.
43. Method of voting.
44. Manner of voting.
45. Supervision of conduct of elections.
46. Order regarding conduct of elections.
47. Failure of elections.
48. Electoral offences.
49. Bar of jurisdiction of courts.
50. Notification of election and of vacancy.
51. Constitution and term of Executive Committee.
52. Election of members of Executive Committee.
53. Resignation of members of Executive Committee.
54. Constitution and term of Development Committee.
55. Election of members of Development Committee.
56. Resignation of members of Development Committee.
57. Constitution of Committee under clause (e) of Section 5.
Sections

58. Appointment of the Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.

59. Salary and allowances, etc., of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.

60. Election valid unless questioned, etc.

61. Questioning of election of Nagar Pramukh or Upa Nagar Pramukh.

62. Questioning of election of Vishishta Sadasya or Sabhasad.

63. Forms and contents of petition.

64. Relief that may be claimed by the petitioner.

65. Recrimination.

66. Petition when to be dismissed.

67. Procedure of hearing of petition.

68. Transfer of petition.

69. Decision on the petition.

70. Other orders to be made while disposing of the petition.

71. Ground for declaring an election to be void.

72. Ground for which candidate other than the returned candidate may be declared elected.

73. Procedure in case of equality of votes.

74. Appeal against order of District Judge.

75. Finality of orders and decision.

76. Communication order.

77. Taking effect of order.

78. Corrupt practices.

79. Rules regarding decision of disputes relating to elections.
Sections

80. Disqualification for electoral offences and corrupt practices.

81. Penalty for setting and voting before making oath or affirmation or when not qualified or disqualified.

82. Questions as to disqualifications to be determined by the State Government.

83. Removal of members.

84. Suspension of Mahapalika authority.

85. Oath of allegiance to be taken by the Nagar Prahmukh and members.

86. Expenses of election.

87. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER III

Proceedings of the Mahapalika, Executive Committee, Development Committee and other Committees

88. Meetings of Mahapalika.

89. Meetings of Executive Committee, etc.

90. Quorum

91. Notice of meeting and business.

92. Vote of majority decisive at meetings of the Mahapalika.

93. Adjournment of meeting of Mahapalika and Committee, etc.

94. Presiding Officers at meetings.

95. Special Committees and Joint Committees.

96. Joint transaction with other local authorities.
Sections

97. Sub-committees.
98. Right to ask questions.
99. Attendance of Chairman of a Committee at meetings of other committees.
100. Vacancy in the offices of both Nagar Pramukh and Upa Nagar Pramukh.
101. Presence of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari and other officers at meetings.
102. Proceedings of the Mahapalika, Executive Committee, etc.
103. Bye-laws under this Chapter.
104. Vacancies, etc., not to invalidate proceedings.
105. Bar to questioning of act and proceeding on grounds of mere irregularity.

CHAPTER IV

Officers and Staff

106. Creation of posts.
107. Appointment to posts.
108. Officiating and temporary appointments to certain posts.
109. Conditions of service, etc.
110. Punishment of officers of the Mahapalika.
111. Power of the State Government to make appointments.
112. Power and duties of certain officers.
112-A. Centralization of services.
112-B. Essential services.
Sections

112-C. Members of essential services not to resign, etc., without permission.

112-D. Power of State Government to declare emergency.

113. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER V

Duties and Powers of the Mahapalika and Mahapalika Authorities

114. Obligatory duties of the Mahapalika.

115. Discretionary duties of Mahapalika.

116. Division of functions between Mahapalika authorities.

117. Functions of Mahapalika authorities.

118. Powers and duties of Mukhya Nagar Lekha Parikshak.

119. Delegation of functions.

120. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to exercise powers and perform duties of Mahapalika under other laws.

121. Mahapalika may call for extract from proceedings, etc., from the Executive Committee.

122. Power of the Mahapalika to require Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to produce documents and furnish returns, reports, etc.

123. Exercise of powers to be subject to sanction by Mahapalika of necessary expenditure.

124. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER VI

Property and Contracts

125. Powers of Mahapalika as to acquisition and holding of property.
Sections

126. Succession to property, assets, rights, liabilities and obligations in certain cases.

127. Certain provisions governing acquisition of property.

128. Power to dispose of property.


130. Procedure when immovable property cannot be acquired by agreement.

131. Powers of Mahapalika to the making of contracts.

132. Certain provisions relating to the execution of contracts.

133. Manner of execution.

134. Execution of works.

135. Estimates not exceeding rupees fifty thousand.

136. Estimates exceeding rupees fifty thousand.

137. Powers of Mahapalika to enforce covenants against owner for the time being of land.

138. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER VII

Mahapalika and other Funds

139. Constitution of Mahapalika and other funds.

140. Purposes for which Mahapalika Fund is to be applied.

141. Temporary payments from Mahapalika Fund for works urgently required for public service.

142. Maintenance and audit of accounts.

143. Special Audit.
Sections

144. Auditors to have access to all the Mahapalika accounts and to all records, etc.
145. Preparation of annual administration report and statement of accounts.
146. Budgets.
147. Revised Budget Estimates.
148. Determination of rates of taxes.
149. Mahapalika may increase amount of budget grants and make additional grants.
150. Restrictions on expenditure from Mahapalika Fund.
151. Alteration in budget estimates.
152. Indebted Mahapalika.
152-A. Surcharge.
153. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER VIII

Borrowing Powers

154. Powers of Mahapalika to borrow money.
155. Power of Mahapalika to borrow from banks against public securities.
156. When and how loan should be repaid.
158. Investment of sinking fund.
159. Investment of sinking fund and surplus moneys in debentures issued by Mahapalika.
160. Annual examination of sinking funds.
161. Attachment of Mahapalika Fund in default of payment of loan.
Sections

162. Form of debentures.
163. Coupons attached to debentures to bear signature of Chairman of Executive Committee and Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.
164. Debentures issued to two or more persons jointly.
165. Issue of duplicate securities.
166. Renewal of debentures.
167. Liability in respect of debenture renewed.
168. Discharge in certain cases.
169. Indemnity.
170. Annual Statement to be prepared by Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.
171. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER IX

Mahapalika Taxation

172. Taxes to be imposed under this Act.
173. Property taxes leivable.
174. Definition of "annual value".
175. Restriction on the imposition of water tax.
176. Pooling of income from water-works, drainage works, etc.
177. General tax on what premises to be levied.
178. Remission by reason of non-occupation.
179. Primary responsibility for certain property taxes on annual value.
180. Liability for payment of other such taxes.
Sections

181. Property taxes to be a first charge on premises on which they are assessed.

182. Taxes on vehicles, boats and animals.

183. Exemptions from certain taxes mentioned in Section 172.

184. Betterment Tax.

185. Amount of Betterment Tax.

186. Payment of Betterment Tax.


188. Assessment of Betterment Tax.

189. Alternative to payment of Betterment Tax.

190. Recovery of arrears of Betterment Tax.

191. Tax on deeds of transfer of immovable property.

192. Tax on advertisements.

193. Prohibition of advertisements without written permission of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.

194. Permission of the Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to become void in certain cases.

195. Beneficiary from advertisement to be deemed responsible.

196. Removal of unauthorised advertisements.

197. Exemption from theatre tax.

198. Power to fix octroi limits.

199. Framing of preliminary proposals.

200. Procedure subsequent to framing proposals.

201. Power of State Government to reject, sanction or modify proposals.


203. Imposition.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>204.</td>
<td>Procedure for altering taxes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>205.</td>
<td>Power of State Government to remedy or abolish tax.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>206.</td>
<td>Power of State Government to require Mahapalika to impose taxes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>207.</td>
<td>Preparation of assessment list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>208.</td>
<td>Publication of list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>209.</td>
<td>Objections to entries in list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>210.</td>
<td>Authentication and custody of list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>211.</td>
<td>Revision and alteration of list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212.</td>
<td>Conclusiveness of entries in list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>213.</td>
<td>Amendment and alteration of list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>214.</td>
<td>Obligation to supply information for purposes of amendment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>215.</td>
<td>Obligation to give notice of re-occupation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>216.</td>
<td>Consolidation of taxes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>217.</td>
<td>Deduction required by exemptions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>218.</td>
<td>Summary proceedings may be taken against persons about to leave the City.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>219.</td>
<td>Rules as to assessment, collection and other matters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>220.</td>
<td>Composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>221.</td>
<td>Exemption.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>222.</td>
<td>Obligation to disclose liability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>224.</td>
<td>Savings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>225.</td>
<td>Any tax imposable under this Act may be increased or newly imposed by way of imposing suplementary taxation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>226.</td>
<td>Bar to jurisdiction of civil and criminal courts in matters of taxation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>227.</td>
<td>Power to make rules.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER X

Drain and Drainage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>228.</td>
<td>Drains to be constructed and kept in repair by the Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>229.</td>
<td>Adoption by Mahapalika of drains and drainage or sewage disposal works.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>231.</td>
<td>Alteration, etc., and discontinuance of drains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>232.</td>
<td>Cleansing of drains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>233.</td>
<td>Power to connect drain of private street with Mahapalika drain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>234.</td>
<td>Right of owners and occupiers of buildings and lands to drain into Mahapalika drains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>235.</td>
<td>Power of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to require drain or proposed drain to be so constructed as to form part of general system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>236.</td>
<td>Connections with Mahapalika drains not to be made except in conformity with Sections 233 and 234.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>237.</td>
<td>Right of owners and occupiers of premises to carry drain through land belonging to other persons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>238.</td>
<td>Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may enforce drainage of undrained premises situated within hundred feet of Mahapalika drain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>239.</td>
<td>Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may enforce drainage of undrained premises not situated within hundred feet of Mahapalika drain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>240.</td>
<td>Special provisions relating to trade effluent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>242.</td>
<td>Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may close or limit the use of existing private drains.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>243.</td>
<td>Vesting and maintenance of drains for sole use of properties.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sections

244. Right of Mahapalika to drains, etc., constructed at charge of Mahapalika Fund on premises not belonging to Mahapalika.

245. New buildings not to be erected without drains.

246. Obligation of owners of drains to allow use or joint ownership to others.

247. How right of use or joint ownership of a drain may be obtained by a person other than the owner.

248. Sewage and rain water drains to be distinct.

249. Affixing of pipes for ventilation of drains, etc.

250. Appointment of places for emptying of drains and disposal of sewage.


253. Water-closets and other accommodation in buildings newly erected or re-erected.

254. Public necessities.

255. Drains, etc., not belonging to Mahapalika, to be subject to inspection and examination.

256. Power to open ground, etc., for purpose of inspection or examination.

257. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may require repairs, etc., to be made.

258. Prohibition of acts contravening the provisions of the Act, rule, or bye-laws or done without a sanction.

259. Water-closets not to be injured or improperly fouled.

260. State Government may extend provisions of Chapter outside limits of City.

261. Appeals.

262. Power to make rules.
CHAPTER XI

Water Supply

Sections

263. Power of the Mahapalika to construct, run or close water-works.

264. Inspection of water-works.

265. Fire hydrants to be provided by the Mahapalika.

266. Power of carrying water mains, etc.

267. Prohibition of certain acts affecting the Mahapalika water-works.

268. Remedy against acts in contravention of Section 267 and removal of latrines, etc., near any source of water supply.

269. Obligations of Mahapalika imposing water-tax.

270. Prohibition of fraudulent and unauthorised use of water.

271. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER XII

Streets

272. Vesting of public streets in Mahapalika.


274. Power to make new public streets.

275. Minimum width of new public street.

276. Power to adopt, construct or alter any sub-way bridge, etc.

277. Power to prohibit use of public streets for certain kinds of traffic.
Sections

278 Power to acquire premises for improvement of public streets.

279 Power to prescribe streets lines.

280 Setting back buildings to the regular line of the street.

281 Additional power of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to order setting back of buildings to regular line of street.

282 Acquisition of open land or of land occupied by platform, etc., within regular line of street.

283 Acquisition of the remaining parts of building and land after their portions within a regular line of the street are acquired.

284 Setting forward of buildings to the line of the street.

285 Compensation to be paid and betterment charges to be levied.

286 Owner's obligation to make a street when disposing of land as building sites.

287 Notice of laying out lands for building and for private streets.

288 Land not to be appropriated for building and private street not to be laid out until expiration of notice.

289 Levelling and drainage of private streets and means of access.

290 Powers to declare private streets as public streets.

291 Applicability of Section 289 and 290 when a street is in part public and in part private.

292 Prohibition of projection upon streets, etc.

293 Projection over streets may be permitted in certain cases.

294 Ground floor doors, etc., not to open outward on streets.

295 Other prohibitions relating to streets.
Sections

296. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may, without notice, remove anything erected, deposited or hawked or exposed for sale in contravention of Act.

297. Power to require trimming of hedges and trees.

298. Power to remove accidental obstructions.

299. Power to require removal of any structure or fixture erected or set up before the appointed day.

300. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may permit booths, etc., to be erected on streets on festivals.

301. Execution of works in or near to streets.

302. Streets not to be opened or broken up and building materials not to be deposited thereon without permission.

303. Precautions for public safety to be taken by person to whom permission is granted under Section 302.

304. Buildings at corners of streets.

305. Regulations as to sky-signs.

306. Regulation and control of advertisements.

307. Boards to be set up during work on any building adjacent to street.

308. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to take proceedings for repairing or enclosing dangerous place or places where some work affecting safety or convenience is carried on.

309. Protective measures during demolition work.

310. Public streets to be lighted.

311. Measures for watering streets.

312. Prohibition of removal, etc., of lamps or any Mahapalika property on streets.

313. State Government may extend provisions of Chapter outside limits of city.

314. Power to make rules.
CHAPTER XIII
Building Regulations

315. Definition.

316. Notice of erection of building.

317. Notice of repairs, alteration, etc., in building.

318. Rejection of plan, etc., if not drawn in the prescribed manner or where the applicant fails to supply the particulars called for by the Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.

319. Period within which Mukhya Nagar Adhikari is to grant or refuse to grant permission to execute work.

320. Reference to Executive Committee if Mukhya Nagar Adhikari delays grant or refusal of approval or permission.

321. Grounds on which approval of site for or permission to construct or reconstruct building may be refused.

322. Special powers for suspending permission to construct buildings.

323. Restriction of the power to sanction construction of a place of entertainment in certain cases.

324. Erection of building or execution of work how to be carried out.

325. Inspection by Mukhya Nagar Adhikari of buildings in course of erection, alteration, etc.

326. Enforcement of provisions concerning building and works.

327. Proceedings to be taken in respect of building or work commenced contrary to Act, rules or bye-laws.

328. Power of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to cancel permission on ground of material misrepresentation by applicant.

329. Completion certificates; permission to occupy or use.
Sections

331. Removal of structures, etc., which are in ruins or likely to fall.
332. Dangerous opening in buildings.
333. Power of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to direct removal of person directing unlawful work.
334. Power of the Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to vacate any buildings in certain circumstances.
335. Power to regulate future construction of certain classes of buildings in particular streets or localities.
336. Power of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari in cases of contravention of provisions of Section 335.
337. Abandoned or unoccupied premises.
338. Power to prohibit re-erection of building on inaccessible sites.
339. Removal of building materials from any premises in certain cases.
341. State Government may extend provisions of Chapter outside limits of City.
342. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER XIV
Improvement Schemes

343. Types of Improvement Schemes.
344. Samanaya Vikas Yojana (General Improvement Scheme).
345. Basti Sudhar Yojana (Slum Clearance and Re-building Scheme).
Sections

346. Grih Punarnirman Yojana (Re-housing Scheme).
347. Sarak Yojana (Street Scheme).
348. Bhavi Sarak Yojana (Deferred Street Scheme).
349. Grih Sthan Yojana (Housing Accommodation Scheme).
350. Nagar Prasar Yojana (City Expansion Scheme).
351. Framing of Scheme.
352. Combination of Improvement Scheme.
353. Matters to be provided for by Improvement Scheme.
354. Inclusion of areas outside City in certain improvement schemes.
355. Matters to be considered when framing improvement schemes.
356. Consideration by Development Committee.
357. Notice of Improvement Scheme.
358. Notice of proposed acquisition of land.
359. Consideration of the Scheme by the Mahapalika.
360. Abandonment or sanction of Scheme by Mahapalika.
361. State Government’s power in respect of the Scheme.
362. Procedure on a Scheme being modified by the Mahapalika.
363. Notification of sanction of Improvement Scheme.
364. Alteration of Improvement Scheme after sanction.
365. Acquisition of land acquired for Improvement Scheme.
366. Restrictions against building, etc.
367. Clearance order.
367A. Abandonment of Scheme.
368. Power to dispose of land.
Sections

369. Power to make surveys.
370. Power of entry.
371. Tribunal to be constituted.
372. Duties of Tribunal.
373. Personnel of Tribunal.
374. Remuneration.
375. Staff of Tribunal.
376. Modification of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894.
377. Law applicable to the Tribunal.
378. Power of Chairman.
379. Decision of the Tribunal to be final.
380. Enforcement of orders of the Tribunal.
381. Appeals.
382. Preservation of trees and woodland.
383. Master plan for the city.
384. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER XV
Sanitary Provisions

385. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to provide for cleansing of streets and removal of refuse.
386. Regulation of the disposal of rubbish, etc., removed through private agency.
387. Refuse, etc., to be the property of the Mahapatika.
388. Provision may be made by Mukhya Nagar Adhikari for collection, etc., of excrementitious and polluted matter.
Sections

389. Special sanitary arrangements at certain places.
390. Power to inspect premises for sanitary purposes.
391. Building or rooms in buildings unfit for human habitation.
392. Power to require repairs of insanitary buildings.
393. Power to order demolition of insanitary buildings.
394. Procedure where demolition order made.
395. Appeal against demolition orders.
396. Removal of carcases of dead animals.
397. Prohibition of cultivation, use of manure, or irrigation injurious to health.
398. Power to require owners to clear away noxious vegetation.
399. Places for public bathing, etc., to be fixed by Mukhya Nagar Adhikari, and regulation of use of such places.
400. Prohibition of bathing, contrary to order.
401. Factory, etc., not to be newly established without permission of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.
402. Prohibition of pollution or contamination of water by chemical, etc.
403. Power to require private water course, etc., to be cleaned or closed.
404. Latrines for factories, schools and places of public resort.
405. Power to require removal of nuisance arising from tanks, etc.
407. Any place may at any time be inspected for purpose of preventing spread of dangerous disease.
Sections

408. Information of dangerous disease to be given.
409. Closure of lodging and eating houses.
410. Persons suffering from dangerous disease, etc., not to do certain things.
411. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may take special measures on outbreak of any dangerous disease.
412. Places for disposal of the dead to be registered.
413. New places for disposal of the dead not to be opened without permission of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.
415. Closing of place for burial of the dead.
416. Re-opening of place for burial of the dead.
417. Burials within places of worship and exhumations not to be made without permission of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari.
419. State Government may extend provisions of chapter outside limits of City.
420. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER XVI

Regulation of markets, slaughter-houses, certain trades and acts, etc.

421. What to be deemed private markets and slaughter houses.
422. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari's powers in respect of Mahapalika markets and slaughter-houses etc.
423. Opening of private markets and of private slaughter-houses.
Sections

424. Removal of live cattle, sheep, goats or swine from any Mahapalika slaughter-house, stock yard, market, or premises.

425. Power to expel persons contravening rules, bye-laws or regulations.

426. Prohibition of sale in Mahapalika markets without licence.

427. Prohibition of sale in unauthorised private markets.

428. Prohibition of sale of animals, etc., except in markets.

429. Restriction on slaughter of animals for sale.

430. Places for slaughter of animals not intended for sale or slaughtered for religious purposes.

431. Powers of District Magistrate in respect of animals not slaughtered for sale.

432. Prohibition of import of cattle, etc., into City without permission.

433. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may enter any place where slaughter of animals or sale of flesh contrary to the provisions of this Act suspected.

434. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to provide for inspection of articles exposed for sale for human food.

435. Unwholesome articles, etc., to be seized.

436. Disposal of perishable articles under Section 435.

437. Regulation of offensive trade.

438. Certain things not to be kept, and certain trades and operations not to be carried on without licence.

439. Butchers and persons who sell flesh of animals to be licenced.

440. Licence required for dealing in dairy produce.

441. Conditions under which architects, engineers, structural designers, surveyors, or plumbers, can carry on their respective professions in the city.
Sections

442. Licensed plumbers to be bound to execute work properly.
443. Executive Committee to fix fees for plumbers.
444. Loitering and soliciting for immoral purpose.
445. Brothels, etc.
446. Begging, etc.
447. Improper feeding of animals kept for dairy purposes or used for food.
448. Stacking, etc., of inflammable materials.
449. Displacing pavements, etc.
450. Discharging firearms, etc.
451. General provisions regarding grant, suspension or revocation of licences and written permission and levy of fees, etc.
452. Licence Fees, etc.
453. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER XVII

Vital Statistics

454. Registration of births and deaths.
455. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER VIII

Compensation

456. General power of Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to pay compensation.
457. Compensation to the owner for value of immovable property deteriorated.
458. Principle on which and manner in which compensation should be determined.

459. Power to make rules.

CHAPTER XIX

Penalties

460. Certain offences punishable with fine.

461. Offences punishable under the Penal Code.

462. Punishment for offences of preparing false electoral rolls.

463. Penalty on member of Nagar Pramukh acquiring interest in contract, etc.

464. Provision against servants being interested in contract, etc.

464-A.7 Punishment for contravention of Sections 112-C and 112-D.

465. Punishment for offences against Section 267.

466. Penalty for evasion of octroi or toll.

467. General penalty.

468. Extent of penal responsibility of agents and trustees of owners.

469. Offence by companies, etc.

470. Compensation payable by offenders against this Act for damage caused by them.

CHAPTER XX

Proceedings before Judge, District Judge, Magistrate and others.

471. References to the judge.
Sections

472. Appeals when and to whom to lie.
473. Cause of complaint when to be deemed to have accrued.
474. Arbitration.
475. Appointment of expert valuer.
476. Appeal to the district judge.
477. Costs of proceedings in appeal
478. Unappealed values and taxes and decisions on appeal to be final.
479. Appeal to the Judge.
480. Appeal against demolition orders.
481. Appeals against decision of the Judge regarding payment of expenses for works executed.
482. Remedy of owner of building or land against occupier who prevents his complying with any provisions of this Act.
483. Power to summon witnesses and compel production of documents.
484. Fees in proceedings before the judge.
485. Exemption of poor persons from fees.
486. Repayment of half fees on settlement before hearing.
487. Appointment of a Magistrate of the First Class.
488. Reference to Magistrates.
489. Disposal of animals and articles of non-perishable nature seized under Section 431.
490. Penalty for possessing food which appears to be diseased, unsound or unwholesome or unfit for human food.
491. Application for summons to be refused if not applied for within a reasonable time.
492. Cognizance of offences.
Sections

493. Limitation of time within which complaints of offences punishable under this Act shall be entertained.

494. Power of Magistrate to hear cases in absence of accused.


496. Complaint concerning nuisances.

497. Appeal to the Sessions Court from order passed under Section 496.

498. Offenders against this Act may in certain cases be arrested by police officers.

499. Code of Civil Procedure to apply.

500. Limitation.

501. Execution of order of the Judge and District Judge.

502. Criminal Procedure Code to apply to all inquiries and proceedings before Magistrate.

CHAPTER XXI

Recovery of Taxes and other Mahapolika Dues

503. Manner of recovering Mahapolika taxes.

504. Presentation of Bill.

505. Contents of Bill.

506. Notice of demand.

507. Issue of warrant.

508. Forcible entry for purposes of executing warrant.

509. Manner of executing warrant.

510. Sale of goods under warrant and application of proceeds.
Sections

511. Procedure in case of execution against property outside the city.

512. Recovery by attachment and sale of defaulter's immovable property.

513. Warrant how to be executed in the case of immovable property.

514. Sale of immovable property.

515. Special provisions in regard to non-payment of octroi or toll.

516. Attachment of rent due.

517. Defaulters may be sued for arrears, if necessary.

518. Fees and cost.

519. Savings.

520. Recovery of dues declared recoverable as tax.

521. Recovery of expenses of removals by Mukhya Nagar Adhikari under certain sections.

522. Expenses recoverable under the Act to be payable on demand, and if not paid on demand may be recovered as arrear of property tax.

523. If defaulter is owner of premises in respect of which expenses are payable, occupier to be also liable for payment thereof.

524. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari may agree to receive payment of expenses in instalments.

525. Certain expenses may be declared to be improvement expenses.

526. Proportion of improvement expenses may be deducted from rent.

527. Redemption of charge for improvement expenses.

528. Recovery of instalments due under Sections 524 and 525.
Sections

529. In default of owner the occupier of any premises may be execute require work and recover expenses from the owner.

530. Persons liable for expenses or compensation may be sued for recovery thereof.

CHAPTER XXII
Control

531. Power of State Government to call for extracts from proceedings, etc.

532. State Government's power to cause inspection to be made.

533. State Government's power to direct the taking of action.

534. State Government's power to appoint a person to take action in default at expense of Mahapalika.


536. Submission of copies of resolutions to State Government.

537. Power of State Government to suspend action under this Act.

538. Power of State Government to dissolve Mahapalika in case of incompetency, persistent default or excess of abuse of powers.

539. Power of State Government to supersede Mahapalika.

CHAPTER XXIII
Rules, Bye-laws and Regulations


541. Bye-laws for what purpose to be made.
Sections

542. Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to lay draft bye-laws before the Mahapalika for its consideration.

543. Hearing by Mahapalika of objections to proposed bye-laws.

544. Bye-laws to be confirmed by the State Government and published in the official Gazette.

545. Printed copies of bye-laws to be kept on sale.

546. Modification and rescission of bye-laws by Mahapalika.

547. State Government may modify or repeal bye-laws.

548. Regulations.

549. State Government's power to make bye-laws and regulations.

550. Penalty for breach of rules, bye-laws or regulations.

CHAPTER XXIV

Miscellaneous

551. Public notices how to be made known.

552. Advertisement how to be made.

553. Consent, etc., of Mahapalika, etc., may be provided by written document.

554. Notices and their service.

555. Signature on notices, etc., may be stamped.

556. Power to Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to call for information as to ownership of premises.

557. Work or thing done without written permission of the Mukhya Nagar Adhikari to be deemed unauthorised.

558. Works, etc., which any person is required to execute may in certain cases be executed by Mukhya Nagar Adhikari at such person's cost.

559. Supply of materials.
Sections

560. Power of entry and inspection.

561. Power of Mukhya Nagar Aghikari to enter on lands adjacent to works.

562. Time of making entry.

563. Prohibition of obstructing entry under Section 560 or Section 561.

564. Provisions respecting institution, etc., of civil and criminal actions and obtaining legal advice.

565. Sabhasads, etc., to be deemed to be public servant.

566. Duties of police-officers.

567. Power of police-officers to arrest persons.

568. Exercise of powers of police by Mahapalika servants.

569. Informalities and errors in assessments, etc., not to be deemed to invalidate such assessment, etc.

570. Indemnity for acts done in good faith.

571. Protection of persons acting under the Act against suits.

571A. Mode of proof of Mahapalika records.

571B. Restriction on summoning of Mahapalika officers or servants to produce documents.

572. Civil Court not to grant temporary injunction in certain cases.

573. Limitation of liability of agent or trustee of owner.

CHAPTER XXV

Transitory Provision, Reports and Vendaments.

574. Constructions of references in other enactments.

575. Sums due.
Sections

576. Debts, obligations, contract and pending proceedings.

577. Continuation of appointments, taxes, budget estimate, assessment, etc.

578. Provision for municipality or local authority which is superseded or dissolved.

579. Special provisions.

580. Power to remove difficulties.

581. Repeal.