THE IMPACT OF DEMOCRATIC DECENTRALIZATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO UTTAR PRADESH

THESIS SUBMITTED FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN POLITICAL SCIENCE

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PREFACE

The Community Development Programme was introduced in order to develop socio-economic resources of the rural masses with a view to bridging the gap between haves and have nots. As the existing rural institutions lacked the strength and capacity to shoulder the heavy responsibilities generated by the programme, it was considered necessary to associate people in its multi-farious activities. To meet the situation the device of Democratic Decentralization was recommended by Balwant Rai Mehta Committee. The purpose was to involve the rural population in the gigantic task of their own uplift, without which no progress could be visualised.

The object of my thesis is to evaluate the system of Democratic Decentralization and study its impact on various activities with reference to U.P. One important aspect which did not receive proper attention earlier was the fact that the superstructure of the political system could never be viable and strong unless it was supported by a sound socio-economic infrastructure. The present work is a modest attempt to inter-relate these two aspects after a detailed study and close analysis of the working of the Panchayati Raj in U.P., during the last two decades.

The thesis has been divided into seven chapters. The first chapter deals with the historical background and circumstances leading to the emergence of democratic insti-
tutions at the grass-roots. The second chapter gives an account of the development of the idea of village institutions in India with special reference to Uttar Pradesh. This chapter also deals with the Gandhian impact on Panchayati Raj. In the context of modern parliamentary democracy, Panchayati Raj is intended to serve as a democratic base of the political infrastructure. As an agency of a welfare state and as a means to achieve the basic objectives of Community Development its economic aspects are also emphasised. Conceptually speaking Panchayati Raj is an improvement on Community Development Programme. The triple objectives of Panchayati Raj are modernisation, politicisation, and democratisation while the Community Development Programme may at best be treated as a preparatory stage for modernisation. For an effective realisation of these objectives, different states have adopted different organisational patterns of Panchayati Raj. The third chapter makes a comparative study of these patterns and their functions in order to find out their suitability in the context of varying economic, social and political set up in different states. The different models have been characterised as:

a) Rajasthan Pattern.
b) Maharashtra Pattern.
c) Andhra Pradesh Pattern.
d) Gujarat Pattern.

A comparative study of these patterns has been made and their respective merits and limitations have been put under a microscopic examination.
The fourth chapter outlines the economy of Uttar Pradesh with reference to agricultural and industrial development in the rural sector. An attempt has been made to highlight the problems of rural masses. A close examination of these factors is necessary for an analytical study and better understanding of the various avenues of community development programme and their relationship with Panchayati Raj.

The fifth chapter deals with the evolution of community development programme, its aim and objects with reference to Uttar Pradesh.

The sixth chapter gives a balance sheet of Panchayati Raj, examines, in detail, its achievements and failures under two heads - Assets and Liabilities. References have been made to the newly emerging leadership - The new elite in the rural sector and the changing inter caste relationships which have altered, to a very large extent, the political complexion of the traditional society with the result that new patterns of rural self government are appearing on the surface.

The seventh chapter highlights the challenges which the whole process of rural development poses and the way these challenges can be met with positive, imaginative and purposeful action. The need and scope for reforming the whole system from top to bottom have been pointed out in this chapter.
In the conclusion a resume of the findings has been given and the main outcome of the study have been summed up. It has been emphasised that the Panchayati Raj and its natural concomitant, the Community Development have come to stay and all efforts, official and un-official should be directed to remove any obstacles that might inhibit their simultaneous advancement.

Some relevant appendices and a comprehensive bibliography have also been given at the end of the thesis.

Acknowledgements.

I will be failing in my duty if I do not acknowledge with gratitude my indebtedness to my teacher and guide Professor S.A. Haqqi, Head, Department of Political Science, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, who inspired and guided me at every step. His valuable suggestions and precious guidance are mainly responsible for the completion of this work. I am also beholden to Professor S. Nasir Ali, Department of Political Science, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh for the help that he rendered during the preparation of this thesis. I am also grateful to my husband Dr. Sami Uddin, without whose constant encouragement and sustained interest this work would not have seen the light of the day.

My thanks are also due to Messrs M.A. Qureshi, Joint Secretary, Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development Cooperation & Panchayati Raj, Mr. Khan, Panchayati Raj Officer, Aligarh and various other state/district and block level officers who assisted me in the collection of material.
utilised in this work. I am also grateful to Dr. (Miss) Rafat Bilgrami for going through the manuscript. I am also thankful to those writers whose work I have consulted and whose views I have quoted, I am, however, entirely responsible for the views expressed, conclusions drawn and suggestions offered.

September 20, 1972.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

India is a big country having a population of 547 million$^1$ and an area of 12,59,797 square miles. Of the total population 33.54 percent are workers; 52.53 percent among men and 13.18 percent among women. As a matter of fact India represents the rural population living in more than five and a half lakhs of village. According to the census of 1971, the total urban population of India is 108.8 million out of the total population of 547 million. With the growth of population the number of cultivators and agricultural labourers has also witnessed an increase. Agricultural labourers account for 25.76 percent of the working forces, and cultivators for 42.87 percent, which confirms the predominant agricultural character of the economy. As land is more or less a fixed factor of production, the increase in the number of agricultural workers is bound to create undue pressure on land. Thus there always remains the problem of the adjustment between the variable phenomenon,

$^1$ The Hindustan Times, (New Delhi), August 19, 1971.
i.e. constant rise in population and static phenomenon, i.e. land. The former is increasing in geometrical progress while the latter is more or less fixed. Under the circumstances the majority of the farmers have reduced the size of their holdings. As a consequence of it the rural population is feeling the pinch of the problem, which has aggravated day by day due to decay of handicrafts and rural industries, which were the subsidiary source of earning. The breakup of the Joint family system also added to the sufferings of rural masses. In fact the British Plan of exploitation of Indian economy which provided vast market for their manufactured goods in India and a source of food and raw materials for the West, was directed to develop India in a manner which would make it complementary to their own economy and help to maintain political control. There was, certainly, no clear policy of developing Indian resources so as to ameliorate the economic condition of the people.¹ A few attempts were made during British rule to strengthen the rural economy. The first was the official inauguration of Cooperative movement in 1904. However, later on it was realised that

this movement has been used as a tool to increase
and control production of certain crops necessary to
feed the British Industries. Therefore it has been a
government controlled programme without mass participation.
Consequently it failed to arouse the masses from stagnation
till 1912. With the passing of the Cooperative Societies
Act 1912, a new life was given to the movement. But this
too could not revolutionise the agricultural economy and
proved ineffective in increasing productivity. Later on
fiscal measures were adopted and industries were provided
protection from foreign goods. The policy of discriminating
protection, no doubt, enabled India to develop some
industries and save others from destruction. What this
protection has achieved in India can stand no comparison
with what protection has done in Russia and Japan in a
short period. The local self institutions were not cared
about during British period but still they survived through
the ages as has been discussed in the next Chapter.

In the absence of any initiative the
agricultural and non-agricultural income stood at a low
level.

Nature has been very generous to India, almost

1. K.K.Dewett, Indian Economics, Premier Publishing
Company, Delhi, 1966, p.470.
lavish in some respects but in spite of it, poverty stalks the land. It is nothing short of a paradox that India is a poor country although it possesses rich resources.

Indian economy is heavily biased in favour of agriculture. According to the 1951 census about 70 percent of the people are dependent on it for their livelihood as compared to 66% in 1931. However the 1961 census shows that 79% of India's population was engaged in agriculture, while the census of 1971 reveals as follows-

Table No. 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Census 1971</th>
<th>Census 1961</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Total working Population (millions)</td>
<td>183.61</td>
<td>188.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Males</td>
<td>148.79</td>
<td>129.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Females</td>
<td>34.82</td>
<td>59.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. No. of workers as % to total population</td>
<td>33.54</td>
<td>42.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) No. of male workers as % to total population</td>
<td>27.18</td>
<td>29.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) No. of Female workers as % to total population</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>13.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. % of male workers to male population</td>
<td>52.53</td>
<td>57.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. % of Female workers to female population</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td>27.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Cultivators as % of total workers</td>
<td>42.87</td>
<td>52.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Agricultural labourer as % of total workers</td>
<td>25.76</td>
<td>16.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Other workers as % of total workers</td>
<td>31.37</td>
<td>30.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Economic Times (Bombay) September 17, 1971
This table proves that even in 1971 agriculture predominates. Moreover, it is an inefficient venture as shown by the fact that in India 706 persons out of every 1000 were engaged in producing food for themselves till recently, but they were not producing enough to feed the country's population. In U.S.A. 128 persons produce food not only sufficient for domestic consumption but leaving a margin for export also.¹

In comparison with some of the neighbouring countries in Asia, our production per hectare has been very low, compared to countries in Europe, it is lower still. The figures in table 2 indicate comparative average yields per hectare of some important crops.²

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¹ Dr. Samiuddin - Cooperative Farming and its Impact on Rural Industries, AMU Aligarh.
### TABLE NO. 2

Comparative Productivity to Selected Crops

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>I Yield per hectre (in 100 kg)</th>
<th>I (A hectre-2.47 acres)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Germany</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.S.R</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.A.R.</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORLD AVERAGE</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.S.R</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>41.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.A.R.</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>60.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORLD AVERAGE</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cotton</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.S.R</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.A.R.</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORLD AVERAGE</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although India has 14.6 percent of the world's population it accounts for only 9 per cent of the world's foodgrain and internal production of foodgrains has to be supplemented by imports to feed the population. In a developing economy the investment activity both in the public and private sectors of the economy enhances employment and money incomes. Consequently, the demand for food increases quantitatively and qualitatively. In addition to this, in India population has also been rising at a faster rate and substantial shifts in population from the rural to urban sector have occurred. Consequently the production of foodgrains had failed by the large margin to match the demand.¹

This poor performance of agriculture in the past can be subscribed to the following factors:

During British period half-hearted attempts were made for improving agriculture. Throughout this period agriculture was starved of capital. In addition to it the oppressive tenancy laws, high rents on account of excessive population pressure, high interest rate, lack of marketing facilities and warehouses, sub-division and fragmentation of holdings etc., also complicated the problem. As a matter of fact agriculture was hopelessly depressed and neglected and the British rulers never tried to put it on modern footing.²

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2. J.A. Voelcker in his Report on the Improvement of Indian Agriculture (London, 1893, p.11) remarked thus: "At his best the Indian raiyat or cultivator is quite as good as, and, in certain respects, the superior of the average British farmer, whilst at his worst by an absence of facilities (cont.)
The measures taken after independence have proved that India can achieve self-sufficiency in food production. Because an increasing percentage of agricultural sector in the economy of the country was bound to result in an imbalanced development of the country, therefore measures like development of agro-industries, strengthening of cooperative sector and development of big industries in new regions have been taken.

In the post independence period it was realised that the crux of development in rural India is not clearly perceived if one equates it with agro-techno-industrial revolution and leave it at that. Fundamentally speaking the problem of development in India's rural context is one of incalculation of aspirations, building up of attitudes and the development of a forward looking, self-helping and

... for improvement which is probably unequalled in any other country .... Certain it is that, I, at least, have never seen a more perfect picture of careful cultivation, combined with hard labour, perseverance, and fertility of resources than I have seen at many of my halting places in my tour."
action oriented bent of mind which cumulatively constitutes what may be called the developmental conscience. In India, such a developmental consciousness is to be developed within the confines of democracy and thus decentralisation in India's rural context should be treated as an instrument of economic growth.

It was also realised that the success of a political structure is finally determined by the social change. Unless the social change takes place in the desired direction, all efforts to derive benefits from the progress of science and modern techniques and bring happiness to the people of a swiftly expanding democracy will be merely superficial.

Keeping all this in view efforts have been made after independence to strengthen the country in the light of the basic objectives determined by the constitution of a free nation, which announced the birth of a new Republic on January 26, 1950. The acceptance of the ideal of a welfare state finds expression in the IV chapter of the constitution dealing with the Directive principles of State Policy. It provides one of the most novel and striking features of modern constitutional government. The articles of the constitution from 36-51 deal with these directive principles. They cover a wide range of State activity embracing economic, social and other problems.
For example:

1. To secure and protect a social order which stands for the welfare of the people (Art.38).

2. In particular, the State shall direct its policy towards securing: (a) adequate means of livelihood to all citizens; (b) a proper distribution of the material resources of the community for the common good; (c) the prevention of concentration of wealth to the common detriment; (d) equal pay for equal work for both men and women; (e) the protection of the strength and health of workers and avoiding circumstances which force citizens to enter vocations unsuited to their age or strength; and (f) the protection of childhood and youth against exploitation or moral and material abandonment (Art.39).

3. To organise village panchayats as units of self Government (Art.40.)
4. To secure the right to work, education (Art.40) and public assistance in cases of undeserved want, such as unemployment, old age, sickness, etc. (Art.41).

5. To secure just and human conditions of work and maternity relief (Art.42)

6. To secure work, a living wage, a decent standard of life, leisure and social and cultural opportunities for people, and in particular to promote cottage industries (Art.43).

7. To provide, within ten years from the commencement of the Constitution, free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen years (Art.45).

8. To promote with special care the education and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, especially the Scheduled Castes and Tribes (Art.46).
9. To organise agricultural and animal husbandry on scientific lines and preserve and improve the breeds and prohibit the slaughter of cows, calves and other milch and draught cattle (Art. 48)

The efforts of the State to translate the Directive Principles into reality are concentrated primarily in the national Five Year Plans; the first of which was initiated soon after the inauguration of the Constitution. The central objective of public policy and national endeavour as enunciated through these plans, has been the rapid and balanced economic development of the country which should help raising living standards and provide to the people new opportunities for a richer and more varied life. Such development is intended to expand the community's productive power and to provide the environment in which there is scope for the expression and application of diverse faculties and urges. It follows, therefore, that the pattern of development must be related to the basic objectives
which the Constitution has kept in view. These objectives are defined and explained from time to time in order that they may guide the States in planning as well as ensuring their conformity with the Directive Principles.

The first five year plan initiated development activities on a national level, and the Planning Commission attempted a fairly comprehensive review of resources and needs in the light of circumstances then existing. The programme of development incorporated in the plan was calculated to strengthen the economy at the base and to initiate institutional changes which would facilitate more rapid advance in the future. It is also aimed at meeting certain urgent problems that had arisen out of the war and partition. In both respects, the first plan registered significant advance. It evoked public cooperation and enthusiasm and gave a new dimension to current thinking and policy. ¹

¹ Planning Commission, Second Five Year Plan, page 3.
As a result of it, the national income rose from Rs. 9110 crores in 1950-51 to Rs. 10800 crores during 1955-56. The following table shows the level of national income, investment and consumption for 1950-51 and 1955-56.

Table No. 3
Showing National Income & Investment etc. in the beginning of I & II Plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>(Rs. in crores)</th>
<th>1950-51</th>
<th>1955-56</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. National Income</td>
<td></td>
<td>9,1100</td>
<td>10,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Investment</td>
<td></td>
<td>450</td>
<td>790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Investment as percentage (Index)</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. National Income (Index)</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Per capita National Income (Index)</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Per capita Consumer Expenditure</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Planning Commission, Second Five Year Plan, Govt. of India, Page No.3.

The above table gives an encouraging picture. The most significant is the fact that during First Plan the rate of investment was significantly higher than before the plan commenced.
In Uttar Pradesh the Expenditure on Five Years Plans and Annual Plans has been as follows. (Table No. 4 Page 17).

This table reveals that the expenditure has increased from 15339 lakhs during the First Five Year to Rs. 56058 lakhs during the Third Five Year Plan. The expenditure during 1969-70 was likely to be 17919 lakh rupees. During the entire period of planned economic development agricultural development has been the main concern both the Union and State Governments. The physical achievements of First Five Year Plan brought into limelight the central objective of our planned development, the establishment of the socialist pattern of society which has been explained by the Second Five Year Plan as follows:

"Essentially this means that the basic criterion for determining the lines of advance must not be private profit but social gain and that the pattern of development and the structure of socio-economic relations should be so planned that they result, not only in appreciable increase in national income and employment but also in greater equality
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and allied programs</td>
<td>25,63</td>
<td>20,78</td>
<td>1,07,37</td>
<td>40,54</td>
<td>40,39</td>
<td>54,73</td>
<td>55,07</td>
<td>56,69</td>
<td>1,03,20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-op. and Community Development</td>
<td>9,22</td>
<td>6,34</td>
<td>56,12</td>
<td>5,55</td>
<td>5,15</td>
<td>5,03</td>
<td>5,55</td>
<td>5,50</td>
<td>22,15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigation and Power</td>
<td>66,22</td>
<td>32,26</td>
<td>2,73,70</td>
<td>76,52</td>
<td>76,15</td>
<td>73,33</td>
<td>72,20</td>
<td>47,19</td>
<td>47,19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry and Mining</td>
<td>6,87</td>
<td>12,32</td>
<td>29,83</td>
<td>6,60</td>
<td>6,61</td>
<td>5,53</td>
<td>5,52</td>
<td>4,52</td>
<td>7,22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport and Communications</td>
<td>6,20</td>
<td>15,37</td>
<td>23,15</td>
<td>5,66</td>
<td>5,65</td>
<td>5,32</td>
<td>7,56</td>
<td>7,56</td>
<td>57,75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Services</td>
<td>44,71</td>
<td>15,42</td>
<td>1,02,73</td>
<td>12,62</td>
<td>12,52</td>
<td>13,89</td>
<td>22,53</td>
<td>29,14</td>
<td>1,24,27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5,87</td>
<td>33,07</td>
<td>3,45</td>
<td>4,49</td>
<td>4,28</td>
<td>4,28</td>
<td>6,88</td>
<td>25,86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,55,38</td>
<td>2,38,34</td>
<td>5,65,33</td>
<td>1,50,09</td>
<td>1,62,35</td>
<td>1,65,03</td>
<td>1,58,39</td>
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in incomes and wealth. Major decisions regarding production, consumption and investment - in fact all significant socio-economic relationship - must be made by agencies formed for social purpose. The benefits of economic development must accrue more and more to the relatively less privileged classes of society, and there should be a progressive reduction of the concentration of incomes, wealth and economic power. The problem is to create a milieu in which the small man who has so far had little opportunity of perceiving and participating in the immense possibilities of growth through organised effort is enabled to put in his best in the interest of a higher standard of life for himself and increased prosperity for the country. For creating the appropriate conditions, the State has to take up heavy responsibilities as the principal agency speaking for and acting on behalf of the community as a whole.

The Third Five Year Plan spells out even more explicitly the meaning and implications of the Indian concept of socialist pattern. In the first
chapter of this document entitled the Objectives of Planned Development, it is stated:

"Progress towards socialism lies along a number of directions, each enhancing the value of others. Above all, a socialist economy must be efficient, progressive in its approach towards science and technology, and capable of growing steadily to a level at which the well-being of the mass of the population can be secured. In the second place a socialist economy should ensure equality of opportunity to every citizen. In the third place, through the public policies it pursues, a socialist economy must not only reduce economic and social disparities which already exist, but must also ensure that rapid expansion of the economy is achieved without concentration of economic power and growth of monopoly. Finally, a society developing on the basis of democracy and socialism is bound to place the greatest stress on social values and incentives and developing a sense of common interest and obligations among all sections of the community."

It is natural that in the earlier stages of development a country has to depend heavily upon agriculture for any marked increase in national income. Industrial development requires heavy capital outlay, especially of foreign exchange for equipment, and has to overcome obstacles posed by the shortage of technicians and administrators and even basic information, such as adequate mineralogical surveys. Agriculture, in some form, is the easy way of life for a large part of the population. Simple improvements in the method of cultivation can guarantee large returns. In India the agriculturist is under-employed; some of the capital investments required, and much of the infrastructure capital investment necessary, can be provided by self-help projects if individuals and communities can only be roused to see their needs and the ways to satisfy them.

In our country there is a great potential in agriculture which can be utilised to assist local development. Moreover, increased industrial production can be obtained by the promotion of rural, cottage or
village industries. India, amongst other countries, has made considerable advance in this field, and sees this as one way to harness the labour of the rural unemployed and the under-employed. At the same time there is urgent need for industrial products like steel, cement, power machinery, fertilisers and road building equipment. The list is endless if agriculture is to be enlarged, and the needs of the society, community and individual demands, are to be met.

Increase in agricultural productivity is necessary for the economic and social development of India to meet the increasing demands placed upon it by the non-agricultural sectors for food. Experience has shown that without increase of food supply to accompany industrialization a disruptive inflation of food price is apt to occur.¹

¹ But past experience also indicates that agricultural development is not possible without simultaneous industrial development. Moreover, development in its widest connotation stands for the development in agriculture as well as industrial sector, social and cultural development and any of them can not be regarded as independent one; because development in one direction needs an equally developed counter part or rests upon development activities in the other sphere.
No doubt the rural institutions as they had developed before independence lacked the capacity to shoulder the responsibility of socio-economic tasks before the community. In the context of Indian conditions any economic, social and political development is inconceivable without attacking the problem of rural stagnation from different angles. Grow More Food Campaign was launched to increase agricultural production. However, soon it was realized that agricultural prosperity cannot be attained without creating developmental conscience which can be attained only by popular participation of the masses in their socio-economic development programmes. Thus a new programme was launched on October 2, 1952 to cover different aspects of rural life known as Community Development Programme.

The First Five Year Plan has described it as the method and rural Extension as the agency through which the process of transformation of social and economic life of the villages was to be initiated. This is to

1. *First Five Year Plan*, p.223.
process the development of the area through people's own democratic and cooperative organisations; while the Government helps with funds, technical assistance and trained personnel. The programme is designed to promote better living for the whole community, with its active participation and, if possible at the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, then it has to be roused and stimulated by Government agencies.¹

To accelerate the economy of the country the Community Development Programme emphasises that the rural people should regard all aspects of development their own concern and develop their capacity and reliance as their own cooperative efforts for the solution of their local problems in a democratic manner. The programme not only requires the consent of the rural community but also their active support. It is, therefore, necessary that the people should chalk out the programme of development and initiate its execution with their own participation and financial resources. The government help should be

¹. Community Development was so defined by the Cambridge Conference on African Administration in 1948. This definition was further examined by the Arshire Conference of Social Development in 1954 and considered valid and comprehensive. However, a shorter definition was preferred: Community Development is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and on the initiative of the community". Rajeshwar Dayal Community Development Programme in India. (Allahabad, 1960p.4.)
considered of primary importance in carrying out the programme. No doubt the government is committed to finance the programme to accelerate the economy. In a democratic country such financial and technical help is a must to break the stagnation. Operating through the people's local organisations, community development is expected to strengthen the foundations of democracy. In this way democracy and Community Development progress simultaneously.

In relation to the people Community Development is essentially both an educational and organisational process. It is educational, because it is concerned with changing the attitudes and practices which are obstacles to progress and development, by engendering such attitudes as are conducive to these improvements and more generally by promoting a greater receptivity to change. The method of Community Development is extension and the real objective of village extension work is to inspire people to want to live better and to want to learn how to make a better living. The problems of village life can be solved if and when the villager is encouraged to assert himself and to know that
he can help himself. Its main function is to make the
villagers understand what change or innovation will benefit
them, why it will be beneficial and how it can be introduced?
It is in this sense that community development is an ideology.
Extension in our programme has a much wider connotation than
it has in the foreign countries from where we have borrowed
the concept because we have combined it with Community
Development. Community Development is organisational
not because of the joint action of people, but also because
it requires the "adoption of consistent policies, specific
administrative arrangements, recruitment and training of
personnel, mobilisation of local and national resources
and organisation of research, experimentation and
evaluation. A programme of community development is most
successful when it becomes an integral part of, or is
closely related to, the existing administrative organisation
at the local, intermediate and national levels."

The broad objectives of the Community Development
Programme are: firstly, employment, increased production
including horticulture, animal husbandry, fisheries etc.
and the establishment of cottage and subsidiary industries;
secondly, self-help and self-reliance and the largest possible

1. For details see Social Progress through Community
extension of cooperation; and thirdly the need for
providing a portion of the vast unutilised time and
energy in the country side for the benefit of the community.
The first Five Year Plan had specific provisions for
government support in helping the masses to carry out
the programme.

Serious thought was given to the question of
linking the Panchayats with the programme of economic
development. The Report on the Organisation of Local self
Institutions (Rural and Urban) in relation to planned social
and Economic Development in India emphasised in 1951 that
a democratic government at the centre can not function
satisfactorily, unless it is supported by democratic
organisations of local administrations.

The First Five Year Plan pointed out, "The
constitution has provided for democratic institutions at
the centre and in the states, but so long as local self
governing institutions are not conceived as parts of the
same organic institutional and administrative frame work,
the structure of democratic government will remain incomplete.
Local self governing bodies have to play a vital role in
the field of development. It may also be necessary to work
out suitable arrangements for linking local-self governing
bodies at different levels with one another, for instance
village panchayats with district or sub-division local bodies.

1. First Five Year Plan, P:139.
The second Plan also emphasised the role of village Panchayats in the process of planning of rural India and implementation, but they were too weak to be effective. Although there were 207 district boards in India in 1957, their performance was not encouraging. As a result of the poor performance of these boards the people were indifferent towards the Community Development Programmes. Block was an innovation of the Community Development Programme but no representative institution existed at this level. A Block Advisory Committee (later known as Block Development Committee), was set up at each block. It was purely an advisory body and possessed no executive functions. Its aim were two fold (1) to advise in the planning and execution of the C.D. Programme, and (2) to help in enlisting popular support and participation. This Committee consisted of officials and non-officials, both ex-officio and nominated. The composition and size of Block Advisory Committee varied from State to State - sometimes it was as large as 160 in U.P. However, attendance of members was discouraging and their performance was not upto the mark. These adhoc bodies did not evince any sign of strength and convincing leadership and hence lacked power of persuasion.
It was recommended by the Second Five Year Plan that village Panchayats should be organically linked with popular organisations at a higher level and that, by stages determined in advance, democratic bodies should take over the entire general administration and development of the district or the subdivision perhaps other than such functions as law and order, administration of justice and certain functions pertaining to revenue administration. "The subject requires careful and objective study in the light of conditions prevailing in different parts of the country as well as experience during the First Five Year Plan. We, therefore, recommend a special investigation under the auspices of the National Development Council".  

Thus the Committee on plan project appointed a team for the study of Community Projects and National Extension Service. The team consisted of Shri Balwant Teay Mehta, M.P. as leader and three other members - Dr. S. D. Sharma, Minister Madhya Pradesh, Thakur Phool Singh, Deputy Minister U.P. and Shri B. G. Rao, formerly Chief Secretary, Government of Madhya Bharat. The team's reference were very wide and comprehensive. It was asked to study and report on the C.P. and N.E.S. with a view to "economy and efficiency" with reference to certain aspects, which inter-alia included the assessment of the extent to which the movement has  

1. Second Five Year Plan P. 160
succeeded in utilizing local initiative and in creating institutions to ensure continuity in the process of 'improving' economic and social conditions in rural areas. The team was free to make any other recommendations, in order to ensure economy and efficiency. The terms of reference of the study team were as under:

(i) The content of the Programme and the priorities assigned to different fields of activity within it.

(ii) The arrangement for the execution of the programme with special reference to:

(a) Intensification of activities in the sphere of agricultural production;

(b) Co-ordination between -

(1) the different Ministries/Departments at the centre;

(2) the Centre and the States; and

(3) the difference agencies within the community projects administration and other State Government Organisations and departments; and

(c) The organisational structure and methods of work with a view to securing speed in the despatch of business.

(iii) The assessment of the requirements of personnel for community projects and national extension service and examination of existing training facilities in order to meet the growing requirements of personnel for extending the coverage of the programme.

(iv) The assessment of the extent to which the movement has succeeded in utilising local initiative and in creating institutions to ensure continuity in the process of improving economic and social conditions in rural areas.

(v) The method adopted for reporting upon the results attained by the community projects and National Extension Service;

(vi) Other recommendation that the Team may like to make in order to ensure economy and efficiency in the working of the community projects and National Extension Service.

The team immediately set to work. Between 21st February and 4th August, 1957, it visited 58 selected blocks in 13 states and also availed of the opportunity of discussions with persons belonging to different categories, directly or indirectly connected with the Community Development work. The recommendations and conclusions based on observations and studies of the team were sent to the State Governments and later in September and first half of October, 1957, the team held discussion with the State Governments. The report was then finalised and signed on November 24, 1957, with a short note of dissent by Shri B.C. Rao.
The Study Team made several recommendations but its revolutionary recommendation of a three-tier system of democratic decentralisation for development administration was significant. The Team did not try to conceal the bitter truth and admitted, "One of the least successful aspects of the Community Development and National Extension work is its attempt to evoke popular initiative". The team came to the inevitable conclusion that lack of popular initiative and participation in the Community Development Programme was due to absence of democratic institutions at lower levels. The adhoc bodies failed to deliver the goods.

The team pointed out: few local bodies at a level higher than the village panchayats have shown any enthusiasm or interest in Community Development or National Extension Service work and even village Panchayats have failed to come into the field to any appreciable extent. "So long as we do not discover or create a representative and democratic institution which will supply the local interest, supervision and care needed to ensure that the expenditure of money upon local objects conforms with the need and wishes of the locality, invest it with adequate power and assign to it appropriate finances, we shall never be able to evoke local interest and excite
local initiative in the field of development. As mentioned earlier the need for creating within the district a well-organised democratic structure or administration in which the Panchayats will be linked with popular organisations at a higher level, was stressed by the Second Five Year Plan. For the higher level the Mehta Committee found that the existing district boards had out-lived their usefulness and their unwieldy size made them less effective for new tasks. "The district boards might have served the purpose for which they were created, i.e. educating the people in self-government; but they have neither the tradition nor resources to take up the present work. They have also been handicapped by having too large a charge to receive their detailed attention." It then considered the possibility of a single representative and vigorous democratic institution to take charge of all aspects of development work in the rural areas and concluded that Decentralisation was the only possible response to the challenge of Community Development.

1. Report of the Study Team, Vol 1, p.5
2. Second Five Year Plan p.160
DECENTRALIZATION - Defined

It is impossible to standardize the usage of the word 'decentralization' by seeking to give it meanings that would be acceptable universally. The English language took the word from Latin; it shares it with the Roman languages. The word, therefore, is used under many different constitutional systems and in different social environments. In fact, it is a word of innumerable applications. Through all of them, however, runs a common idea which is inherent in the word's Latin roots, meaning "away from the centre".

A number of other terms (also of Latin origin in the English and Roman languages) have related meanings. They may be helpful in differentiating the type of decentralization. These words include devolution, "deconcentration", and delegation. However, none of them has a fixed meaning in the literature of political science.1 Here it is necessary to explain the difference between delegation and decentralisation. The terms are usually considered identical conveying similar sense. But it is not so. Delegation of power can not be equated with decentralisation. In delegation the lower level executive

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machinery is in every way subordinate to the higher level machinery, which is responsible for the actions of the authority to whom power is delegated. The higher body does not divest itself of certain functions. Decentralisation is a process whereby the government divest itself completely of certain duties and responsibilities and devolves them to some other authority. For the purpose of this work decentralization implies delegation of a large amount of discretionarily authority to the field officers to create a feeling in them that the Central Office has confidence in their competence and ability. Such a feeling makes them more responsible and dutiful. They do their best to show that they deserve the confidence which has been reposed in them by the headquarters. Flexibility, adaptability, maximum popular participation in administrations, proper use of local talents are some of the advantages of decentralized system of administration. However there are certain drawbacks of it like parochialism, local narrow-mindedness and absence of a uniform national policy.

DEMOCRATIC DECENTRALIZATION

In a developing country the problem of the development of agriculture and industry are interlocked with the problems of improved health, transport facilities, supply of agricultural wherewithals, industrial
raw material, education, training etc. In addition the problem of new inventions and discoveries and to evolve a new machinery for mass communication is also necessary. In the presence of so many complex and multi-natured problems of development the government is alone in meeting the challenge. In the early stages of development, and later unless deliberate steps are taken to spread the responsibility, the burden of meeting the challenge rests upon the government. Being new in undertaking the developmental activities after independence India faces the problem of seeking support of the people having traditions of disobedience and defiance of authority. Moreover to meet the varied demands on government without enlisting the cooperation and enthusiastic support of persons at all levels will impose a heavy burden on civil service - both the general administrator and the technical expert. Particularly any change for rural development involves considerable social changes and where improvements in agriculture are sought, farmers and peasants need to be approached individually, as amongst illiterate people, methods of mass communication are limited and often ineffective. To meet this situation the government has to create the administrative and institutional situation in which the village folk may participate to express
their priorities and dedication to work for them.
No plan can have any chance of success unless the
millions of small farmers in the country accept its
objectives, share in its making, regard it as their
own, and are prepared to make the sacrifices necessary
for implementing it.¹ There must be decentralization
of administration in suitably geared system to bring
new ideas and new methods to the farmers. Decentralisation
is also required to awaken communities living in the
remote corners of the country.

"Independence ushered in a new urge in people
for a massive move forward, for improvement in the
level of living, on the one hand, and for a sovereign
democratic society, on the other. Community Development
was the first effort to bring about order in a chaotic
system of sovereignties where departments were varied
with each other horizontally rather than vertically.
It was also a programme for direct involvement of
the people in the administration of their own
affairs nearer and dearer to them.

¹ Krishnamachari, V.T. Address to the Sixth Development
Commissioners Conference, Ministry of Community
The approach led with its natural logic to the growth of Panchayati Raj as grassroots democracy which promised to create an interlocked link from the Gram Sabha to the Lok Sabha. Thus democracy has to function through certain executive machinery but the democratic government operating over large areas through its executive machinery can not adequately appreciate local needs and circumstances. It is, therefore, necessary that there should be a devolution of power and a decentralisation of machinery and that such power be exercised and such machinery controlled and directed by popular representatives of the local area. The Committee itself considered the arguments against such a move but after the analysis of the pros and cons of the problem, it observed that "inefficiency and corruption in democratic institutions at local level were only short-term problems. Once these bodies have real autonomy and "power to make mistakes and learn by making mistakes" under the guidance and supervision of the higher bodies, these difficulties disappear.1

1. S.K. Dey, "From local govt. to the Centre", The Indian Journal of Public Administration, Vol. XVI, No. 3 July-September, 1970
2. See Report of the Study Team.
So what the team suggested was the creation of a three tier system of decentralisation—village Panchayat, Panchayat Samiti and the Zilla Parishad; entrusted with entire developmental administration.

Block was recommended as the unit of Planning and organisation on the basis of the Aristotelian principle of being neither too large to defeat the very purpose of creation, nor so small to militate against efficiency and economy. The traditional units taluka and tehsil—were considered unsuitable for the development activities. Panchayat Samiti—the middle tier—was the innovation. At the district level, a new body—Zila Parishad was to replace the district boards. The Committee also described the organisation, various functions and sources of revenue to be assigned to these bodies. Following are the details of organisation, functions, resources and relationship between different tiers.

Firstly, we should have village panchayat purely on an elective basis, with a provision for the co-option of two women members and one member each from the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. To this body the maximum powers should be delegated for the implementation of the community development programme.
falling within territorial jurisdiction of the village. The main sources of income of the panchayats will be property or house tax, tax on market and vehicles, octroi or terminal tax, conservancy tax, water and lighting rate, income from cattle ponds, grants from the panchayat samiti and fees charged from the registration of animals sold etc. In addition, the panchayats should be entitled to receive from the panchayat samiti a share upto 3/4th of the net land revenue assigned to the later. The compulsory duties of the panchayats should include among others provision of water supply, sanitation, lighting, maintenance of roads, land management, collection and maintenance of records and other statistics and the welfare of backward classes. It will also act as an agent of the panchayat samiti in executing any scheme entrusted to it.

Secondly, panchayat samiti should be formed for an area included in a block at present to be constituted by indirect election from the village. Panchayats within the block area can be grouped together in convenient units and the panchayats in each of these units shall elect from amongst themselves person or persons to be members of panchayat samiti; about 20 in number. These elected representatives will again co-opt two women who are interested in the
women and children. A representative from the scheduled castes and another from the scheduled tribes have also been provided for, if they are not otherwise represented. The panchayat samiti may co-opt two local residents who have shown special aptitude in rural development work. An elected chairman for this body was recommended. Vast powers have been entrusted to this body which should be the main agency for development work in that area with sufficient resources, both central as well as provincial at its disposal. The functions of the panchayat samiti should cover the development of agriculture in all its aspects, improvement of cattle, promotion of local industries, public health, welfare work, administration of primary schools and collection and maintenance of Statistics. It should also act as an agent of the State Government in executing special schemes of development entrusted to it. Other functions should be transferred to this body only when they have started functioning as efficient democratic institutions. The finances of the panchayat samiti should comprise of (i) percentage of land revenue collected within the block which should not be less than 40 percent of the State's net revenue; (ii) cess on land revenue; (iii) tax on professions; (iv) surcharge or duty on transfer of immovable property; (v) rent and profit accruing from
property; (vi) net proceeds of tolls and leases; (vii) pilgrim tax, tax on entertainment, primary education cess, proceeds from fairs and markets; (viii) share of motor vehicle tax; (ix) voluntary public contribution; (x) and grants made by the government. The State Government should give adequate grants-in-aid to them conditionally or unconditionally or on a matching basis with due regard to economically backward areas. All central and state funds in a block area should invariably be assigned to the panchayat samiti to be spent by it directly or indirectly excepting when the samiti recommends direct grant to an institution. This was to be the chief body for the formulation of plans for the whole block.

The Team observed that the block should, as far as possible, be treated as the administrative unit of all development departments so that there is one unified set up without duplication in numbers, over-lapping of jurisdiction or blurring of responsibilities. The expenditure under the block schemes can and should be correlated with the normal development expenditure in the block. This implies that the budgets of the development departments within the district should be split-up block-wise and inter-related with the block budget wherever there are blocks.
Then there should be Zila Parishad at the district level, mainly with a view to achieving the necessary co-ordination between the panchayat samitis within the district. The Zila Parishad was to consist of the Presidents of Panchayat Samitis, members of Parliament and State Legislatures and District level Officers of the Development Department. The Parishad was to be an advisory-cum-supervisory body. It was not to have any executive functions, because such powers might kill local initiative. The functions of the parishad may also include examination and approval of the budgets of the Panchayat Samitis, where funds are allotted by the Government for the district as a whole, their distribution between the various blocks, co-ordination and consolidation of the block plans, supervision of the activities of the Panchayat Samitis etc.

The Team further pointed out that if this experiment of democratic decentralisation was to yield maximum results, it was necessary that all the three tiers of the scheme, viz, village panchayat, panchayat samiti and Zila Parishad should be started at the same time and operated simultaneously in the whole district.¹

The recommendations of the study team were considered and endorsed by the National Development Council, in January, 1958. However, the action to be taken, to chalk out the detailed structure best suited to the individual conditions was left to the state governments. This point was further affirmed when the Central Council of Local-self Government suggested that the evolution of this genuine transfer of power to the people may be left to the State Governments. It was in the middle of 1958 that the National Development Council communicated to the states for the implementation of the scheme of democratic decentralisation. The council did not insist on uniformity. Every state was free to have its own legislation to set up Panchayati Raj institutions of its own choice suited to the local requirements, but of course, keeping certain fundamental and basic principles of Panchayati Raj, intact.

Following are these principles:

1. There should be a three-tier structure of local-self governing bodies from the village level to the district level, the bodies being organically linked up;
2. There should be a genuine transfer of power and responsibility to them;
3. Adequate resources should be transferred to these bodies to enable them to discharge these responsibilities.
4. All welfare and development schemes and programmes at these levels should be channelled through these bodies alone;

5. These bodies being charged with various duties and functions, no higher body should have an opportunity to do what a lower body can do itself;

6. The three tier system should be such that it facilitates further devolution and dispersal of power and responsibility in the future. ¹

The basic principles of the scheme were accepted by the Central Council of Local-self Government at its fifth meeting at Hyderabad in 1959. The council recommended that "while the broad pattern and fundamentals may be uniform; there should not be any rigidity in the pattern".²

Accordingly all the states took necessary steps to pass legislation. Rajasthan was the first state to implement on October 2, 1959 the scheme of Panchayati Raj, to be followed by rest of the country.


Thus a new organisational frame work was provided for efficient and economical development administration. To some extent the Panchayat Samiti was an improvement over the Block Advisory Committee and the Zila Parishad was a better and more useful form of the old district board. However, it can be pointed out that what the team recommended was not a change of emphasis here or there, but a new order of priorities along with a new type of organisation. It was, indeed, a revolutionary departure from the old outlook. The proposals created a stir at first, and much scepticism was expressed about the efficacy of the new set up. But soon after it was appreciated that the experiment had potentialities of success if sincere attempts were made. ¹

For a better understanding of the recent developments in the political and socio-economic order of rural India the next chapter deals with the development of the idea of village institutions in India with special reference to Uttar Pradesh.

CHAPTER XI
HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF RAJYAWATI RAY
WITH REFERENCE TO
UPTAR PRADESH

Village communities with communal functions and ownership are the most common forms of early human society since the beginning of emergence of mankind from barbarism to civilisation. This communal living ensured their constant evolution into higher stages of existence and social organisation.

The march of mankind towards civilisation may be summed up as follows: First, the state of savagery, when man predominantly lives on products in their natural state, and for appropriating those natural products he prepares the simplest and crudest instruments; second the state of barbarism when domestication of animals commences, man learns the art of farming and thus human efforts become capable of increasing natural products; and finally, civilisation when man's mastery over nature increases, industries and arts develop, classes become dominant and their conflicts dominate the march of history.¹

¹. B.D. Malviya "Village Panchayats in India." All India Congress Committee, New Delhi page 11. 1956
Historical Resume

Village communities thus became the earliest forms of social organisations where mutual goodwill and cooperation reigned and remained supreme till such time as subsequent historical and economic developments disrupted them. The Report of Congress Village Panchayat Committee has said: 1

"This institution of local self-government and village communities was also practised in different countries of Europe and Asia. In Greek, the City was a 'life in common'. The City State 'was at once a Parliament and a Government, and Executive, Legislature and Judiciary in one.' 2 A good account of the co-operative life practised in village communities in Europe is given by Prince Kropotkin in his well known book, 'Mutual Aid'. China and Japan have also been some of the oldest homes of such decentralised rural institutions. 3" These institutions primarily engaged themselves in the development of agriculture.

References:
Like many other countries the dawn of civilization also changed the course of Indian History. However the predominance of agriculture is borne out by numerous references in the scriptures. Due to great significance of agriculture the Vedic people recognised Keshetrapati as the God of Agriculture and prayed to him to keep the Kachetras (that is, the cultivated fields which today are commonly called Rhet) fertile and prosperous. In Rigveda (IV, 5, 12), the first three Mantras are addressed to Keshetrapati, the Lord of the Field, and Indra, the mighty Rain-God of that hoary past, comes later in Mantra seven. And the final appeal is: "May the ploughshare break up our land happily, may the ploughman go happily with oxen; may the earth be watered with sweet showers happily; may prosperity be granted to us."  

The agricultural operations need joint action: Thus organisations, assemblies and different institutions having the basic character of uniting persons for different purposes came into existence. In his pre-eminent study "Hindu Polity", Dr. K.P. Jayaswal says that national life and activities in the earliest times on record were expressed through popular assemblies and institutions.2 Such gatherings are referred to as Samiti (Sam-Iti) meaning 'meeting together'. Such


bodies existed at all levels is indicated in Prithvi-Sukta (56) of Atharva-Veda.1 "In the villages and forests of the land, in the various meetings and assemblies to discuss problems, I should always, O Mother Earth, speak for your good, for your interest." Even at this time India had come to be a nation of diverse people with different languages and religions, and the sense of unity in this diversity had developed, is made abundantly clear by Prithivi Sukta (45). This land which holds within its bosom men of diverse languages and religions as though they are people living in one household, should, like a milch cow, profusely give us wealth and riches.

In fact the ancient society had created various local bodies with different functions and of varying character is undisputed. Vedic society was, indeed, sufficiently developed and settled to admit of an elaborate differentiation of functions. As Dr. Mookerji has listed3: the original texts use a number of terms to designate these popular local bodies, viz., Kila, ganj, jati, puga, vrata, sreni, sucha, samudaya, samuha, sambhua- samutthana, parishad, charana. Various references of the corporate unions known as guilds in which manual labourers and skilled workers were organised are found in Dharam

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1 & 2. H.D. Malviya, Village Panchayats in India, AICC, Page 43 (Hindi) N. Delhi.
Surtas, the Upanishads, the Epics and the Jatakas.
R.C. Majumdar has given a list of 27 such guilds, as the guilds of Muslim weavers, leather workers, painters, goldsmiths, stone-carvers, potters, dyers, jewellers and money lenders etc. etc. 1 Each of these guilds formed a whole village of its own and each of the villages was a tiny, self-governing republic. 2 The Hamayan of Valmike gives an account of the village "Ghosh" and "Gram", Mahabharata also mentions about Ghosh and Brams. However the task of presenting a connected, complete and comprehensive account of these bodies specially with regard to their functions at the village level bristles with difficulties. All conclusions to be drawn about these matters have necessarily to be based on the Vedas and the Brahmanical epics. There is one current of thought among eminent scholars which believes that "These represent very little the state of Indian culture "but" culture as in the imagination of the Brahmin authors" 3.

The Maurya period witnessed an important change in the Indian political system. The great empire functioned through trained and organised bureaucracy, is clear from the accounts given by Magasthenes and in the Arthashastra of Kautilya. Opinion differs about the

1. R.C. Majumdar, "Corporate life in Ancient India", pp. 4, 18, 19
2. Cambridge history of India, Vol. I edited by E.J. Rapson
3. H.D. Malviya, Village Panchayats in India, AICC, pp. 43-44.
relation of the state with the village communities. Dr. R.C. Majumder and Prof. R.K. Mukerji are of the opinion that village communities were not deprived of their old rights and responsibilities while Prof. B.K. Sarkar argues that "the defecto initiative and responsibility of the Mauryan Assemblies were not more real than was the Sham local self government enjoyed by the Municipalities and District Boards of British India at the back and call of the District Magistrate". The criticism may be correct but the reference of the corporate character of villages is also given in Kautilya's Arthashastra, who was a strong believer in an efficient and centralised monarchy. The Arthashastra reveals that the villages were collectively responsible for the maintenance of law and order, collection of land revenue and other state dues.

The feudal empire of Guptas came into existence in 4th century A.D. According to Fa-hien the Chinese pilgrim (C.400-411) the government did not intervene in the affairs of local institutions and the village remained the lowest administrative division.

3. Vide Montegue, Chelmsford Report, 1918 quoted by B.K. Sarkar in political Institutions and Theories of Hindus, p. 58, 1922
A notable feature of this period is the crystallisation of professional guilds into hereditary castes. The guilds possessed some characteristics of a democratic organisation specially in the south. Another important feature is the frequent mention of Mahattaras the elders of a village. These village councils were fairly developed from the 4th century onward particularly in Central India, Bihar, Maharashtra, Rajputana and Karnataka. The village councils of North and South enjoyed extensive powers, though there was a marked difference in the village councils of North and South.¹

The most important function of these village councils was the administration of justice, but apart from the judicial powers they also exercised legislative and executive powers. "Their exclusive functions included those of Collector, the Magistrate and the Municipality of the present day".²

1. For details and minute differences see:
A.S. Altekar, "A history of village Communities in Western India", Madras, 1927.
VILLAGE INSTITUTIONS FROM SEVENTH TO TWELFTH CENTURY A.D.

The main interest in the political history shifts to Daccan and South India with the establishment of Chalukyas and Pallavas empires from the middle of the Seventh century to the twelfth century A.D.

Frequent mention of the village Assembly in the inscriptions of ninth, tenth and eleventh centuries A.D. provide an evidence that the village Assembly was the supreme authority in the village. In some places it consisted of all the male adults of the village, whereas in some places the members were the learned Brahmans and other distinguished men of the village.

The Village Assembly was the absolute proprietor of the village land and possessed a corporate property, which could be sold for public purposes. The payment of revenue to the government was also the responsibility of the Assembly. For the realisation of dues it had the right to acquire the property of the owner of the land. Apart from the regular taxes it was authorised to levy extra tolls for public purposes, regulation of markets, assignment of particular cities for particular commodities.

It also made provisions for educational and charitable institutions and acted as a trustee for public charities of all kinds. It paid special attention to the means of communication and irrigation. It exercised complete authority over the people of the village "persons who are qualified to do the service of accountancy, carpentry, etc., should take up such services in the village only. Those who engages themselves in these services beyond the village will be considered to have transgressed the law, to have committed a fault against the Assembly and to have ruined the village."  

The village assembly performed its functions through one or more committees and Sub-Committees.  

The Central government did not intervene in the internal affairs and in matters like gifts, sales, and mortgages of land and other properties and acted simply as a supervisor.  

"In Ancient India King was the head of the state and not of the society. He had place in the social hierarchy, but it was not the highest place. As symbol of the state, he appeared to the people like a remote attraction with no direct touch with their daily life which was governed by the social organisation."  

3. R.K. Mukerji, ibid, pp. 235-248  
4. Ibid, p.4
Such social organisations; economically self-sufficient and politically self-governing unit won the admiration of many scholars.

Muslim period:

Conquest of Sindh was made by Muhammad Bin Qasim as early as 7th A.D. After that though there were subsequent invasions but a stable government was established only from the time of slave dynasty (1206-1290) and continued during the regins of Khilji monarchs (1219-1321), the Tuglak dynasty (1321-1413) and the Lodhi dynasty (1451-1535), and onwards. Elaborate administrative and judicial arrangements were made during this period. The Muslim rulers divided the empire into Subas, Sarkars, and Parganas. Parganas were divided by Sher Shah into Mahals or groups of village for revenue purposes. But the arrangement did not effect the indigenous rural judicial administration. The Panchayats continued as before. In one way it can be said that Sher Shah gave more powers and laid responsibilities on the village headman by providing that the village headman will be responsible for the safety within his area, failing which the headman will bear the consequences. In fact the villages flourished during the Muslim rule. For the village community the changes of dynasty were little more than ripples.

1. See Mohammad Bashir Ahmad, "The administration of justice in Medieval India", Aligarh, 1951, p. 129
on the surface beneath which the water continued to flow steadily.¹ It was also observed by J.G.Drummond, "During the troublous times, that set in with Mohammedan invasions, when Central governments were often paralysed, the villages had to rely to an even greater extent than before on the primitive operations of self government which they had evolved in the course of centuries."²

Akbar divided the empire into Subas and Suba was subdivided into Sarkars, each Sarkar comprised of a number of Parganas, which was actually a union of several villages. At every village there was village Muqaddam (headman) and the village Patwari; these men were not state employees but the servants of village community.³

That the Villages were not neglected is also confirmed by various instructions for the extension of cultivation, collection of revenue, and help to be given to peasants, contained in the Ain-i-Akbari, the Shahi Farmans and the Dastur-ul-Amals.⁴

According to the observations made by Dr. Parmatma Saran village life was not distributed by the Mughals because "They had no better alternative to

2. J.G.Drummond, "Panchayats in India", p.4
3. Malviya, H.D., "Village Panchayats in India", pp.131-140, ICC, New Delhi
substitute in its place which would be calculated to serve the interests of the people so well. Hence they gave it a sort of legal standing by their tacit recognition of it, and encouraged it to cooperate with the government in its functions.\(^1\) As the state in those days was a military state it "contended itself with the police duties and revenue collection and did not undertake any socialistic work, nor interfered with the life of the villagers, so long as there was no violent crime or defiance of Royal authority in the locality"\(^2\).

In short the village republic continued to gain strength both during Hindu and Muslim period and the village community with its local government survived the wreck of dynasties and downfall of empires. However the various forces working spontaneously in the village communities were rendered feeble during the last days of Mogul administration,\(^3\) inspite of the fact that the Muslim rulers did not interfere too much with the old arrangements of village communities.\(^4\)

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3. Dr. Altekar, "Village Communities in Western India," Madras, 1927, pp. 230-34.
Granting of large tracts in reward of military or political services occasionally made by Muslims and frequently by Maratha powers affected them adversely. The greatest defect of the Jagirdari System was the absolute uncertainty of the duration of tenure which continued strictly during the pleasure of the emperors; specially after the reign of Akbar (1605-1658) the period was of luxury and extravagance. The increasing needs of assignee, naturally resulted in the impoverishment of peasants. Most of the land went out of cultivation. Because changes of assignment were frequent and as the assignee endeavoured to make hay while the sun shone and to extract more than the normal yield of his grant, the effect on the peasantry was devastating.\(^1\) The imperial efforts to check the process of the land going out of cultivation, by use of force proved futile. Further "The wars and devastations of Mohammadans and Marathas, and Pindaris swept away the village institutions as well as every form of ancient proprietary rights''.\(^2\) "And finally the shocks of East India Company and the British rule not only damaged but shook the foundations of these indigenous institutions."

The establishment of East India Company and policy of excessive centralisation of executive and judicial powers in the hands of the government officials disintegrated the village panchayats by depriving the village functionaries of their age long powers and functions. This was the greatest disservice to the country although it prolonged the British rule over India. Hence it proved useful to British rulers. Mahatma Gandhi has said that "The British government, by its ruthlessly thorough method of revenue collection, almost destroyed these ancient republics which could not stand the shock of this revenue collection."  

Due to their policy of centralisation the British government made direct contacts with Zamindars and cultivators which discouraged the development of panchayats and laid the foundations of a unitary government. Slowly and gradually the functions performed by Panchayats passed to the administrative and judicial officers. Likewise the Tehsildars looked after the work of village headman. Thus the government officials became the spokesmen of the public. This created a gulf between public and master. The Britishers also realised that it was not possible for them to rule India effectively without the help and cooperation of Indian people living in tiny scattered villages.  

1. Harijan, Poona, 28.5.1931.
In his evidence before the Famine Commission, Sir Richard Temple emphasised the importance of local-self government when he said "For the future progress of the country the encouragement of the principle of local-self government, by which business of all kinds should be left more and more to local direction, is of much importance and nowhere more so, than in dealing with local distress, and, however great be the difficulties in the way of its early practical realisation, it will be well never to lose opportunity of taking any step that may lead to it." It was followed by Lord Ripon's famous resolution on local-self government of 18th May, 1882. He considered local-self government as a means to popular and political education, and envisaged in his resolution of the 18th May 1882 a network of local bodies, both for rural as well as urban administration. But in India of 1882, Lord Ripon, the then Viceroy was a solitary figure in his liberalism, as the vast majority of local Anglo-Indian officials were conservatives and supporters of a paternal administration, so that the reforms projected by Ripon were ignored by the provincial governments and district officers who were responsible for putting them into practice. As a result the resolution remained a dead letter for a long time, with the exception of few acts passed in certain provinces. Notable among these were the

Sanitary Committee Act of 1889, in Bombay, Madras and the Central provinces; the United Provinces sanitation Act 1892, and the United Provinces Village Courts Act of 1892. In Bengal the establishment of Union Committee with certain powers, to improve the conditions of village placed under their charge was permitted by law.

Viscount Morely, the then Secretary of State (1901-10) took not only a serious note of over centralisation but also called it a great mischief, and attributed it as the main reason for the widening gulf between the officials and the public in India. Hence a Royal Commission to report upon decentralisation was appointed in 1907 under the chairmanship of Charles Hobhouse. The report of the Royal Commission which was published in 1909 devoted one full chapter to village organisation,¹ and made liberal recommendations for the establishment of village panchayats.

Though the suggestions of the Commission were favourably commended by the government the officials found a number of difficulties in their implementation.

¹ Report of the Royal Commission upon Decentralisation, 1909, part III, Chapter XVIII.
Evolution of rural local-self institutions in U.P.

The history of the constitutional evolution of the U.P. district boards fall into three periods, namely from 1883 to 1905, 1906 to 1921 and 1922 to the present day. During the first of these periods the district boards consisted of the aggregate or certain selected representatives of the members of the local or the tahsil boards within the districts. The second period saw the abolition of the Local boards, and during it the district boards consisted of members partly nominated by the provincial government, and partly elected by a small nominated electorate. The third and the last period witnessed the re-organisation of the district boards on popular and democratic lines.¹

The Royal Commission on Decentralisation (1909) after reviewing the working of the local and the district boards in the various provinces of the country came to the conclusion that due to their unrepresentative character and inadequate powers, these bodies have not been a success. To remove the defects of the boards' constitution, the Commission recommended the creation of a genuine electorate consisting of the members of the village panchayats, the provision for an elective majority on all the boards, and a due representation of minorities through nomination.²

¹. Sharma, M.P. "Evolution of the Rural local self-government and Administration in the Uttar Pradesh, the All India Institute of Local-self government, II Horniman Circle, Fort Bombay, 1957, p.46
The Commission also recommended the formation of village panchayats and resuscitation of the local boards where they had been abolished, so that local self-government might be built up from the bottom.

These recommendations received the attention of the Government of India in their resolution on local self-government 28th April, 1915. The principle of elected majority on the boards was accordingly accepted, but the resolution gave no lead on the question of the reform of the board's electorates. It conveniently overlooked the fact that the so-called elective majority on the U.P./Board was returned by a tiny nominated electorate, and so in practice, indistinguishable from the nominated element.

As regards the Panchayats this Resolution fully endorsed the view expressed by the Decentralisation Commission, and laid down certain guiding principles with a view to achieve the desired success. But no practical developments were made, due to the pressure of the First World War.

Following the declaration of 1917 in the House of Commons on August 20 announcing substantial reforms in the direction of responsible government, and the publication of Montague-Chelmsford report (1918) containing the proposals for immediate political advance, a new significance came to be attached to the question of local self-government. "If our proposals for changes on higher levels" said the Montague-Chelmsford report, "are to be a success, there must be no

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1. Vide; Ibid, p.239.
2. Indian Local-self government policy, being a resolution issued by the Governor General in Council on 28th April, 1915.
hesitation about changes in the local bodies. Responsible institutions will not be stably rooted until they become broad-based; and farsighted Indian politicians will find no field in which their energies can be more profitably thrown than in developing the borough and the communes of their country. The report also revealed that ever since 1916 the Government of India had been considering the proposals for further advance in local bodies.

The Government of India Resolution of 1919, looked upon Panchayats not as mere mechanical adjustment of local self government but as associations designated to develop village corporate life on the basis of the intimacy existing between the inhabitants who had not only common civil interest but were also kept together by traditions and blood.

The Government of India Act, 1919 made local self-government a 'transferred subject' which earmarked the growth of these bodies under the patronage of elected ministers. When local self-government was made a transferred subject under the Act of 1919 Panchayat Raj Acts were passed in different states including, Assam, Bengal, Madras, Bombay, the Central Province, Bihar Punjab, United Provinces, etc.

In U.P. the Panchayat Raj Act of 1920 was enacted to revive Panchayats, the working of functioning more or less under the District Magistrate. Their jurisdiction was limited to simple, injury, assault, mischief, insult,

2. Ibid, para 193
petty theft etc; and to a civil claim not exceeding rupees twenty five. Subject to certain limitations the jurisdiction of the panchayats was non-concurrent and non-appealable. These bodies were not bound by the law of evidence or procedure except what was laid down in those Acts. The Village Panchayat Act, 1920, formed the basis of the constitution and working of Panchayats in the United Provinces. Under this Act, Panches were to be appointed by the Collector in the prescribed manner and were to hold office for such period as may be prescribed.1

It was stated that the number of Panches shall not be less than five.2 and not more than seven as the Collector may deem fit from time to time.3 At least two of these Panches were required to be able to read and write. The Sarpanches (Presiding Officers) of the Panchayat were to be appointed by the Collector, who were to be vested with the prescribed powers and functions.4 There were also provisions of suspension of Panches and Sarpanches from the Panchayats by the Collector on some misconduct, incapability, negligence of duty or any other sufficient cause. The quorum of the meeting was fixed as three Panches including the Presiding Panch. Vacancies in the Panchayats due to deaths, resignation, removal etc. were filled in by the Collector. Records and registers of the proceedings of the Panchayat were also maintained in the prescribed manner.

1. The U.P. Village Panchayat Act, 1920, Section 21, Sub-section 1.
2. Ibid, section 5.
3. Ibid, section 7.
4. Ibid, section 7.
Thus, the constitution of the panchayats in U.P. was such that the Panchayats remained purely official bodies and there was no scope for them to be responsible to the villagers in general.

In the beginning Panchayats under the U.P. Village Panchayat Act VI of 1920, were established in July, 1921, in Agra and Mathura Districts. By the end of March 1921, 1,134 Panchayats had come into existence. By the end of March 1922 their number increased to 3,830. By the year 1922, all the Divisions with the exception of Kumaun had a large number of Panchayats. However, the number of Panchayats varied widely from District to District.

The great inter-district variation in the number of Panchayats all over the province was the natural result of the government policy and of the different views taken by the various District Officers when the movement had started. The matter was left entirely to the District Officers who were instructed not to establish more panchayats than they could effectively control. Some were more cautious than others. Special difficulty was
felt in the selection of suitable sarpanches on whom depended to a great measure the just and harmonious working of Panchayats. Further, it was not found easy to understand the simple rules and maintain record Registers. Every stage of progress received the personal attention of District Officers concerned. In most of the districts a Deputy Collector was appointed for this special work. From 5,576 Panchayats in 1922-23, their number rose to 6,104 in the year 1923-24. The population within their area of jurisdiction was about six and a half million.

In spite of the establishment of new Panchayats in various villages, there was a decline in their numbers in later years. For instance the number of Panchayats declined from 4,765 in 1930-31 to 4,180 in 1937-38. This increase and decline in their number continued till 1940-41 when their number rose to 4,733.* The decline in the number of Panchayats was obvious because of their hasty establishment, which resulted in lack of supervision by the tehsil staff. In addition, owing to party feelings and similar other reasons they could not succeed and were, therefore,

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2. Ibid, Paragraph, 115
3. Ibid, paragraph 113
5. Ibid, 1932-33, Chapter II, p.35
discontinued. The slow progress made by the Panchayats shows the apathy of the then Government. Deploiring the slow progress made by the government in the establishment of Panchayats, Iqbal Narain Gupta remarked in the Legislative Council in 1929, "what is needed is that the government should appoint a special officer to organise and establish Panchayats more rapidly. If in seven or eight years, government has been able to establish Panchayats only in less than 4 percent of the villages, it will take this blessed government to have Panchayats all over the provinces in not less than 200 years."

As public opinion was pressing hard for local-self government, Panchayats drew the attention of political leaders also. Gandhiji recommended that rural reconstruction is possible through panchayats. Vinoba Bhava and Rabinder Nath Tagor also held the same view. Some experiments were made at Baroda, Marthandan and Gurgaon. However, a new life was given to Panchayats after the Simon Commission which studied the working of United Provinces Panchayats and remarked in its report published in 1930 that the village Panchayats or Urban board is of special interest and importance as being an attempt to reach the village.

* Lack of means of communication also stood in the way of Government officers in making frequent visits to the villages to supervise and to acquire the knowledge of the defects of the working of village Panchayats and needs of the people; Reports on the working of the District Boards in the United Provinces Agra and Oudh from 1930-31, The Superintendent, Printing and Stationery, Allahabad.

as a unit of self-government. Later on the Government of India Act of 1935 provided opportunity for the establishment of panchayats. In 1937 when the Congress assumed Office, many legislative measures were taken to reconstitute the existing panchayats. In U.P. also the popular ministry was anxious to take up the matter in 1937 although the short span of its life did not allow it to take effective measures. But the ball was set rolling. * A committee was appointed in 1938 under the presidency of A.G. Kher on Local self government. The report of this committee was submitted in 1939. On the basis of this report the bill entitled 'The U.P. Gaon Sukumat Bill of 1942' was introduced in the U.P. legislative assembly on August 15, 1946. It was referred to a select committee which submitted its report on Feb., 1947. The Committee recommended some changes in the bill and also renamed it as 'The Panchayat Raj Bill' as the title of the bill was somewhat misleading. But this could not be discussed during British Raj because of many difficulties, specially, Muslim League Party in the House wishing for the protection of minorities. No doubt all this gave an opportunity to take lead in passing the Panchayat Raj Act, September, 1947.

Meanwhile India got independence on August 15, 1947.

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* See Appendix A showing the progress in establishing Panchayats from 1930-41.
U.P. PANCHAYAT RAJ ACT 1947

This act was an attempt to develop the spirit of self reliance and common endeavour necessary for the prosperity of the masses, who were too much dependent on government support. As the people were aware of the defects of Village Panchayat Act of 1920, this act was designed to satisfy the growing aspirations of the people by removing the defects of the previous Act. It extends to the whole of Uttar Pradesh, and under the Act, every village not included in any Municipal Board, Town Area or Notified Area, irrespective of its size or location has either a Gaon Sabha of its own or has been grouped together with a neighbouring village or villages for forming a Gaon Sabha, consisting of all adult members, whether male or female, ordinarily residing within the area. The Gaon Sabha elects its own Pradhan (President) and Up Pradhan (Vice-President) to preside over the meetings and to perform

1. In 1947, the Act was extended to the whole of Uttar Pradesh (then known as the United Provinces) except the Jaunswar Bawar Pargana of Dehra Dun District and the portion of Mirzapur District, south of Kaimur range; but since 1952 even in these areas the provisions of the Act have been extended. The newly established Panchayats in these areas started their proper functioning with effect from December 15, 1953.

2. Generally, Gaon Sabhas have been established in every village having a population of 1,000 or more and villages were combined if the population fell short of this specified number. The total number of Gaon Sabhas of single village, two villages three or more was 7,920, 7,300, 6,515 and 14,404 respectively. After the amendment, Act XI of 1955 the single village unit system was adopted and accordingly the present number of Gaon Sabhas increased to 72,428.
other important business. It gives a corporate status to each Gaon Sabha by virtue of which, it has perpetual succession and possesses a common seal with a power to acquire, hold, administer and transfer property both moveable and immoveable, to enter into a contract and to sue and be sued. In its half-yearly meetings it passes the budget prepared by its executive body, examines the account of the preceding year, reports on the working of Panchayats and suggests imposition of taxes. In addition the Act provides that a number of Gaon Sabhas can work together, if necessary, in general interest.

A Gaon Panchayat, the executive body of the Gaon Sabha, conducts the village administration with an elected president (Pradhan), Vice-President (Up-pradhan) and members (whose number varies according to population), directly elected on the basis of adult franchise and joint electorate.

1. Section 4 UP Panchayats Raj Act, 1947
2. Quoted from Panchayats in Uttar Pradesh by Dr. (Km) Vijai Lakshmi Purwar, 1960 page 97
3. Pradhan and Up-pradhan of Gaon Sabha are also the ex-poffline Pradhan and Up-pradhan of Gaon Panchayats (sub-clause 2 of section 12 of P.R. Act., 1947
4. Before the Panchayati Raj Amendment Act II of the 1958, the number of members of a Gaon Panchayat could be from 30 to 51 according to the population, but as a result of the Amendment the number of elected members of Panchayats has to be form 15 to 50 prescribed in proportion to the population.
5. It is really a remarkable feature of the U.P.Panchayat Raj Act that it did not recognise the system of communal representation by means of separate electorate which was so strongly demanded by Muslim Community (Specially belonging to the Muslim League Party). Experience has shown that nothing has proved more harmful and pernicious to the well-being and political advancement of the country than the introduction of this baneful system of the communal representation. This communal representation was internationally introduced to prevent the formation of a unified national consciousness.
with reservation of seats for the minority community\(^1\) and schedule castes.\(^2\) Thus the Panchayat established under the Act of 1947, are purely a people's institution, free from official control (so far as appointment of their members is concerned) and any sex discrimination.\(^3\)

1. It may be noted that under the present Amendment Act II of 1958, there is no more reservation of seats for a minority community. 'Minority Community' was defined in sub-clause(i) of section 2 of the Panchayat Raj Act 1947, to mean Muslim or non-Muslim community if according to the latest Government census the total population was not more than 45 percent of the whole population of the area within the jurisdiction of the Gaon Sabha.

2. Section 12(7) dealing with the reservation of seats for the scheduled castes, has been provided with a definite view to safeguard the interests of the scheduled castes and to encourage them to participate in the works of Panchayats. It was apprehended that if such reservation was not given, the Panchayats might tend to overlook the interests of these backward section of society. By the Panchayat Raj Amendment Act II of 1958, provisions have been added in pari with the Constitution of India that Section 17(7) shall cease to have effect on and from the 20th day of January, 1960.

3. It is to be noted that in previous Village Panchayat Act of 1920 a female member was not deemed eligible to become a Panch, but no such distinction is made under the present Act.
The system of Panchayats Adalat was also introduced under this Act. For the first time in the history of our organised legal system, democratic opinion had been given the right to express itself on the suitability of a particular person for an office in the village court i.e. Panchayati Adalat, members of which are popularly elected.¹

To help the Gaon Sabha in carrying out its activities the Gaon fund was introduced. The Act made provision for a Gaon Fund.² The various sources which constitute the Gaon fund are taxes and fees imposed by Panchayats², sums credited to Gaon Fund under the order of a court, sums paid by way of compounding fee,³ sale proceeds of dust, dirt, dung or refuse including the dead bodies of animals collected by the servants of Gaon Panchayats (but not the sale proceeds of sweeping and refuse of village to which a private person is entitled), such portion of the rent or other proceeds of nazul property, as the State Government may direct to be placed to the credit of the Gaon Fund, sums contributed by any District Board, or other local authority sums assigned by the State Government, and sums received from the collection of taxes and other dues for proprietors.⁴

¹. : section 39 of Panchayati Raj Act U.P.
². Before the Second Panchayat Elections, the members of Panchayati Adalats were purely elected, but after the Amendment Act II of 1955, a better method of appointment of Panches has been adopted, by which a fixed number of Panches of prescribed qualifications are nominated by the prescribed authority out of the panel of persons popularly elected by Gaon Sabha, the remaining persons then form the executive body i.e., the Gaon Panchayat.
³. Ibid, Section 37 and Rules 220, 223.
⁴. Ibid, Section 24.
All this indicates that the U.P. Panchayat Raj Act is a definite improvement on the Village Panchayats Act of 1920. It can be said as the right step in the direction of conferring substantial rights on the people living in village.

DEMOCRATIC DECENTRALISATION IN UTTAR PRADESH

After the Mehta Committee report, the government of Uttar Pradesh gave a serious thought to introduce democratic decentralization. In the beginning the government decided to make Zila Parisad the vital link in the process of Democratic Decentralisation. Thus an ordinance was promulgated on April 29, 1958 which was later on replaced by the 'Uttar Pradesh Antarim Zila Parishad Act' assented by the Governor on August 22, 1958. In this way the Antarim Zila Parishad took over the functions of existing District Boards and District Planning Committees.

In 1959 the Zila Parishad bill was introduced in the legislature. After the passing of this bill known as 'Uttar Pradesh Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam' 1961, Uttar Pradesh Government committed itself to the task of democratic decentralization in the State. No doubt the Panchayat Raj Act of 1947, the Uttar Pradesh Zamindari
Abolition and Land Reforms Act 1951 had done the spade work in strengthening the concept of Democratic Decentralization, the 1961 Act can be said the last cementing force to establish perfect foundation for the same after about two centuries of Central Administration by the alien government.

The Third Five Year Plan of Uttar Pradesh introduced necessary changes to implement the programmes by establishing three-tier Institutions with Zila Parishad at the apex level, Kshettra Samiti at the centre and village panchayat at the base. This plan laid down the following objectives of Democratic Decentralisation.

1. Panchayat Samiti and Panchayat should make the effort to mobilise local manpower and other resources and services available at the right time according to the accepted programmes and preventing losses due to waste or mis-application of funds should be emphasized and nothing should be done to blur this chain of responsibility;

2. Panchayat Samitis and Panchayats should give special attention to measures for raising the level of living of the less privileged sections to the level of other sections in the community.

3. Panchayat Samitis and Panchayats should place their main emphasis on increasing agricultural production;

The Uttar Pradesh Panchayat Raj Act, 1947 gave statutory sanction for the organization of Panchayats while the Uttar Pradesh Kshettria Samitis and Zila Parishad Adhiniyam 1961 provided for the other two tiers at the Block level known as Kshettra Samiti and District level known as Zila Parishad as shown in the chart given on page 78.
CHART No. 1
PANCHAYATI RAJ SYSTEM
ZILA PARISHAD
(District)

Presidents of Panchayat Samitis & Co-opted Members

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KSHETRA SAMITI
(Block)

(Sub-Committee) Sub-Committee (Sub-committee)
Karyakarini Utpadan Kalyan Samiti
Samiti

VILLAGE PANCHAYATI
(Village or Group of Villagers)

16-31 Members elected directly by voters

GRAM SABHA

Adult residents in the Village Panchayat area.
The Uttar Pradesh Panchayat Raj Act provides that there shall be a Gram Sabha in every village or group of villages having a population of not less than 1000. The membership of the Sabha in Uttar Pradesh is restricted to those adult members whose names exist in the register of members of Gram Sabha. Persons who may be otherwise qualified to be members but whose names are not entered in the members register are not members and are not entitled to be elected as Pradhans.  

* In Aligarh the formation of Panchayats is divided into four stages, first for every village with a population of 500 - 1000, second for villages with a population between 1000 - 2000, third villages with a population 2000 - 3000, fourth for villages with a population of 3000 - 4000.

The Uttar Pradesh Panchayat Raj Act, 1947 has laid down certain qualifications for holding office of Gram Sabha or Nayaya Panchayat which are as follows:

1) if he is for the time being not a member of the Gram Sabha concerned;
2) holds any office of profit under a state government or the central government or a local authority (other than Gram Sabha or Nayaya Panchayat);
3) is a salaried servant of Gram Sabha or Nayaya Panchayat;
4) has been dismissed from the service of a state government, the Central Government or a local authority of a Nayaya Panchayat for misconduct;
5) is in arrears of any tax, fee or rate due by him to the Gram Sabha;
6) is suffering from leprosy;
7) is an undischarged insolvent;
8) has been convicted of an offence involving moral turpitude;
9) has been ordered to give security for good behaviour (under section 10-D or 110 of the code of criminal proceedings, 1898);
10) has been sentenced to imprisonment for a term exceeding six months;
11) is convicted of an election offence;
12) is convicted under the U.P. Removal of Social Disabilities Act 1947, or the Untouchability Offences Act, 1955;
13) is blind or dumb.

According to the Uttar Pradesh Panchayat Raj Act, the Gram Sabha meetings should be held twice in a year - one at the harvest of 'Rabi' and the other on 'Kharif' harvest.

1. U.P. Panchayat Raj Amendment Act, 1955, op. cit., section 5A.
Over and above this a special meeting can be called on the requisition of 1/5th members in a prescribed manner. Except for adjourned meeting a quorum of 1/5th of the total membership is necessary.

**GRAM PANCHAYAT**

Gram Panchayat is the basic unit of local government. It is a statutory body embracing one or more villages with an average population of 1,500 and an average area of about six square miles. The members of Gram Panchayat are elected by entire adult population of the village, generally through secret ballot. In addition to the elected persons some seats are reserved for schedule caste, schedule tribes and women.

Gram Panchayat is the executive committee of Gram Sabha as directed by the Uttar Pradesh Panchayat Raj Act, 1947. The Panchayat with 16 to 31 members is a directly elected body. Before 1960, the members of Gram Panchayats were elected by show of hands and Pradhans were elected by ballot paper. According to a recent amendment now Panchayat elections are to be held under secret ballot, throughout the State.
The scheduled castes are given representation in the Panchayats and seats are reserved for scheduled castes and tribes in proportion to their population. Women have also come forward to participate in the working of Panchayats, though there is no special provision of their representation in the Act at this level. It calls for an amendment of the Act to reserve at least two seats for women members in order to encourage their active participation in the administrative and welfare activities at the village level.

PANCHAYAT SAMITI

The middle organisation working at the block level is known as Kshettra Samiti in Uttar Pradesh. The Uttar Pradesh Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam 1961 provides that the Government may constitute Kshettra Samiti for a specified Khand (Block area) by notification. It is also provided that every Kshettra Samiti is a corporate body having perpetual succession and common seal. However it is subject to any restriction or qualification imposed by any other enactment on the power to acquire and dispose of property and to enter into contracts. No doubt its position as a corporate body to sue or be sued is unchanged.

The administration of all these blocks is in accordance with the Adhiniyam.
Each Khand covers different number of Gram Panchayats under it. Although, the number of members in each Kshettra Samiti is different throughout Uttar Pradesh, but the general composition is more or less the same. Kshettra Samitis, in most cases, are indirectly elected; Pradhans of the constituent Panchayats being its members.

There is provision for cooption or reservation for women, scheduled castes and Schedule Tribes and for special interests like cooperative societies and banks. The M.L.A.s representing the constituencies of which the Panchayat Samitis form part, are ex-officio members generally without voting rights. The term of Panchayat Samitis is concurrent with that of Panchayats. Its President and Vice-President respectively called Pramukh and Up-Pramukh, are selected from amongst the elected members. The composition of Kshettra Samiti is as follows: 1

1. All Pradhans of constituent Gaon Sabhas;
2. Chairman of each town area committee and President of each notified area committee within Khand;
3. One representative of block unions and cooperative societies;
4. All members of Zila Parishad elected under section 18;
5. Local M.P.s., M.LAs and M.L.Gs.;

The following are coopted members:

1. Persons, not exceeding two, interested in planning and development;
2. Women up to a maximum of five;
3. Members of Schedule Castes not exceeding eight.

The Panchayat or Kshettra Samiti according to the Act has given powers to enter into contacts which may be necessary for any purpose of this Act.¹

1) All public buildings of every description which have been constructed or are maintained out of the Kshettra Samiti;
2) All public roads which have been constructed or maintained out of the Kshettra Nidhi and the stones and other materials implements provided for such roads;
3) All land and other property transferred to the Kshettra Samiti by Government or by gift, seal or otherwise for local purposes; and
4) All tanks and wells and all adjacent lands, buildings, materials and things connected therewith or appertaining thereto within the Khand, not being private property and being maintained or controlled by Government or by a local authority other than Antarim Zila Parishad.

Each and every Block has been covered by one Kshettra Samiti which looks after the administrative and developmental activities of this Khand. The Kshettra Samitis is generally an indirectly elected body; Pradhans of the constituent panchayats being its members. Thus every village is represented.

¹ UP Kshettra Samitis, and Zila Parishad Adhiniyam, op.cit., Sub-section 3, of section 5.
COMPOSITION OF ZILA PARISHAD IN UTTAR PRADESH

The members of Zila Parishad are in most cases, indirectly elected. According to the Adhiniyam, 1961, the composition of Zila Parishad in Uttar Pradesh shall be as follows:

Ex-Officio

1. All Premukhs of Kshettra Samitis established in the District are members of Zila Parishad
2. Members of the Parliament from the district;
3. M.L.A.s. from the district;
4. All members of the council of the State (M.L.C.) who have their residence in the district;
5. The District Collector (a non-voting member);
6. Presidents of all municipal boards in the district;

By Nomination

7. Members chosen by the Kshettra Samiti out of its members in the prescribed manner. In this connection the State Governments have specified the number of persons which each Samiti shall chose as members of the Zila Parishad concerned

* The UP Govt has superseded all the Zila Parishads working in the State through an ordinance. The Zila Parishad will remain suspended till necessary and suitable amendments are made in the Act. These Parishads functioned in 51 out of 54 districts of the State, the three remaining districts of Uttarkashi, Pithoragarh and Chamli in the border region still having Antarim Zila Parishads, bodies formed in 1956 all over the State as predecessor to the formation of full fledged Zila Parishads, following the dissolution of the district boards, which had come into existence as early as in 1914. By the ordinance promulgated on March 23, 1970 declaring the presidents, the Vice-Presidents and the members of Zila Parishad ceased holding office and their functions are discharged by the District Magistrates. However to preserve the development of the democratic values, it is desirable that the new Act is passed in the light of the present trends, as soon as possible and the various developmental programmes are planned and implemented through these representative bodies not through the bureaucratic machinery of the government.
By-Co-Option

The following persons shall be coopted as members of the Zila Parishad in the manner prescribed by Government:

a) so many women as will bring their number, including the women member, if any, mentioned in sub-section (1) to three in case of district having not more than seven khandas and five in the case of any district; and

b) so many persons belonging to Schedule castes, if any among the members mentioned in sub-section (1), which shall neither be less nor more than three in the case of district having seven khandas or less and in case of a district having more than seven khandas, the number of such members, shall not be less than five or more than ten.

The total number of members under sub-section (1) of section 18 shall not be less than twenty. No person whose name is not registered as an elector in the assembly rolls from the district, or is disqualified under section 26 or any other provision of the Act, shall be chosen a member.

The composition and the number of members of the Zila Parishad in Aligarh District is as follows. This indicates the pattern which is more or less the same throughout Uttar Pradesh.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Members</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Adhyaksha Zila Parishad</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Parmukhs of Kshettra Samitis</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Members chosen by each Samiti out of its members</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Presidents of Municipal Boards</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Local M.Ps</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. M.LAs</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. M.L.Cs</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Shakari Samiti's members</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Women Members</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Members nominated by State Government</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Representative from Scheduled Castes</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total number of members.** 69
Panchayati Raj and Gandhian Impact

Gandhiji favoured a 'stateless and classless society' in which every one is his own ruler. However Gandhiji himself regarded these ideas as utopian and realized the impracticability of such a society. Hence he advocated a society based on non-violence which can be achieved only by having self-governing village communities. These ideas were embodied in the January 1946 and January 1948 plans submitted by Gandhiji to the Committee charged with the framing of a constitution of the Congress party. In these plans Gandhiji suggested to the Congress an organisation based on nation-wide panchayats. He had already helped, in 1939, in drafting the Constitution of Audh (a princely state) based on panchayat system with an indirectly elected government hierarchy leading upward to a paternal Prince.

Gandhiji's principle was, "Violence logically leads to centralisation, the essence of non-violence is decentralisation". He wanted that self-sufficient and self-governing villages should be the basic units of public administration in free India. These primary political units should elect, by adult suffrage, a panchayat, ordinarily of five persons, for a period of three years. The functions of the
Panchayats should be comprehensive, covering almost all aspects of social, economic and political life of the village community, so that village can enjoy a large measure of local autonomy. They should have administrative control over all the employed personnel. They should also assess and collect land revenue, provide cheap and speedy justice, education, recreation and medical facilities and supervise co-operative farming, irrigation and khadi and village industries.

Gandhiji had further elaborated the concept and suggested that to guide, advise, supervise the work of lower panchayats and to perform functions of a local nature, there should be taluka (tehsil), district, provincial and national panchayats connected with one another, the president of the all India Panchayat should be the head of the state and government. "There are seven hundred thousand villages in India, each of which" hoped Gandhiji, "would be organised according to the will of the citizens, all of them voting. Then there would be seven hundred thousand votes. Each village in other words would have one vote. The villagers would elect the district administration; the district administration would elect the provincial administration and these in turn would elect the president who is the head of the executive". He would have the power to appoint

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ministers from outside the membership of All India Panchayat, who would be responsible for defence, currency, customs, running of key industries and coordinating economic development plans. Thus Gandhiji envisaged complete political and administrative decentralisation at the village level, with an indirectly elected government at the top. 3

Gandhiji also desired that the gram panchayats be entrusted with the judicial work so that there was no wastage of time and energy in litigation. This, he said, would result in simple, prompt and cheap administration and would give a 'just' system. He was against multiplicity of courts, as according to him, that had given an expensive, time-consuming and complicated system of justice, had capped the morale of the people and had promoted dishonesty and falsehood. Clearly, he also envisaged a decentralised administration of justice. 2

The members of the Constituent Assembly, however, did not favour the plan to base the constitution on the village and its panchayats and erecting upon them a super-structure of indirect, decentralised government. On the other hand after a careful consideration the Assembly preferred a parliamentary form of government. 1

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1. Ibid page 3.
2. Ibid pages 3 & 4.
favouring an atomic society in which individual is the
base; instead of communitarian society. The drafting
committee thus did not make any mention of the panchayats.
Dr. Rajendra Prasad wrote to Sir B.N. Rau in May 1948
that the constitution should begin from village and go
up to the centre. But this was rejected by Sri Rau due
to its impracticability. Gandhi also wrote about it
in the Harijan saying that "there is no mention of village
panchayats and decentralisation in the fore-shadowed
constitution. It is certainly an omission calling for
immediate attention, if our independence is to reflect
the people's voice. The greater the number of Panchayats
the better for the people."\(^1\) This was violently questioned
by the pilot of the new constitution "That the village
Panchayats have survived" argued, Dr. Ambedkar, "through
all vicissitudes may be a fact. But mere survival has no
value. The question is on what plane they have survived.
Surely on a low, on a selfish level. I hold these village
republics have been the ruination of India. I am, there-
fore, surprised that those who condemn provincialism and
communalism should come forward as champions of the
villages. What is the village but a sink of localism,
a den of ignorance, narrow mindedness and communalism.
I am glad that the draft constitution has discarded the
villages and adopted the individual as its unit.\(^2\)

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1. S.N. Agrwala, "Village Panchayats in the ancient India
Constitution" Modern Review, February,
1951, page 367.

2. C.A.D., VII. page 38.
The language is strong and represents the sentiments of those who did not share the Gandhian view on the subject. But the viewpoint of the protagonists of the village Panchayats could not be ignored altogether. So a Directive principle of the state policy was added. At the time of the discussion of the non-justiciable Directive Principles of State Policy most of the members spoke in favour of the development of village panchayats. None of these members, however, sought to make panchayats, the basis of indirect and decentralised system of government as envisaged by Gandhiji. They argued the cause for the development of the village panchayats only within the framework of the parliamentary form of Government. Moving an amendment for inclusion of new clause, 31-A, in the Draft Constitution, Shri K. Santhanam, supported by others stressed that the State should take steps to organise panchayats so that they might serve as an instrument for village uplift, development of rural economy and of local self-government. It was in the light of these arguments that Dr. Ambedkar and the Assembly accepted the addition of the new clause, which took the form of Article 40 of the Constitution. The Article reads "The State shall take to organise village Panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government." Then was followed a somewhat confusing order in which things happened. "First breaking the historic village communities, second Community Development Programme for communities so broken up or
are breaking up; third when the Community Development Programme failed, to give power to the communities, whose communitarian spirit was becoming fast a thing of the past? 1

The Panchayati Raj in the form and content as seen today owe its origin to the report of the Balwant Ray Nahta Committee appointed to evolve and evaluate the functioning of the Community Development Programme and the structure that would be appropriate for its effective working. The organisation of Panchayati Raj is not identical with the organisation of Panchayats as envisaged in the constitution. The present day panchayats far from being "units of self-government" have been degenerated to the rank of mere executive agencies of the strong Sanitis or Zila Parishads. "There can be no doubt that the stability and security of the Indian democracy depended largely on the successful functioning of village panchayats which have to become its real back bone. But the fact is that the village panchayats today are nowhere near that position and it is doubtful whether they in near future develop themselves to assure such a role".2

What has been the impact of the new forces released by the Panchayati Raj set up, is a separate discussion but one thing is quite obvious - it is not relevant to talk about the historical continuity of the village communities and to compare the present secular and democratic rural institutions with the so called autonomous ancient republic whose autonomy was the natural expression of the conditions of an age having no proper means of communications. More than that it was the autonomy for the higher caste that used it to maintain an effective control over the lower castes especially the untouchables. The 'village council' called the Panchayat is an old traditional heritage of India no doubt, but the modern concept of Panchayati Raj is not a copy of the ancient 'village council' which was undemocratic, communal and caste ridden organisation.

The planned development of a socialist rural India called for an organisational set up, which came into being as Panchayati Raj of the modern age of parliamentary democracy, which is neither a historical product, nor a Gandhian heritage.

1. A. PiIsen, "Panchayati Raj some defects", The B. Times, 21-10-69
2. M.V. Pylee, "Constitutional Govt. in India", Asia Pub. House p.16
Democratic decentralisation and the task ahead:

The 'village council' called the panchayat, is an old traditional heritage of India. But the modern concept of Panchayati Raj is not a copy of the ancient 'village council' which was undemocratic, communal and caste-ridden organisation. It is the product of modern democracy which came into being to serve the various ends. Mr. K.S.V.Raman has listed three different objects of Panchayati Raj:

1. As a vital part in the building up of the right relations between the individual and his community through introduction of self-management of problems of his community, a sense of participation in his society and the political education of the villager in the citizenship of his country;

2. As a method of establishing local self governing agencies for governments, in order to vitalize and expand the machinery of public administration for the purposes of enormously expanded tasks of a welfare government in working out a planned economy;

3. As a political stunt, partly for diverting the attention of the public from the serious lapses in administration, the intention being not the delegation of real power to

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1. 'Krukehetra', Director, Publications Division, Patiala House, New Delhi 1, October 1962, page 46.
people at large, but to regain the hold of the political party down to the village - the hold that some parties have lost.

OBJECT OF PANCHAYAT RAJ

These divergent views illustrate the nature of the problems in evaluating Panchayati Raj its aims and impact on rural India. However, the following aims of Panchayati Raj are well known, and non controversial:

1. **Democratic base**

   Democracy derives its authority from the individual and thus decentralisation is a pre-requisite to the success of democracy. In a country like India where more than 82 percent of the population lives in villages democracy cannot succeed without strengthening democratic system at the grass roots. It was felt that the parliamentary democracy in India (at the centre and states) has failed in arousing the enthusiasm of the people. The Committee on Plan Project has rightly pointed out that "It is not theory or dogma which is impelling us to make these recommendations, but practical considerations. Democracy has to function through certain executive machinery but the democratic government operating over large areas through its executive machinery can not adequately appreciate local needs and
circumstances. Thus in view of the committee the Panchayat Raj is an attempt to devise a method of bringing the democratic government to the doors of the people. In other words Panchayat Raj is the 'primary school of democracy'.

In the context of India, where Britishers have left a traditional bureaucratic system of administration unsuitable for a democratic set up it was all the more important to keep the rural life active in order to overcome the problem of moral, social and cultural degeneration in the society. With the introduction of Parliamentary government at the top, the higher level administration had become responsible to the elected ministers and through them to the Legislatures and ultimately to the people. But the district administration remained more or less untouched. Its power was further enhanced by the inauguration of the era of planned development. Panchayat Raj, thus is an attempt in the direction of democratizing the district administration. Through Panchayat Raj the interest of the rural folk has been kept alive by providing them an opportunity to take the responsibility of taking decisions and supervising its implementation. The need for such an agency was felt during the first plan when planners and beneficiaries were seen poles apart. Thus the second five year plan (1956-1961) felt the need for orientation of the district administration and suggested fast strengthening of the people's bodies at the local levels.

The success of a democratic government lies in its leadership as without enlightened leadership neither effective policies can be framed nor implemented. The leadership for the top cannot be developed through lectures in schools or Colleges. This can be done through participation at lower level i.e. local self-government, which provides working knowledge about the democratic government and strengthens the abilities of the trainees and enables them to take positions in the state legislatures and Parliament according to their capabilities.

Dr. S.K. Dey viewed Panchayati Raj as an important event, linking the individual with the universe. In the sphere of national democracy he visualised an organic and intimate relationship between Gram Sabha and Lok Sabha. He maintains that "Panchayati Raj will grow thus to be a way of life and a new approach to government as against a unit of government. It will bring about a complete link up of our people from the Gram Sabha to the Lock Sabha."

As an instrument of social change:

Rural India is wedded to an undemocratic system of feudalism, casteism and traditional hierarchy. Village life has been conditioned to stagnant and a
backward outlook. The caste ridden communities do not permit rapid growth. Their fatalist outlook rather help them content, with whatever they get and thus people lack initiative and push needed for the economic change and social transformation. Under these circumstances any right type of political, economic and social leadership, which may guide the newly independent India cannot be developed. It was thus necessary to bring change in the society by shaking the foundation of these evils which were created by the feudal lords or capitalists to serve their interest. No doubt Panchayati Raj cannot succeed on the face of these deep rooted evils in a limited period but it can bring a silent revolution in the thinking of the masses and can strengthen the weaker sections of the society. Therefore, the Panchayat Raj should be viewed as a basic institution for social change which is necessary for breaking stagnation in the society.

Economic Revolution:

The social change is bound to create economic awareness while economic uplift helps in bringing social reforms. Panchayati Raj equally encourages both the activities and help them simultaneously. The cooperative
movement is now working under the guidance of Panchayats. The service cooperatives, Cooperative Farming Societies and various other Agricultural credit and non-credit societies, working in the villages (although run by the elected Managing Committees) finance the agriculturists in accordance with the production plan prepared in consultation with the Panchayats. The rural uplift programme is based on the successful implementation of the cooperative plans. During the Fourth Five Year Plan the Central and State Governments propose to spend Rs.246 crores on the development of Cooperative Agricultural Sector. Besides, Central Assistance, Institutional agencies like commercial banks and the Agricultural Refinance corporations are expected to finance agricultural cooperatives. The Land Mortgage Banks will also invest crores of rupees during the Fourth Plan. During 1970-71 they are expected to lend Rs.150 crores on a long term basis. The programme of agricultural development is to be accompanied by a programme of rural industrialisation. If all the investment for economic development goes in the right direction, under the guidance of Panchayats the rural India will mark a tremendous change.

As an agency of a welfare state, India is wedded to the establishment of a Welfare state which can be achieved by accelerating the tempo of

progress in all the different fields of activities.

This is possible when the beneficiaries of developmental activities are given an opportunity to plan for progress and execute the plan. The Directive principle of the constitution under article 40 about the establishment of Panchayats coupled with other programmes of Welfare State, such as right to work, to public assistance, to raise the level of nutrition and the standard of living, equal wages for workers and free and compulsory education for children etc, explains that the goals of Panchayati Raj are identical with our plans. Panchayati Raj as an agency of the state is closely allied with planned development and is visualised as an improvement in the process of economic development to utilise local resources and man power, through local institutions for the execution of plans. 

Panchayati Raj and Developmental Activities:

The first five year plan earmarks the modern independent India from the rest of her history. In order to

1. Panchayati Raj, Planning and Democracy, Edited by M.V. Mathur and Iqbal Narain, p.262.
develop the economy of the country and boost food production
the 'Grow More Food Campaign' was strengthened, Cooperative
Movement was revitalised and later on community Development
programme, Intensive Agricultural District Programme etc., were
implemented under the plan. In fact Community Development
programme embraces all the activities undertaken previously
under various other programmes of rural uplift. For example,
the primary objects of Grow More Food campaign was to increase
production which is also the main activity under Community
Development programme. It is a matter of degree and not of
kind which separates these programmes from one another. One
had limited objectives and therefore, taken into account the
results of limited activities while the other is broad based
and visualises the achievements in broad perspective. Likewise
Cooperative Movement helps the development programmes in the
achievement of their objectives by providing financial help.

The purpose of Panchayat Raj was, in fact, to take
care of the implementation of the Community Development
Programme. It was expected that the Community Development
programme would instill a new enthusiasm among the people and
break their traditional indifference. Once the people's
participation was assured, a systematic process of self-
sufficient automatic growth could begin. However, from the
very beginning, the villagers looked upon the programmes as one
of the many schemes of the Government and the official agencies
found to their dismay that the desired response and cooperation
from the people was not forthcoming. The members of the Adhoc Committees, district official and other agencies utterly failed in attracting the village people to participate in the gigantic programme of rural uplift. As the country's fortune was at stake, therefore, a Study Team was appointed by the Committee on Plan Projects to study various aspects of the Community Development Programme with a view to economy and efficiency. The recommendations of this committee gave birth to the idea of Democratic Decentralisation i.e. the modern concept of Panchayat Raj. Thus the organisation of Panchayati Raj followed the Community Development work. Moreover, Panchayati Raj has been developed in such a way which indicates that it has followed the steps of Community Development Programme. It recognised the importance of village Panchayats to initiate the work, Block Samitis to look into the work of Blocks and Zila Parishad for the over all development within a district. India is in fact a collective name of more than 5.5 lakhs villages which are scattered over plains, dense forests, mountains, snowy peaks and deserted lands, not well connected by means of communication; unexposed to the modern world and still surviving, as independent, self contained units.

The message of freedom and its fruits cannot be shared by them until and unless they are provided the amenities which are the privilege of a free nation. Panchayat’s supremacy cannot be doubted or challenged in this field. The desire to work mostly depends on the ability to work which demands the basic necessities fulfilled. Facilities like pure water, medical facilities, education and reasonable wages are some of the factors which can create desire to work. Panchayats have the capabilities of doing all this. Nehru rightly emphasised that Panchayati Raj bodies should assume the responsibility of looking after the needs of every one in the village and thus become an insurance against illness, unemployment and other disabilities. The study group on the welfare of the weaker sections of the society (1961) also placed the responsibility of their uplift on Panchayati Raj. This is quite natural. Because the government cannot reach to each and every individual family and remedy its problems.

In fact the Panchayati Raj is in a way a transfer of programme of Community Development to the local bodies, as the agencies for the achievement of its aim.

Dr. S.K. Dey has summarised this in saying that

‘Community Development is the end and Panchayati

Raj is the means. Thus Panchayati Raj can be viewed as an institutional device to carry the Community Development, giving it new financial dimension, yet with all its basic objectives remaining unaltered. No doubt Panchayati Raj has other functions too which may change with the tempo of economic development and political changes.

Conceptually speaking Panchayati Raj may be treated as an improvement over the community development movement in more than one ways - firstly, Panchayati Raj basically remains a character of rural local government - secondly Panchayati Raj is broader and far more comprehensive in objective than community development programme. The triple objectives of Panchayati Raj are modernization, politicization and democratization, while community development programme embodies in itself, at best, a preparatory stage for modernization.

In the context of these objectives the next chapter deals with the comparative study of the administrative machinery, designed for the effective realisation of these broad objectives.

1. For details see Panchayati Raj, Planning and democracy edited by V.M.Mathur and Iqbal Nair, Asia Publishing House, New Delhi.
In the previous chapter a detailed study of the development of Panchayati Raj in India has been made. For a better understanding of this system it is necessary to discuss the different organisational patterns adopted in different states of India and their suitability in the context of economic, social and political set up of the state. "In fact our country is so large and Panchayati Raj is so complex a subject with far reaching consequences that there is enough scope for trying out various patterns and alternatives. What is most important is the genuine transfer of power to the people. If this is ensured the form and pattern may necessarily vary according to conditions prevailing in different States." \(^1\)

At the third meeting of the Central Council of Local Self Government, held in September, 1957 Shri V.N. Sharma, the Minister of Local self-government, Uttar Pradesh did not support the cause of making the block as the main unit of developmental administration. He argued "In my state there will be nearly 866 blocks. Now if I were to deal with these

\(^1\) Central Council of Local Self Government, 1959, Government of India, New Delhi.
blocks, I do not think I will be able to guide them
and really give them that kind of education which they
require. We shall, therefore, have to evolve another
agency between the state and these blocks, because
these blocks would be too many and we will not be able
to get sufficient good personnel to correctly guide and
administer these units — we are thinking that the district
boards should be made more effective, the name may be
changed, that is immaterial, but the district board should
be made more vital. It should be given greatest powers.
The work of planning must be entrusted to the district
boards. In fact many other things which we are doing today
at the state level may be perhaps safely handed over to them."
Similar views were expressed by spokesmen of some other
states, specially Bombay.¹

While advocating an advisory body at the district
level, the Mehta Committee had left the pattern to be evolved
to each state, giving due consideration to the view points
of U.P. Bombay states, and had remarked that a very strong
executive body may also be created by some States according
to their local conditions. The Team observed: "These
recommendations give over-all picture of the machinery which
was considered essential for democratic decentralisation,
which alone can lead to effective rural development. Some

¹. For detail see the proceedings of the third meeting of c.c.
of India, New Delhi.
of the State Governments have, however, expressed the view that in the circumstances obtained in their states they consider it advisable and convenient to devolve power on to a local body whose jurisdiction is as large as a district. While we are convinced that devolution to a smaller body would be the most effective method of democratic decentralisation, we do not refuse to visualise similar devolution to a district body indeed. Accordingly many States appointed Committees to recommend suitable patterns and the result is a bewildering variety of patterns in different states.

The Naik Committee for Maharashtra State advocated a strong executive body at the district level with Panchayat Samiti working merely as an executive committee of the Zila Parishad. It recommended that the Samiti should carry out the Community Development Programme and all other development activities proposed for that area by the district body. The funds for intensive development as well as district funds should be transferred by the Zila Parishad to the Panchayat Samiti. Accordingly the Zila Parishad has been given powers and functions with complete administrative

machinery which would result in eliminating the overlapping, duplication and diffused responsibilities of various district level departments.

The Pareekh Committee of Gujarat State observed that "in view of the responsibilities which are being discharged by the statutory bodies, in different fields at the district level, it would be a retrograde step to abolish them and to create in their place only advisory for supervision and coordination at the district level." The Committee was in favour of the system of democratic decentralisation which should incorporate the good points of all the institutions carrying on developmental activities at the district level. It recommended the establishment of a strong popular body at the district level with duties, responsibilities and resources, of all the then existing bodies of the district level and delegation of adequate powers, necessary financial resources and such other administrative responsibilities as may be feasible at that level.

In Rajasthan the Sadiq Ali Committee\(^2\) analysed the working of Panchayati Raj and advocated certain original executive functions to be entrusted to the Zila Parishad instead of its merely functioning as an advisory and coordinating body. Also the process in which Panchayat Samiti

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submits its budget to the Zila Parishad should not be superfluous but that the recommendation of the Zila Parishad should be binding on the Panchayat Samiti. The Chief Executive Officer of the Zila Parishad should work under the administrative control of the Zila Parishad Chairman who should write the Executive Officer's character roll. Adequate powers and resources should be entrusted to the Zila Parishad for certain original executive functions and for this purpose district level officers should be transferred under the Zila Parishad. The Chief Executive Officer should have complete control over the Zila Parishad staff with disciplinary powers. The advice and guidance of the Zila Parishad should be extended to the other tiers of Panchayati Raj through the agency of officials and non-officials functionaries. The Collector was visualised as a link between the Zila Parishad and other district departments.

The Ram Murthy Committee⁷ while studying the then existing pattern in Uttar Pradesh recommended enlarging of powers of the Zila Parishad so as to include agricultural activities and promotion of small scale industries. It was in favour of entrusting the Zila Parishad with certain executive functions and not merely nominal control over the

other tiers of Panchayati Raj. It felt that the
power of disbursement of loans should be solely given
to the Zila Parishad. It was in favour of completely
entrusting the executive functions to the officials and
that the Chief Executive Officer should be an IAS Officer.
As to the resources, it recommended powers of levying
taxes to the Zila Parishad.

The most recent report regarding pattern of
district level bodies is that of Raju Committee1 by the
Andhra Pradesh Government. Raju Committee has evolved a
new body called Zila Development Board, consisting of the
Collector who should be the Chairman, the Zila Parishad
Chairman—a member, and the Secretary of Zila Parishad should
be the Secretary of Zila Development Board. It suggested
that the Board should be responsible for the over-all
economic growth of the district and has to formulate as
well implement the programmes. Thus the key-role has been
assigned to the Collector for better coordination and close
watch on the implementation of the programmes. The powers
that the Zila Parishad at present enjoys are in no way
curtailed. At the district head-quarters a complete
statistics of plans and targets of achievements is to be

1. Report of the Committee Constituted to Examine the Question
   of Organisation of District Administration, M.T. Raju,
   Chairman, Hyderabad, 1967.
kept and revised by the Minister concerned frequently. This pattern of Community Development administration closely resembles the Malaysian pattern. To assist the Collector in the revenue and other matters, a senior scale IAS Officer to be called Additional Collector has been recommended. The Zila Parishad and Panchayat Samitis will be responsible for the implementation of the schemes included in the district plan falling within their purview. It would mainly relate to agricultural and industrial production.

The other subjects handled by the Zila Parishad - such as, education, health and social welfare, etc., do not fall within the purview of the Development Board. Agriculture, Cooperation, Panchayati Raj and Industries Department at the district level will be functioning under the Collector as the head of these departments.

It is significant that all these committees recommended a strong body at the district level with lower constituent bodies at different other levels. This is due to many reasons put forward by them. The main arguments are, that, the district provides a much better unit for planning, and historically local bodies have been in existence at the district level and it would be easier to replace them by a district-level body. Moreover Block as a unit was regarded as too small to be entrusted with economic planning. Therefore,
in every State some role has been assigned to Zila Parishads at the district level. But so far as the detailed features related to the composition, functions and resources assigned to each of the three tiers of Panchayati Raj bodies in different states are concerned there exist a wide variety. A classification of the existing patterns can be made under four broad categories.¹

1. Rajasthan pattern
2. Maharashtra pattern
3. Andhra Pradesh pattern
4. Gujrat pattern.

The main features of the above four patterns are given below:

Rajasthan pattern: The pattern is more or less based on the recommendations of Mehta Committee. Panchayat Samiti at the block level is responsible for all developmental work. Acting through Panchayats, Samitis provide services to the Panchayats covering almost every aspect of life of the area. They supervise the activities of Panchayats, especially the execution of all developmental schemes relating to agriculture, animal husbandry, industries, cooperation, public health, sanitation, medical relief, relief of distressed people.

and welfare of weaker sections, supply of drinking water etc. The object is to hand over gradually more and more activities related to the block sphere and at present undertaken by the various departments, to Panchayat Samitis. To enable the Samitis and Panchayats to carry out these obligations, necessary funds have to be provided to them from government revenue. The Samitis are also entitled to a certain percentage of land revenue and are empowered to levy taxes to augment their resources. The lists of taxes to be levied by Samitis and Panchayats are separate.

Panchayat Samiti consists of all the directly elected presidents of the village panchayats in its area, in addition to representatives of special interests, e.g. agriculture, women folk, scheduled castes and tribes etc. Members of Panchayat Samitis have also the right to co-opt.

The Chairman (Pradhan) and Vice-Chairman (Up Pradhan) of Panchayat Samiti are elected by the members of the Samiti. The Samiti functions through functional sub-committees; their minimum number being three. They have to look after particularly the production programmes, social services and finance, taxes and administration.

Panchayat Samitis are given full freedom in framing the budget and formulating the plans for development. They are expected to make full use of the administrative and
technical assistance provided by the various state departments. In the technical matters the decision of the technical departments is final.

Once the decision is taken by the Samiti its execution becomes the responsibility of the executive, headed by Vikas Adhikari, who is assisted by the team of extension officers.

The most important role is to be played by Vikas Adhikari. He has to deal with different groups of people and is expected to make available his administrative skill to the non-official members without influencing their decisions.

The Sarpanch of a Panchayat works as its executive officer.

Zila Parishad consists of the Pradhans of the Panchayats Samitis in the district, members of Parliament and state legislators of the area, the Collector as the ex-officio member of the Parishad, without the right to vote, and such other district level officers as are nominated by the government.

Zila Parishad is a supervisory and coordinating body; it approves the budget of the Samitis without modifying the proposals submitted by them.
In this way the special feature of the scheme is that no supervisory body is authorised to modify the budget proposals of the lower body. If the Zila Parishad fails to return the budget of the Samiti within the prescribed time, the Collector is authorised to allow the Samiti to follow the budget.

Another feature of the scheme is that the participation of the officials in the proceedings of the Samiti and Parishad will be without voting right, thus to ensure the democratic functioning of these bodies.

The Collector has to play the dual role, on the one hand, he acts as the district development officer; in this capacity he has to see that the district plans are properly drawn up. As a representative of the State Government, he has to see that the decisions of the Parishad are duly implemented. He exercises the administrative control over district level officers of all development departments to ensure coordination.

Maharashtra Pattern:

The Maharashtra pattern is based on the recommendation of Naik Committee report, appointed by the Maharashtra government, immediately after the formation of the state of Gujrat and Maharashtra on May 1, 1960.

1. The report of the Committee on Democratic Decentralisation, cooperation and rural development, Govt. of Maharashtra.
According to this scheme, Samiti is discarded as the proper unit of decentralisation. On the other hand it suggested that a vast majority of schemes and functions handed over to the local bodies could effectively be performed only at the district level. Determining the contents of decentralisation, the Committee divided the schemes of local bodies into district, taluka/block and village schemes, on the basis of their economic and efficient implementation by the different local bodies.

- District level schemes - Rs. 29.9 crores
- Taluka level schemes - Rs. 5.9 crores
- Village level schemes - Rs. 0.8 crores

The Committee further examined the distribution of the staff available to these local bodies and concluded that "both administrative and technical staff which could be available at the taluka/block level would not by itself be adequate for the proper implementation of the schemes". Therefore, it suggested that the district body is the best operative unit of local administration as it alone will be capable of providing the requisite resources, necessary administrative and technical personnel and equipment required for a properly coordinated development of the district. If decentralisation is to be real and effective, it would be
imperative to establish a strong executive body at the district level."

Contrary to the recommendations of the Mehta Committee, the Naik Committee suggested that the block-level body should have the status of an statutory committee of the district body, and did not approve the idea of setting up an autonomous body at the block level.

Thus Maharashtra chose to concentrate powers at the Parishad level, leaving the Samiti in the background. The administrative structure at the district level is that of a miniature state. All the development departments work under the Parishad. The Secretary of the Parishad is of the rank of the collector, and exercise administrative control over the staff of the Parishad as well as over all the district officers of the various departments, facilitating cooperation and coordination in the implementation of the national plans and policies.

For the composition of the Zila Parishad also the Naik Committee did not endorse the system of indirect election as suggested by the Mehta Committee. On the other hand it recommended that the district body should be constituted on the basis of direct elections, while the intermediate body in an indirect manner. The Committee pointed out that there is a tradition of direct elections to higher local bodies in this state and hence it would be more advisable to continue the practice rather than depart from it.
The intermediate body consists of all the directly elected members of the district body, who have been elected from within the jurisdiction of the intermediate body. To link the intermediate body with the district it is provided that the chairman of intermediate bodies should be ex-officio members of the district body, thus the system of indirect election is not completely abandoned.

To link the intermediate body with the village Panchayats, Panchayat members elect two Sarpanches out of the many to sit as members of the intermediate body. The essential features of the scheme are:

(1) Exclusion of the members of Parliament and state legislature, both from the Samitis and the Zila Parishad.
(2) Collector is kept completely outside the Zila Parishad
(3) Cooption of members has been scrupulously avoided thus clearly demarcating the district administration into two spheres - development administration under the administrative control of chief executive officer of Zila Parishad and the regulatory activities under the control of Collector.
(4) Devolution of functions is followed by devolution of resources also. Zila Parishads and Panchayats have powers of taxation; the resources of Parishad
varying from about Rs. 15 lakhs to Rs. 52 lakhs. The entire land revenue has been allotted to Panchayati Raj bodies, apart from the financial assistance through a rationalised system of grants - equalisation grants, purposive grants, deficit assistance grants, matching grants, incentive grants etc.

**Andhra Pradesh pattern**

Andhra Pradesh has followed Rajasthan in introducing three tier system of Panchayati Raj on November 1, 1959. In Andhra Pradesh the Panchayat works at the village level, responsible to the Gram Sabha. Panchayat has different committees to deal with different subjects. The Executive Officer of Panchayat is its Sarpanch.

At the block level there is a Panchayat: Samiti responsible for the block administration. It also supervises the activities of the Panchayats. The Samiti consists of all the presidents of Panchayats within the block area. There is a provision to coopt women members and one or two scheduled castes members if they have not got proper representation. Cooperative Societies and Cooperative banks have also their representation at the Samiti level. Two persons having experience of rural administration may also be coopted to the benefit of Panchayat Samiti, M.L.As and M.P.'s are the
ex-officio members of the Samiti with the right of attendance but without any right to vote. Panchayat Samitis have their own standing committees. The Block Development Officer is the chief executive officer of the Samiti, under the administrative control of its President.

The Zila Parishad at the district level is composed of all the Pardhans of Panchayat Samitis in the district, all M.L.A.'s and M.P.'s from the district and the president of central cooperative Bank. There is also a provision for cooption of members of scheduled caste, scheduled tribes and women if they have no representation, in addition to two other members whose experience in administration and rural development might be beneficial to the Zila Parishad. Collector is the ex-officio member of Zila Parishad, without right to vote. Zila Parishad has the standing committees to look after every major group of functions. Collector is the chairman of these standing committees while the chairman of Zila Parishad is only their member in his ex-officio capacity. The relative roles of the collector and Parishad chairman in Andhra are somewhat delicately balanced.

In view of the considerable dissatisfaction of the plan schemes, the government of Andhra appointed in April 1967, a Committee under the chairmanship of Shri M.T.Raju, to
devise method for the effective implementation of plan schemes at the district level. The Committee submitted a report\(^1\) to the government outlining completely a new pattern of district administration. After a careful consideration of the new scheme the government decided to implement its recommendations in November, 1967.

The main features of the new pattern are the formation of a Zila Development Board for each district which shall be constituted as follows:

The District Collector will be president while the Chairman Zila Parishad would work as member. The secretary Zila Parishad (who is a revenue officer of the rank of a deputy collector) will function as the Secretary of the Board. The Zila Development Board has to shoulder the responsibility for the overall economic growth and implement the programmes to secure such growth, particularly the progress related with agriculture and industrial production. On the basis of allotments made available to the district by the various state heads of departments, the Board is to prepare, a draft of district plan incorporating agricultural and industrial production programme for the year. The district plans consist of not only an estimate of the additional agricultural and

\(^1\) See Report of the Raju Committee, Govt. of Andhra Pradesh, 1967.
industrial products, but also time schedule for their execution. The plan is to be placed before the Zila Parishad and after its final approval it has to be implemented by the various departments at the district. To examine the progress of implementation of the district plan in the light of inspection reports submitted by the district officers and the revenue divisional officer the Board is expected to meet at least once in a month.

The Zila Parishads and Panchayat Samitis would continue to implement some of the schemes related with education, communication, health and social welfare. Schemes relating to agricultural production and industrial growth have been brought under the purview of the Zila Development Board.

Agriculture, irrigation, cooperation, Panchayati Raj and industries departments have been placed directly under the collector to ensure effective implementation of the integrated district plans. District Officers of these departments have to function as personal Assistants of the Collector.

To relieve the Collector of revenue, civil supplies and other matters a post of district revenue
An officer has been created to be manned by IAS officer working under the administrative control of the collector. At the sub-divisional level revenue divisional officer is authorised to attend meetings of the Panchayat Samiti and to send frequent reports to Zila Development Board on the implementation of the various plans in his sub-division. Thus he comes directly in the picture for the effective implementation of the district plans at the block level.

It is argued that the creation of Development Board is an attempt to harmonise the traditional pattern of administration with the new Panchayati Raj pattern - that it brings back the Collector into the centre of the picture making him a key functionary in the entire pattern of developmental administration in contrast to Maharashtra where the Collector has been reduced to a complete non-entity as far as development work is concerned - that the emphasis under the new scheme is on implementation of plans rather than their formulation. It is also argued that now powers at present being exercised by Zila Parishad or Panchayat Samitis have not been taken away from them and that a new institution has been created to supplement their efforts in the district.1

The criticism levelled against the system is that instead of being a step towards democratic decentralisation to a great extent it would tend to introduce in an increasing official and centralised control over the Parishads and the Samitis. 1

Gujarat pattern

The government of Gujarat appointed a thirteen member committee under the chairmanship of Shri R.L. Parekh with the same terms of reference as those of the Naik Committee of Maharashtra. The Committee submitted its report in December, 1960. 2

The Parekh Committee recommended the maximum devaluation at the district level, because of the traditional reputation of the local bodies in the State at this level. The district board in Gujarat has earned the popularity and prestige as a living, progressive, strong, and efficient institution. Looking to this history of the local board and its position the question of abolishing it could not arise. It would be a practical and welcome step to infuse in these institutions which have established such bright traditions and given evidence of such excellent administrative abilities,

more life and make them effective and strong by delegating to them more responsibilities, powers and resources.  

As regards the status of the intermediate body, the Parikh Committee, inspite of favouring the creation of an active executive body at the district level it did not recommend any major change in its status. The intermediate body is to handle village and taluka-wide functions, while the district body is to deal with schemes having a district-wide character. Thus the approach of the Committee is of functional differentiation on area basis; all the three tiers being given specific executive responsibilities.

As for the jurisdiction of the intermediate body, the Committee preferred the taluka instead of the block, after a careful consideration of the merits and demerits of both of them.

With regard to the composition of the intermediate body the Parikh Committee endorsed the suggestion of indirect election by the Mehta Committee. Thus the intermediate body consists of all the Sarpanches of the village Panchayats within its jurisdiction. But there is considerable

divergence in the composition of the district body. The Committee recommended a combination of direct and indirect elections for the constitution of district level body. The district body consists of all the chairmen of the intermediate bodies within its jurisdiction, as its members, in addition to a certain number of members directly elected. The adoption of the system of direct election was recommended by the Committee in the first place on the ground that the excellent performance of the district local boards depends in some measure on the contribution made by the directly elected representatives, secondly on the basis that mature and experienced people are not in a position to come up from the village level.  

Recent trend:

Now with enough experience of different patterns of Panchayati Raj in different states it is obvious that the Maharashtra pattern of Panchayati Raj with a strong and active executive body at the district level has attracted the attention of many other states. Here reference may be given of the recommendations made by various Committees in different states - for example, recommendation of Sadiq Ali team of

Rajasthan in favour of the allocation of original executive functions to Zila Parishads citing specifically the examples of Zila Parishads in Maharashtra and Gujarat; recommendations made by the Konda Basappa Committee of Mysore (1963), Ram Murthy Committee of U.P. (1964), the Hanumanthya team of Administrative Reforms in Punjab etc. All of them have been impressed by the Maharashtra pattern and recommended the adoption of many of its salient features in their own states.

There are certain other trends visible - for example, a new thinking in Kerala and Punjab to have a two tier system - Zila Parishad at the district level and Panchayats at the village level. But there also a strong district body is preferred. The only opposite trend one finds is in Orissa where the Panchayati Raj system is being sought to be reorganised with Samiti at the block level and Panchayats at the village level without Zila Parishads at the district level.

* Abolition of Panchayat Samitis in Punjab has been recommended by a Study team appointed by the State Government.

The team felt that instead of Panchayat Samitis, there should be an advisory and co-ordinating body known as the Block Development Board at the block level with Block Development and Panchayat Officer as its Convener. This Board should consists of the members directly elected to the Zila Parishad from the block area.
Now so far as the Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh Patterns are concerned, in spite of differences in their details both share a trend in common - a strong and active type of executive body at the apex level, which is gradually attracting the attention of officials and non-official opinion all over India. It is extremely doubtful, if any state in future would like to experiment with the type of Zila Parishad envisaged by the Nehta Committee.

continued from page 128.

As a result of the study team's visit to other States, the report said the team was of the definite view that proper planning and execution of development schemes was not possible at a level lower than a district. Two autonomous executive bodies at the district and block level with their own funds, establishments and functions which could never be clearly demarcated, would inevitably lead to overlapping of functions, duplication of staff and likelihood of conflicts.

Abolishing Panchayat Samitis would mean a reduction in the number of elections in the Panchayati Raj institutions, which were a major cause of internecine quarrels and faction fights in the rural community. It was felt by this committee that a Zila Parishad on the Maharashtra pattern suitably constituted and invested with adequate powers and personnel and provided with necessary funds would have all the advantages of an autonomous executive without its disadvantages. It recommended that Gram Panchayats should also be strengthened both financially and administratively.

The study team also recommended that three members of Zila Parishads should be directly elected by secret ballot from three electoral divisions in a block and two women members be co-opted from different blocks of the district. The term of Zila Parishad should be fixed at five years.

It was officially stated in the Assembly that a sub-committee has been appointed to examine the recommendations. (Kuruksh tra, March 16, 1971 page 12).
Though the Andhra Pradesh system has worked reasonably well but there have been instances of friction between the chairman of Zila Parishad and the Collector. More than that as it has previously been mentioned it has increased the official and centralised control over the Parishads and the Samitis.

As for Maharashtra, where the chief executive officer of Zila Parishad for the reason of integrated planning and its effective implementation, is to operate as the development head of the district, it has been argued that the cardinal principle of the traditional system introduced two centuries ago at the district level is the unity of command; it is therefore doubtful whether the Maharashtra system of having two functionaries of equal rank at the district level would in practice work smoothly. ¹

But this division of function among the two functionaries will be the only alternative at present with the division of administration into two sectors - one concerned with regulatory functions and the other with

developmental functions as suggested by the Administrative Reforms Commission, which further explains: "The district Collector should be the head of the former and the Panchayati Raj administration should have the responsibility of the latter". But to quote Iqbal Narain, "The concept of development administration under Panchayati Raj is a dynamic and not a static concept. Its scope is fast changing - the line of demarcation between developmental and non-developmental administration is already in the melting pot". And though the time is not yet ripe but gradually revenue and law and order may be transferred to Panchayati Raj administration in which the villagers are much more interested than what normally goes under developmental administration, thus minimising the chances of friction between the Collector and the chief executive officer, leaving the former functioning as an agent of the State Government, reporting it on the activities of these bodies in the same manner as he did on those of the district boards formerly.

Here it will not be out of place to discuss in some detail the future role of the district Collector in relation to Panchayati Raj bodies.

District Collector and Panchayati Raj bodies:

Prior to the time when Panchayati Raj was set up there used to be district bodies for the development of rural areas. The district officer in his capacity as District Magistrate used to be the Chairman of these bodies. As a Collector he was responsible for the maintenance of law and order and revenue administration of his district. He was the 'eyes' and 'ears' of the government and one of his most important duties was to act as the agent of State Government. His position in the district administration was that of a captain and coordinator of development departments and sole supervisor of all governmental activities in the district.

However, the acceptance of the scheme of democratic decentralisation by the states had a far reaching effect upon district administration. A very important question that naturally came up for discussion at the very outset was: what should be the role of the Collector in the scheme of Panchayati Raj? How should he stand in relation to these bodies? Should he be inside the Panchayati Raj institutions or watch their activities from outside acting as their guide and adviser?
The Mehta Study team suggested "The Collector will be the Chairman of this Parishad (the Zila Parishad) and one of his officers will be the Secretary". ¹

In practice although there are minor variation in the Panchayati Raj pattern at the block and village levels, the most significant difference is at the district level, particularly in relation to the role of the district collector. In Madras he is to preside over the District Development Council which is purely an advisory body. In Andhra Pradesh he is a member of the Zila Parishad, Chairman of all the standing committees of Zila Parishad as well as chairman of Zila Development Board. In Maharashtra on the other hand the Collector is kept completely out of the Zila Parishad where the Zila Parishad is made responsible for the entire spectrum of development and is to function merely as an observer at the district level. In west Bengal also he has no place in the Panchayati Raj. In Gujarat, Rajasthan and Punjab the Collector is member of Zila Parishad without the right to vote. Similar is the position in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. In Assam he is member of Meukma Parishad and chairman of standing committees on production and planning. In Orissa, he is a member without voting right as well as the chairman of the Administration and Coordination committee of the Parishad.

For the first time the question of the role of Collector was discussed by the sixth meeting of the Central council of Local Self Government held at Bangalore in November, 1960. The conference recommended "The Collector should be kept outside the three tier system and should be the agent of the government in the field with the duty to keep the government informed of the happenings and the general trend of events and where the government so decides, to take necessary corrective actions. For these purposes he may be entitled to attend the meetings of the Zila Parishad / Panchayat Samiti or its sub-committees and also call for their records. But where the district level body is according to its functions, only a coordinating and advisory body, the collector could be associated with it more closely than where it is an executive body". A few months later the Annual Conference on Community Development and that of state ministers of Community Development and Panchayati Raj held at Hyderabad in July, 1961 discussed the following alternatives in relation to the position of Collector. The Conference considered should the Collector be:

(a) Chairman of Zila Parishad;
(b) Chairman of the Standing Committee, though not chairman of the whole body;
(c) Full or associated member of the Zila Parishad; and/or
(d) Completely outside the three tier system.

2. Govt. of India, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation Annual Conference on Community Development and Conference of State Ministers of CD and PR at Hyderabad New Delhi 1961 p.176.
To retain the district officer as the chairman of Zila Parishad was favoured to provide expert guidance to Zila Parishad and to give necessary fillip with his administrative experience and authority to the developmental programmes as well as to promote coordinated effort of officials and non-officials. It was opposed by a more radical view on the ground that being a symbol of the old bureaucratic order, he should not be the chairman of a popularly elected body. It is necessary that the Chairman of Zila Parishad should be an elected non-official to inspire the confidence among both the elected representatives and the people. A third and the middle view in between the two extreme, expressed at the conference was, that if it is undemocratic to make him the chairman of the Zila Parishad it is equally wrong to keep him completely outside that body; therefore, to secure his best contribution, he should be made the chairman of the standing committees of Zila Parishad. And finally by another section of opinion it was argued that the district officer should be just a member of the Zila Parishad and nothing more.¹

There is another section of public opinion in the country influenced by Gandhian and Sarvodaya ideologies in favour of making the collector, the chief executive

¹. Govt. of India, Ministry of Community Development and cooperation. Annual Conference on Community Development and conference of State Ministers of CD & PR at Hyderabad (New Delhi 1961) p.176.
officer of the Zila Parishad in the same way as the Block Development Officer is the chief executive Officer of the Panchayat Samiti. The idea is advocated by the Association of voluntary Agencies for Rural Development (AVARD). The AVARD study team on the working of Panchayati Raj in Andhra Pradesh not only endorsed this view but also pleaded the transfer of the law and order and emergency powers of the district officer to the Panchayati bodies in near future on the ground that the ultimate aim of Panchayati Raj was "the complete transfer of all the present functions of government to the Zila Parishad."¹

According to a recent trend of legislation in certain states particularly in Maharashtra (gaining flour in a number of states) there is a possibility that the regulative as well as the developmental functions of the district officer are taken over by the Panchayati Raj institutions. His judicial functions have already been transferred to professionally trained judicial officers², while there is also a demand from the police officials to hand over police executive functions to the district

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superintendent of police. Above all the revenue functions; the main source of the strength and prestige is sought to be handed over to village panchayats, as in Bihar. The trend is clearly explicit when for the need of better coordination between the developmental and non developmental dimensions of administration Sadiq Ali Team recommended that "The transfer of the revenue collection agency to the Panchayati Raj institutions may serve as one of the media of coordination besides making Panchayati Raj institutions more effective and respectable in the eyes of the people. The trend become more explicit when it is visualised that "the line between the development and the traditional functions will tend to be thinner with the passage of time in view of the gradual emergence of a climate in favour of devolution". Though at present the time is not yet ripe for complete devolution, specially giving law and order administration to Panchayati Raj bodies yet the scope of Panchayati Raj administration is fast changing. If this is the logical outcome of the prevailing circumstances, the chief executive officer of Zila Parishad being a senior, trained and experience


I.A.S. may emerge as the most influential government functionary in the district officials hierarchy, leaving the district collector in the background. Here it will be a most appropriate question, why not make the district officer the chief executive officer of Zila Parishad? In this position he will play the leadership role of an executive nature, will be the undoubted head of the team of the district development officers, will serve as a reconciliator of national objectives with local needs and will play an important role in national development without being hindered by an illogical position where he is a mere voting or non-voting member of the Zila Parishad or the Chairman of the standing committees.

1. A number of changes have taken place in this connection in many independent African countries. In Western Nigeria the post has been abolished; in East Nigeria it has been reduced to advisory and liaison functions with local govt. units; in Ghana it has been replaced by a regional post filled by political appointment; in Sudan and United Arab Republic, it has been transformed into the office of the chief executive of local authorities. United Nations Technical Assistance programme, Decentralisation for National and local development, United Nations, New York, 1962, p.25

But there is an opposite, perhaps more convincing view, that an officer subordinate to the Zila Parishad as its chief executive officer can not act as a representative of state government, an independent observer of the developmental activities at the district level, reporting objectively on the progress and operation of local institutions and as guide and advisor of these local institutions. "His position will become particularly difficult in matters where there is a difference of opinion between the government and the council. It will be extremely difficult for him to divide his loyalty into compartments and show different personalities at different times according to the authority under which he is operating." 1

Now the question is if being an official the Collector has no place in a purely official body, in what manner he can watch the work of the Zila Parishad or Panchayat Samiti? His report to the government can not be realistic unless he has a right to sit and watch their deliberations and participants in them, when he thinks necessary.

"In abolishing the post of the District Collector stand the reasons both psychological as well as practical. Admittedly the abolition of the office of the district officer or its complete absorption in the local government system will mean a radical and, perhaps, unwelcome and even hazardous departure from the system of field administration we are acquainted with."

Actually the future of the District Collector is surrounded by a mist of uncertainty. The balance of advantage seems in maintaining the status quo at least for the time being. As recommended by the Administrative Reforms Commission it is necessary to maintain a distinction between the "regulatory" and the "developmental functions", assigning the first to the District Collector, while leaving the other to the Panchayati Raj administration.

With the gradual devolution of powers to the local institutions and their successful working it is well imagined that after a couple of years the chief executive officer of Zila Parishad has to emerge as the most important district level official, making the district collector less essential to the system. But the later may continue to serve as the eyes and ears of government, observing

2. Report of the Administrative Reforms Commission on State Administration, New Delhi, 1969, p.267

Government of India.
independently the working of the local bodies, making
objective reports to the government and acting as a guide
and the advisor of the local bodies. "He can perform certain
other functions, such as administration of election, etc.,
and he should lubricate relations among technical services
and between the later and local authorities". ¹

In the next pages a study of different bodies
working at different levels has been made.

ZILA PARISHAD

The upper tier of Panchayati Raj is at the
district level in all the States except Assam, where it is
at the sub-divisional level. In Madras, however, for
purposes of constituting the district level body, 12 Revenue
Districts have been delimited in 21 Development Districts.
The district level body is known as the Zila Parishad in
Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan,
Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, the District Panchayat in
Gujarat, Zila Panchayat in Madhya Pradesh and the District
Development Council in Madras and Mysore. In Assam, the
sub-divisional body is known as the Mohukuma Parishad.

¹. A United Nations Report, Decentralisation for National and
Local Development. New York, p. 53.
The Chairman of the Zila Parishad is known as "Chairman" in Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Orissa, Punjab and West Bengal, as "President" in Assam, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Mysore, as "Adhyaksha in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh and as "Pramukh" in Rajasthan.

As far as composition is concerned, there is a variety in different State legislations which fall into three categories:

a) where the Zila Parishad consists of mainly indirectly elected members like Presidents of Panchayat Samitis - like Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Mysore, Punjab, Rajasthan and West Bengal;

b) where the members are directly elected from the electoral divisions of the district. This system has been adopted in Maharashtra;

c) where both direct and indirect elections have been merged as in Gujarat and Uttar Pradesh. The legislation provides for balancing the number of directly and indirectly elected members.

The Zila Parishad generally consists of the representatives of the Panchayat Samiti and some representatives of the weaker sections. The Presidents of the Panchayat Samitis are ex-officio members of the Zila
Parishads in all the States. The members of the Panchayat Samiti elect a representative in addition to the Chairman, to sit on the Zila Parishad in Gujarat, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh. Provision for direct election of members also exists in Gujarat and Maharashtra. In west Bengal the Zila Parishad has two representatives of Adhyakshas of Gram Panchayats of each sub-division. Special representation to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes has been provided in all the States except West Bengal, Madras and Orissa.

The functions and powers of Zila Parishad vary considerably from State to State. On the basis of legislation passed by State Governments, three broad categories as to the role required to be played by the Zila Parishad can be formulated as under 1

a) Zila Parishad constituted as a powerful executive body with requisite functions, resources, powers and administrative machinery as existing in Maharashtra and Gujarat.

b) Zila Parishad as a coordinating and supervising district level body with some executive powers but less powerful than in states like Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal.

1. 57th Orientation Course Syndicate Report-Group II, Page 1, National Institute of Community Development, Rajendranagar, Hyderabad-30.
c) Zila Parishad as a merely supervisory, advisory and coordinating body. This pattern exists in majority of the States like Assam, Bihar, Punjab, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Madras and Mysore.

In Maharashtra and Gujarat, the Zila Parishad is a strong body and Panchayat Samiti is merely an executive committee of the Zila Parishad. A senior IAS Officer has been made incharge of Administration of Zila Parishad in these two States. As a detailed study of Maharashtra pattern has already been taken up other details are not examined here.

In Madras and Mysore, the Zila Parishad is an advisory body and Collector is the Chairman of this District Development Council. In Mysore also the District Development Council approves the budget of taluka boards and supervises and coordinates the work of taluka boards.

In Rajasthan, the Zila Parishad has been empowered to coordinate and supervise activities of Panchayat Samitis, examine Panchayat Samiti budgets, distribute Government grants among Samitis and advise them on matters relating to Panchayats and Panchayat Samitis. The Collector is a link between the Zila Parishad and other departments. The Chairman of Zila Parishad is empowered to write the character roll of the Chief Executive Officer of the Zila Parishad.
In Andhra Pradesh, the Zila Parishad distributes funds all over the district among Panchayat Samitis. It also coordinates and consolidates the plans proposed in respect of blocks in the district and proposes a consolidated plan for the entire district. In case there are certain plan project schemes in two or more blocks, the execution is looked after by the Zila Parishad. It keeps an over all supervision over the activities of the Panchayat Samitis of the district and calls for the necessary reports, etc.

In Punjab, the Zila Parishad coordinates and consolidates the development plans prepared by the Panchayat Samitis and gives advice to them. It also secures the execution of plans, schemes of works common to two or more Panchayat Samitis. It has also been empowered to call for any information, statement or record from any Panchayat Samiti. It has also powers of supervision and control over the performance of the administrative functions of the village panchayats.

In Assam, the Zila Parishad is not a district level body but a Sub-divisional body. It has the general power of reviewing works. It approves the budgets of Anchalik Panchayat, coordinates and supervises their works and advises the Government on development schemes and distribution of funds. However, as most of the heads of departments stay at the district level, the coordination at the sub-divisional level have not been very successful.
In Madhya Pradesh, the Zila Parishad is to distribute funds given by the Government among Panchayat Samitis, it coordinates their activities, advises the Government on development matters and arranges distribution of appliances like bull-dozers and tractors etc. to various Panchayat Samitis.

In Uttar Pradesh, the Zila Parishad reviews the development plans of the block and secures their cooperation and coordination and in case there are any subjects relating to two or three blocks regarding primary education, hospitals, etc. the Zila Parishad secures their implementation. It also has the power to cancel or suspend the resolutions passed by the village Panchayats.

The general classification of the functions of Zila Parishad may be as follows:

1. **Executive:** The more controversial point in relation to the Zila Parishad has been their executive functions. In certain states it has been assigned certain executive functions. For example, in Andhra Pradesh secondary schools, industrial and vocational schools previously run by the district boards are now managed by the Zila Parishad.

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1. Rajeshwar Dayal; *Panchayati Raj in India.* Metropolitan, New Delhi
In U.P. the Zila Parishad has the responsibility to look after development of animal husbandry, village and cottage industries, medical and public health, educational and cultural activities, public works, relief work, planning, statistics and administration. In Punjab agricultural credit, agricultural promotion, animal husbandry development, inter-village road and communications have been assigned to Zila Parishad.

In Gujarat the District Panchayat manages primary education, dispensaries and primary health centres, district roads and buildings, irrigation, agriculture, animal husbandry, cottage crafts, village industries and social welfare, either through Taluka Panchayats or independently or through a system of concurrent jurisdiction with the Panchayat Samiti. In Maharashtra where the Zila Parishad is the strongest body of the three tiers, it is responsible for all the functions covered by the sphere of Community Development programme as well as the functions previously performed by the district boards.

2. Supervision and guidance: This function is primarily assigned to the Zila Parishads by the Mehta Committee. In this capacity Zila Parishad supervises programmes and their implementation by the Samitis within its jurisdiction.
Proper utilisation of grants given to the Samitis is also supervised by the Zila Parishad. The Zila Parishad has also the power of inspection and may call for any information from any Samiti. Supervision is followed by advice and guidance extended through the official and non-official agencies. But because the Zila Parishads have not been given the power to enforce their advice, the function of supervision and advice has not proved much effective.

3. **Coordination**: For the purpose of coordination of plans made by Samitis and coordination of work of Panchayats and Samitis, the Zila Parishads enjoy the power to scrutinise and sanction the budgets of Panchayat Samitis. They can discuss the budgets of the Samitis and suggest modifications for their consideration.

The Zila Parishad has to maintain a balance between the national priorities and local priorities, that is why the district is considered as the most important unit of planning, both from the point of view of economic resources and administration of plans.

Again the function of coordination has not been proved effective in the states where the district level body is devoid of executive functions. Here it is important to bear in mind that supervision, guidance and control is never to be at the cost of local initiative and autonomy.
4. Appellate and advisory: The Zila Parishad is authorised to settle the disputes between the two Panchayats belonging to different Samitis, as well as the disputes between a Samiti and the Panchayat within its jurisdiction.

The Zila Parishad also advises the state government in relation to the activities of the Panchayats and the Samitis within its area and the implementation of various plan projects within the district.

5. Joint servicing and Establishment: These functions cover the common interests of the Panchayats and the Samitis, e.g., joint training, organisation of camps, conferences, Seminars, selection and promotion of Panchayati Raj personnel, execution of projects concerning two or more panchayat Samitis with their previous consent or on their request and making rules in connection thereof.

The Sadiq Ali Team of Rajasthan has suggested that the Zila Parishad should take the responsibility of the supply of seeds, fertilizers, improved implements, improved breed of cattle and poultry and also the responsibility of repairing service for the agricultural implements, which is very important.

The Zila Parishad also collects the necessary data concerning various social and economic problems of the
district. Being the Apex body of the rural local
government the Zila Parishad may be directed by the State
Government to undertake any scheme or programme on her
behalf.

All these functions are performed by the Zila
Parishads through their functional committees, the composition
functions and powers of these committees differ from state
to state, according to the status of the Zila Parishad in
the three tier system.

**PANCHAYAT SAMITI**

The Panchayat Samiti constitutes the
intermediate tier in the Panchayati Raj System. This body
is formed at the block level in all the States except Gujrat,
Maharashtra and Nysore where the intermediate body is at the
taluk level. This body is known as the *Panchayat Samiti* in
the States of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Maharashtra, Orissa,
Punjab and Rajasthan. In Assam, it is known as the *Anchalik*,
in Madhya Pradesh as the *Janapada Panchayat*, in Madras as
the *Panchayat Union Council*, in Uttar Pradesh as the *Kshetra
Samiti* and in West Bengal as *Anchalik Parishad*. The taluk
level body is known in Gujrat as the Taluka Panchayat and in
Nysore as the Taluka Development Board.
The President of the Panchayat Samiti is known as the "President" in Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and West Bengal while he is designated as the Chairman in Maharashtra, Madras, Orissa and Punjab. In Rajasthan, the President of the Samiti is designated as the Pradhan while in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, he is known as the "Pramukh".

The Panchayat Samiti generally consists of the Sarpanches of the Panchayats within the Samitis' jurisdiction or of members elected indirectly by the Panches or of directly elected members. Besides, special representation is provided to the weaker sections like women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. In Andhra Pradesh, the Presidents of the Gram Panchayats are ex-officio members of the Panchayat Samiti. In Orissa, each Gram Panchayat also elects a person - other than a Panch - to the Panchayat Samiti. In Assam, in addition to the Presidents of Gaon Panchayats one-third of the total number of Presidents of constituent Gram Panchayats are elected by an electoral college consisting of all members of the Gram Panchayats. In Mysore, the Taluka is divided into constituencies, and from each constituency two or three members are directly elected to the Taluka Development Board. In Madras, the Panches of each Gram Panchayat elect one representative from among themselves to sit on the Samiti. In Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra and Punjab, however, all the Panches within the block or within some specified portions thereof constitute
an electoral college to elect the representatives of the Panchayats to sit on the Panchayat Samiti. Besides, in Maharashtra the local members of the Zila Parishad who are directly elected from the constituencies within the block, are also members of the Panchayat Samiti. In West Bengal all Pradhans of Anchal Panchayats are members of the Anchalik Parishad. A prescribed number of women and persons from the scheduled castes and tribes are coopted as members of the Samiti in all the States.

These Samitis are entrusted with the developmental function in all the States. They are made directly responsible for the implementation of the Community Development Programme. Besides, they are also charged with the preparation and implementation of developmental plans for the block/taluk. The Samitis are vested with specific executive responsibilities in fields like primary education, health, sanitation and communications. They also exercise supervision over the Panchayats and have the right to scrutinise the budgets of the Panchayats and offer suggestions in Gujarat; while in Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Orissa, Rajasthan, Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh, the Samitis sanction the budget of the Gram Panchayats.

The finances of the Panchayat Samitis consist essentially of the funds drawn from the Block Budget, and those earmarked for specific schemes transferred to the
Panchayat Samiti as agency functions by the State Government for execution, share from the land revenue and the grants given by the State Government. Besides, the Panchayat Samitis in some States are also empowered to levy certain taxes. Thus, in Gujrat, the Samiti can, subject to certain limits levy all the taxes which a Gram Panchayat is empowered to levy and can also enhance the stamp duty by 15 percent.

Though the functions of Panchayat Samiti differ from state to state their general classification can be made under the following broad categories:

1. **Delegated functions**: As the local agent of state government Panchayat Samiti may be asked to carry out its policies in the local area. To avoid confusion and to have better coordination between the development work at different levels it is important to have a clear understanding of this role of the Samiti. At present there is no devolution of power, but merely delegation of authority.

2. **Community Development**: Community development is the most important function of the Samiti, recommended by Mehta Study Team. Samiti is responsible for organising village institutions and to secure the maximum utilisation of time and energy of the community for increasing production and amenities in such a way that the ideology and methods of

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community development remain intact. Decentralisation of state's authority and its transference to a substantial extent to the community is to strengthen the process of democracy and to promote economic and social welfare.

3. **Planning and implementation of production and social welfare programmes:**

These functions of the Samiti can be grouped as agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, cooperation, Cottage and small scale industries, education, health, communications etc. Because many of these functions overlap with those of the Panchayats, there is a greater need for better coordination. The Samiti should intensify and expand its activities in this sphere in order to increase its revenues and promote the economic welfare of the people. Improvement of agriculture and village industries, increasing the avenues of employment and building up of community assets should receive the special attention of the Samiti.

4. **Supervisory Functions:** The Samiti supervises the work of the Panchayats within the Samiti area. It has to see that the development programmes are properly executed by the Panchayats. To avoid duplication of staff, money and efforts, Samitis are empowered to examine and modify the budgets of the Panchayats. Proper supervision and guidance of the Samiti is very important for the Panchayats particularly to boost up agricultural production and man power utilisation, its administrative machinery i.e., Vikas Adhikari and the Extension
Team. This supervision is done by the Pradhan or a coordinating committee of all the committees of the Samiti. But this supervision should be confined to the overall execution of the programmes of the Samiti and not an interference in the day to day administrative details.

The Panchayat Samitis in all the States function through Standing Committees which are set up for looking after specified aspects of the Samiti's work, like production programmes, social welfare, weaker sections of the community, finances, etc. In certain States, it is specified that the Presidents of the Panchayat Samitis should be ex-officio Chairman of some of the more important Standing Committees. The implementation of the programme is looked after by the Block Development Officer, who functions as the Chief Executive Officer of the Panchayat Samiti, and the block staff consisting of the Extension Officers, Village Level workers, etc. For this purpose administrative control over the Block Development Officer and the staff is vested in the Panchayat Samiti.

The administrative machinery at the block level is the same throughout the country. This uniform staffing pattern is the greatest contribution of Community Development Programme.
ANCHAL PANCHAYATS IN WEST BENGAL

Under the West Bengal Panchayat Act, an elected body, called the Anchal Panchayat, is constituted for a group of Gram Panchayats. The Anchal Panchayat members are elected by the Panches of the constituent Gram Panchayats, but no person can be a member of both these bodies. The main functions of the Anchal Panchayat are the maintenance and control of Dafadars and Chowkidars for watch and ward and law and order purposes, supervision over the Nyaya Panchayats management, State Government's properties and such other duties as may be assigned by the State Government. The Anchal Panchayat is also empowered to levy taxes like house tax, property tax, profession tax, vehicle tax etc.

GRAM SABHA

The Gram Sabha is the general body of the Gram Panchayat and consists of all the local voters or the adults residing in the jurisdiction of the Gram Panchayat, which may extend over one village or a group of villages. It is recognised as a statutory body in all the States except Jammu & Kashmir, Kerala, Madras, Mysore and Rajasthan.\(^1\)

However, in three of these States viz; Jammu & Kashmir, Mysore

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\(^1\): Panchayati\(^2\)at a Glance, Ministry of Community Development & Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, p.11
and Rajasthan, the Panchayat Acts provide for meetings of all the adult residents of the Panchayat area.

Most of the statutes provide for minimum number - usually two - for meetings of the Gram Sabha to be held in a year. The main items of work allocated to the Gram Sabha are the consideration of the annual statement of accounts, audit report of the Gram Panchayat, the administrative report of the preceding year, the programme of work for the ensuring year, the taxation proposals and any other specific schemes of a developmental nature involving community service, voluntary labour, etc.

**GRAM PANCHAYAT**

The Gram Panchayat which may be called as the executive of the Gram Sabha is elected by the Gram Sabha. Its size varies considerably from 5 to 31 (5-9 in Punjab, 5-15 in Madras and 16-31 in Uttar Pradesh). In some of the States the members of the Panchayat - the panches are elected by the Gram Sabha by secret ballot. In all the States, except Jammu & Kashmir, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, a specified number of seats are reserved for Women. Moreover Special representation for the scheduled castes and Scheduled Tribes is also provided in all the States except Bihar, Jammu &
Kashmir, Orissa and West Bengal. In Bihar, the Mukhya, while nominating the four members of the Gram Panchayat, is expected to ensure that adequate representation is provided for the women, the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes.

The Sarpanch of the Gram Panchayat is directly elected in Assam, Bihar, Rajasthan, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh. In the remaining States, the Panches elect the Sarpanch from amongst themselves.

The functions of the Gram Panchayats can broadly be divided into two categories - obligatory and discretionary. They cover a wide range, including municipal administrations and cultural, social, agricultural and development activities, ranging from sanitation, conservancy, crop experiments and promotion of cottage industries to the registration of births and deaths. Besides, the Panchayat and Panchayat Raj Acts usually contain an enabling provision under which the State Government can authorise the Panchayats to exercise any other additional functions or duties.

Rajashwar Dayal¹ has made a classification of the above functions under the following heads:

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¹ Rajashwar Dayal, "Panchayati Raj in India, p. 82. Metropolitan Book Co., Delhi. Page 82.
(a) **Development functions**: Preparation and execution of village production plans, animal husbandry, allotment of manure pits, cooperatives, buying of agricultural tools for common use, securing minimum standard of cultivation to be observed in the village with a view to increasing production, bringing wasteland under cultivation, promotion of cottage industries and promotion of small savings.

(b) **Civil functions**: Safe drinking water supply, cleaning of public roads, drains, tanks and wells, construction, maintenance and repairs of roads, drains and bridges, sanitation, conservancy and refuse disposal, maintenance, preservation and use of public buildings; lightening of public streets, supervision of village schools, registration of births, deaths and marriages; registration of cattles, etc.

(c) **Law and order functions**: Maintaining law and order in the village, maintenance of watch and ward services, organisation of village volunteer force, etc.

(d) **Welfare functions**: Famine or emergency relief; relief to the handicapped persons; welfare programmes for children, women and youth; welfare programme for the backward sections, establishment of libraries and reading rooms, organising fairs, melas and huts etc.
(e) **Administrative functions**: Budgeting, accounting, appointing and controlling staff, maintaining records, supervising Panchayat Schools etc.

(f) **Commercial functions**: Managing Panchayat enterprises; Panchayat should be utilised for construction minor irrigation and soil conservation works; laying out community orchards and afforestation blocks and developing fisheries and similar other measures. These will create Panchayat assets and will be a source of income to the Panchayats in future.

In short after a careful study of Panchayati Raj structure and its functioning in different states, it can be concluded, that in order to avoid a bewildering variety of patterns and to make the Panchayati Raj system more effective for the realisation of its basic objectives, it would be worthwhile to have a uniform pattern so far as the main framework is concerned. But it should be subjected to the flexibility allowed in case of structural details suiting the local conditions. The reason is simple. Our main problems of rural uplift are more or less the same throughout the length and breadth of the country. Economic revolution through agricultural development and rural

* See Appendix B for details of function etc of Panchayati Raj bodies in different states of India.
industrialisation, provision of employment and equal opportunities to the rural masses, protection and uplift of the weaker sections of the rural community and thereby secure a social change; a silent revolution in the countryside, are also some of the common basic objectives. To achieve the desired objectives, disciplined effort and a uniform national policy is required which can only be effectively implemented if the broad features of the development administration are also the same, e.g., the exclusion of M.Ps. and M.L.As. from Parishad and Samiti; district as the main unit for planning and coordination purposes; maximum devolution of authority and financial resources at the district level; and a senior I.A.S. Officer (subordinate to the final authority of Zila Parishad) acting as its chief Executive Officer, with complete administrative control over all the district level officers related with the various development programmes. This will not be a sharp deviation from the recommendations made by Mehta Committee in its basic principles, but of course significant variations have to be made in respect of structural details, to make the system more conducive to the cause of economic development and a coordinated developmental administration.
In view of the new responsibilities it is necessary to consider the important changes in the existing Panchayati Raj institutions in U.P. As at present the functioning of Zila Parishad is suspended till the Act is amended, the amendments may be suggested on the above mentioned lines.

As the success of a political structure is largely determined by the social changes which itself is tied up with the economic growth in society, therefore, economic urges determine the attitude of the people towards socio-economic problems. In other words economic transformation of society presupposes suitable changes in people's social behaviour making the political structure sufficiently strong and viable. Therefore the next chapter deals with the economy of Uttar Pradesh, inorder to evaluate, later on the economic progress made by the State under the Community Development programmes and Panchayati Raj.
CHAPTER XIV

UTTAR PRADESH'S ECONOMY - RETROSPECTS & PROSPECTS

Though India is an agricultural country, yet there are many states whose economy is not entirely depended upon agriculture. Uttar Pradesh is however, in the category of states that have a predominantly rural complexion. It is also one of the most densely populated states in the country. In 1961, it had a population of 73.7 million persons, with the density of 649 persons; 691 in Bihar; 189 in Madhya Pradesh; 153 in Rajasthan and 430 in Punjab. In 1971 the U.P.'s population has gone up to 92.4 million. Within the state the pressure on land varies, the density being very high in the Eastern and Western districts of Uttar Pradesh, and very low in the hill districts of the Northern Zone and Bundelkhand Region. The decennial growth population of Uttar Pradesh has increased from 4.86 lakh in 1901 to 737 lakh in 1961 and 924 lakh in 1971.

1. Census of India, 1961, op.cit., pp.5 and 6
The infant-mortality in Uttar Pradesh is very high. The higher death rate in the State is the result of poor diet, low nutritional standards and inadequate medical and health facilities. To remedy the situation it was necessary to implement a dynamic programme covering all these aspects.

The table No. 6 gives a clear indication of the growth of population in Uttar Pradesh.

**TABLE NO. 6**

Decennial Growth of Population
(U.P. and India)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population (lakh)</th>
<th>Density of population per sq. km.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U.P.</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>23.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>25.21</td>
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<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>25.14</td>
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<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>27.90</td>
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<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>31.87</td>
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<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>36.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>43.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971*</td>
<td>9.24</td>
<td>55.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Estimated.


Again, the population of Uttar Pradesh has a higher rural composition compared to the whole of India. In 1961, 84 per cent of the State's population lived in villages as compared to 74 per cent in the Country as a whole. The size of the villages in Uttar Pradesh is rather small. The villages embrace 21 per cent of the total population of the State as compared to 17 per cent population of all-India average. As a result of such a distribution of population each urban centre in Uttar Pradesh has to serve a much larger number of villages (492 villages for each town in Uttar Pradesh) as compared to all-India (85 villages per town). The proportion of urban population in Uttar Pradesh is relatively less compared to India as a whole. This reflects the comparatively lower degree of industrialisation in the State. In Eastern Uttar Pradesh the degree of urbanisation is the lowest in the State. The occupational distribution of population in Uttar Pradesh is, therefore, heavily biased in favour of agriculture. In 1961 about 75 percent of the total working population in Uttar Pradesh depended on agriculture (69.5 per cent in all-India). In 1970 the total population of U.P. was 90282000 out of which 12275000 was urban and 78007000 rural population primarily engaged in agricultural activities.

1. Techno-Economic Survey of Uttar Pradesh, op.cit.p.6
The table No. 7 shows quite a heavy pressure of population on agriculture, and indicates the fact that the employment opportunities in other fields have not been properly tapped. The farmers are resigned to fate. It is generally accepted that when there is pressure of population on the means of subsistence, poverty tends to be self perpetuating. Thus for providing employment opportunities to the rural folk, it is necessary to reorganise agriculture and develop cottage and small scale industries. These industries will not only supplement the meagre income of the farmers but will also develop an evolutionary process of industrialisation in the State.

The net income of Uttar Pradesh according to government estimates was Rs. 1,913 crores in 1960-61. The value of net output originating in Uttar Pradesh in 1960-61 was about Rs. 2,197 crores according to the estimates of National Council of Applied Economic Research. (See table No. 8).

It is clear from table No. 8 that the economy of the State is heavily dependent on agricultural and allied activities which contribute 68.1 per cent to the total net output as compared to 52 per cent in the country as a whole.

### Table No. 7
Livelihood Pattern in Uttar Pradesh and India (1961)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Uttar Pradesh (000)</th>
<th>% of total population</th>
<th>INdia (000)</th>
<th>% of total population</th>
<th>Percentage of total workers in U.P.</th>
<th>Percentage of total workers in India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultivators</td>
<td>12,429</td>
<td>24.99</td>
<td>90,540</td>
<td>22.70</td>
<td>65.99</td>
<td>52.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Labourers</td>
<td>3,264</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>31,992</td>
<td>7.48</td>
<td>11.50</td>
<td>18.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining, quarrying, Livestock, Forestry, Finishing, Hunting, Plantations, Orchards and allied activities</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>7,121</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Industries</td>
<td>1,474</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>10,100</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>5.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing other than household industries</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>7,357</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>4.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>2,056</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade and Commerce</td>
<td>1.063</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>7,040</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport Storage and Communication</td>
<td>0.309</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>5,008</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other services</td>
<td>2,710</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>19,568</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>9.29</td>
<td>10.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL WORKERS</td>
<td>23,860</td>
<td>32.12</td>
<td>189,417</td>
<td>42.29</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NON-WORKERS</td>
<td>44,338</td>
<td>60.33</td>
<td>269,905</td>
<td>77.01</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>73,745</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>459,510*</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excluding: Goa, Bod & Dam and some portions of NEFA.

N.B.: In Uttar Pradesh 5.28 lakhs workers from the household industries group as given in Census have been transferred to category. Similarly, 10.51 lakhs workers have been transferred in case of India.

**Source:** Census of India, Paper No.1 of 1962, Final Population Totals, P.400.
### Table No. 8

State Income in Uttar Pradesh and India for 1960-61 (in Rs. crores)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sectors</th>
<th>UTTAR PRADESH</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>INDIA</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>(A) AGRICULTURAL &amp; ALLIED</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>1,495.07</td>
<td>68.1</td>
<td>2,616</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Husbandry</td>
<td>685.97</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>1,169</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry</td>
<td>14.69</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(B) MINING &amp; SECONDARY ACTIVITIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factory Enterprises</td>
<td>79.88</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2,036</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Factory Enterprises</td>
<td>96.64</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Non-household</td>
<td>48.25</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Household</td>
<td>48.39</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>17.08</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(C) TERRITORIAL ACTIVITIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Railways</td>
<td>27.49</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>7.56</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other: Transport, Storage etc.</td>
<td>33.19</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade and Commerce</td>
<td>150.22</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1,677</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other services</td>
<td>230.29</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>2,040</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House Property</td>
<td>58.79</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NET DOMESTIC PRODUCT</strong></td>
<td>2,196.98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>14,653</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** For details of methodology, see the NCAER publication, Distribution of National Income by States 1960-61. Since the computation of these estimates the figures for Uttar Pradesh have undergone marginal revision to Rs.3,193 crores as given in the above publication.
The high density of population coupled with the dependence of nearly three-fourths of its total population on agriculture, and the very low productivity of land has resulted in a low per capita income in the State. In 1968-69, the per capita income in U.P., was Rs. 248 at constant price of 1950-51. From the above discussion it is clear that although agriculture is a source of livelihood to a majority of population in the rural as well as in urban sectors, its development in terms of per capita return is unsatisfactory due to excessive dependence on agriculture. The land-man ratio is rapidly changing against agriculture. The tertiary and agro-based industries are lagging behind the population growth. This pressure of population on land is breeding poverty amongst the agriculturists of Uttar Pradesh. As a consequence the target of growth in national income could not be achieved.

Inspite of predominance of agriculture from the point of view of employment and its contribution in national income, Agriculture today presents a poor picture and, consequently, the Indian farmer lives on subsistence level.

In Uttar Pradesh due to low productivity, sub-division and fragmentation of land, ineffective land reform, insufficient supply of agricultural credit, the small agriculturists are leading a miserable life.

Uttar Pradesh enjoys certain physical and climatic advantages conducive to the development of agriculture, which are denied to a number of neighbouring States. Rainfall in most parts of the State, though not fully adequate for the year-round cultivation, is much higher than in the adjoining States of Punjab, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. Irrigation facilities have been developed on a fairly good scale. But the agricultural development of Uttar Pradesh has not been commensurate with these facilities.

The basic cause for the backwardness of agriculture is low productivity of land. In the case of rice, maize, barley, grain, groundnut, cotton and sugar cane, the per acre yield in the State is below the national average and very much lower than that obtaining in neighbouring States such as the Punjab and Rajasthan where agricultural conditions are similar. The average yield of wheat, Jawar, Bajra, millets and potato in Uttar Pradesh though higher than

1. Techno-economic survey of Uttar Pradesh, op. cit. p. 20
2. Techno-Economic Survey of Uttar Pradesh, op. cit. p. 21
the all-India average is lower than that in other States. The average yield per acre of wheat, the predominant crop of Uttar Pradesh, was only 742 lbs in 1958-59; whereas in the Punjab and Rajasthan it was 959 lbs. and 788 lbs. respectively. The low yield of wheat in Uttar Pradesh has a depressing effect even on the overall national production of this crop; because nearly one-third of the all-India production is in this State. The performance of Uttar Pradesh in the case of the other important cereal, is even worse, the per acre yield of rice was a bare 585 lbs as against 851 lbs in Punjab and 654 lbs in Rajasthan.

In Uttar Pradesh the productivity of land varies from region to region depending on the fertility of soil, rainfall, irrigation facilities, mechanization, use of modern techniques of fertilisers. "An important measure of such productivity is the gross value of agricultural produce per acre of net sown area. The table No. 9 shows region wise productivity of land in Uttar Pradesh."
# Table No. 9

**Agricultural Productivity in Uttar Pradesh by Regions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Index of gross value of agricultural production per acre of net area sown 1955-56</th>
<th>Net irrigated area as per cent of net area sown 1960-61</th>
<th>Double cropped area as per cent of net area sown 1960-61</th>
<th>Percent to total cropped area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>All food crops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>54.51</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>75.03</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>19.35</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>86.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bundelkhand</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>15.97</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>94.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>55.52</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>29.35</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** NCAR, Techno-Economic Survey of Uttar Pradesh, p. 213.
- For the districts in each zone Table 1 may be referred.
- Data given in Column 2 relate to 1955-56. All the necessary data required to compute the regionwise value for 1960-61 are not available, hence the computation was done for 1955-56. First the gross values per acre were calculated and then converted to Index Numbers. Though the data relate to 1955-56 the relative position of the various zones has not changed much since then. The figures in remaining columns explain the variation in the value indices of the various regions as given in Column 2.
- It refers to Plains only.
As a result of regional disparity the progress of agriculture is uneven and the overall picture of agricultural productivity is alarming. The over all slower growth rate of agricultural output in Uttar Pradesh as compared to all-India is confirmed by the study made by Ministry of Food and Agriculture. According to this study during 1952-53 to 1961-62 the linear growth rate per all crops in Uttar Pradesh was 2.23 per cent as against 3.23 per cent for the entire country. This rate for foodgrains was 1.58 per cent for Uttar Pradesh as against 2.66 per cent for the entire country; and for non-food grains 4.57 as against 4.40 per cent for the whole of India. From 1961 the density of population per sq. km. in U.P. has increased by about twenty percent while the agricultural income has increased by about one-eighth. The pressure on agriculture, has, therefore, increased. The other sectors have improved, their contribution to the state income by about one-third; among these the sector of commerce, transport and communications has increased by about two-fifth. This is inspite of the fact that the percentage of outlay under U.P. Plans on Irrigation and Power has risen from about one-third of the total outlay to over half and that on agriculture and ancillary activities from less than one fifth to over one fourth by 1966-67 though it has fallen to slightly one-fifth again.

1. For details see Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, Growth rates of agricultural production (All India and States Draft Mimeographed document, April, 1964).
One of the arguments advanced by the State Government for the low per acre yield of crops in Uttar Pradesh is that owing to the small size of holdings a vast majority of the land holders are unable to put in the necessary inputs. The average size of holdings is relatively small - it being 5.3 acres compared to 11.8 acres in the Punjab, 13.9 acres in Madhya Pradesh and 5.70 acres in all-India.

Another serious problem is the fragmentation of land due to defective inheritance law and importance of land due to its social value. The seriousness of the problem of fragmentation can be noted from the following table:

**TABLE NO. 10**

Fragments Per Holding And Per Acre

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size Group (Acres)</th>
<th>UTTAR PRADESH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Fragments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 2.5</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 - 5.0</td>
<td>6.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0 - 7.5</td>
<td>8.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.50 - 10.0</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.50 - 15.0</td>
<td>11.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.0 - 20.0</td>
<td>16.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.0 - 25.0</td>
<td>22.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 25.0</td>
<td>24.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Khurro & Agarwai 'Problems of Cooperation Farming in India' Asia Publishing house, New-Delhi.

In order to improve the agricultural economy of Uttar Pradesh various other measures have been taken during the period beginning from 1950-51. For example, 9 lakh acres of barren and uncultivable land has been converted into cultivable land and efforts have been made to increase yield per acre (See table No.11)

**TABLE NO. 11**

Changes in Land Pattern in Uttar Pradesh From 1950-51 to 1960-61

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>1950-51</th>
<th>1960-61</th>
<th>Increase (+) or decrease (-) in 1960-61 over 1950-51</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Barren &amp; uncultivable land</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>(-) 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Land and miscellaneous trees &amp; grooves</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19(^a)</td>
<td>(-) 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cultivable waste</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>(-) 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Fallow excluding current fallows</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>(+) 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Net cultivated area</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>(+) 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Double crop area</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>(+) 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. TOTAL CROPPED AREA</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>(+) 44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE**: Figures marked by asterisks are not comparable with those for the subsequent years owing to changes in definitions of "culturable waste" and "current fallows".

**N.B.**: These figures are exclusive of Kumaon Division.

**SOURCE**: Trend in Area, Production and Average Yield of Principal Crops in Uttar Pradesh (1950-51 to 1960-61)

\(^a\) It relates to 1959-60.

It has been estimated that during the period 1960-61 to 1975-76 more land will be available for agricultural purposes. Schemes are underway to reduce the quantity of barren and waste land (table 12) by 1975-76.
TABLE NO. 12

Land Utilisation in Uttar Pradesh
(Area in lakh acres)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Area in 1960-61</th>
<th>Estimated area in 1975-76</th>
<th>Increase(+) or decrease(-) in area in 1975-76 over 1960-61</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geographical area</td>
<td>729</td>
<td>729</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land put to non-agricultural uses</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barren and waste land</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>- 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest area</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>+ 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasture and grazing land</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>+ 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land under miscellaneous trees &amp; groves</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>+ 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallow land</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>- 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net sown area</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>+ 47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area sown more than once</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>+ 268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross sown area</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>852</td>
<td>+ 315</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source (1) For data in 1960-61 Secretary, Board of Revenue, Government of Uttar Pradesh.
(2) For data in 1975-76, NCAER estimates.
No doubt achievement have been made in many directions to boost the economy of Uttar Pradesh, but even today it is a backward state from every angle. For example at current prices of 1968-69 the estimated per capita income of U.P., was Rs. 462 as against the all India average of Rs. 542. U.P., occupies fifth position in the country in the matter of industrialization. The industries are mainly confined to a few areas in the state covering 18 districts out of 54. The remaining 36 districts have little or no industrial activity. The solution of the problems lies in making structural changes in the economy through clean administration and balanced development policy under sound leadership. To boost up the economy in the shortest period the small farmers should be helped on priority basis for developing agriculture and agro-based industries which calls upon the planners to look into the following aspects of rural life.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT & FINANCE

"The lesson of history is that an essential of agriculture is credit. Neither the conditions of the country nor the nature of the land tenure, nor the position of agriculture affects the one great fact that the agriculturist must borrow." 

Every modern business is run on credit. Agriculture in India, however, gives rise to peculiarly urgent problems of finance because of its uncertainty, small unit of farm production and scattered nature of its operations.  

The French Proverb rightly stresses the urgency of credit to the farmers, "credit supports the farmer as the hangman's rope supports the hanged". Indian agriculture is dependent upon marginal and subsistence farming by the millions of small farmers who are not in a position to save for productive purposes due to low output. Hence, they depend almost on credit, and pay a part of their income by way of interest.

The estimate of the annual magnitude of credit, prepared by the Rural Credit Survey under the guidance of the Reserve Bank of India, is as follows:

"In relation to the period covered by the Survey and the basis of the data recorded, the total annual borrowings of the cultivators - short, medium and long- may be very broadly estimated for the whole India, to be of the order of Rs. 750.\textsuperscript{c} crores."

Finance required for agricultural production can be divided into three categories:

1) **Short term** (for periods upto 15 months). Usually it is given for one crop season.

2) **Medium Term** (for periods of more than 15 months upto 5 years). Under the crop loan system in Uttar Pradesh the period is fixed from 18 months to 36 months.

3) **Long term** (for periods of more than 5 and upto 15 years).

1. All India Rural Credit Survey Report, Vol.II, p.156.
   Reserve Bank of India, Bombay.
The short term production requirements of a 
cultivator may be classified under the following broad 
categories.¹

a) A basic requirement of cash to meet the labour and 
other similar charges or to meet the consumption 
requirements of a small cultivator working 
personally in his own field.

b) Inputs like seeds, fertilizers, insecticides, 
weedicides, etc.

c) Additional cash requirements to meet the cost that 
may be incurred in putting these inputs into use.

¹

The Medium Term Loans are granted for purposes 
such as sinking of wells, purchase of bullocks, levelling, 
reclamation, construction of irrigation canals, purchasing 
plants and other improved implements, etc.

The Long Term Loans are repayable over a long 
period (i.e., above five years and normally up to fifteen 
years). These are utilised for payment of old debts, purchase 
of the heavier machines, making permanent improvement of high 
costs like construction of tubewells, etc. and increasing 
the size of the holding.

¹. These categories have been enumerated in the "Revised 
Instructions for fixation of credit limits of and 
advancements of loans to members of agricultural credit 
societies for short-term (crop) and medium-term loans 
in Uttar Pradesh (Circular No. C. 122/58-1(Banking) 
dated 28 February, 1966, Office of the Registrar, 
Cooperative Societies, Lucknow, UP."
Due to lack of statistical data, it is difficult to find out the exact amount of loans under each category. The Planning Commission has admitted that "A quantitative assessment of the finance required under three categories is extremely difficult as adequate data for the purpose is not available". However, All India Rural Credit Survey Committee has made a pioneer work of bringing about the following table (No. 13) which shows the different credit agencies and the percentage proportion of borrowings from each agency to the total borrowings of cultivators.

**TABLE NO. 13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Credit Agency</th>
<th>Proportion of borrowings from each agency to the total borrowings of cultivators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperatives</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatives</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landlords</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculturist Money lenders</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Money lenders</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traders &amp; Commission Agents</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial Banks</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** The Rural Credit Survey Report, Vol.II. (Reserve Bank of India), p. 167

1. First Five Year Plan, page 234
The above table reveals that the money-lenders play a dominant role. The professional money-lenders provide 45 per cent and the agriculturist money-lenders nearly 25 per cent of the total loan borrowed by farmers. According to the Report of the Survey agencies other than money-lenders could not be familiar and successful as these money-lenders. The dominance itself has been made possible by the ineffectiveness of all attempts hitherto made to organise a competitive agency for the supply of credit to the rural areas. The money-lenders are dominating the rural credit because "the main fact meanwhile is that the need exists and must seek such fulfilment as they can in the given conditions. These conditions are: immediate availability of fund, direct approach to money-lenders, saving of time, etc."  

The rate of interest, generally prevalent throughout India is high because the money-lenders who lend money take a risk which other organised credit agencies do not take and they have, therefore, to protect themselves against loss by charging high rates of interest. The fact is that the rates

1. First Five Year Plan, p.234.
of interest are of the nature of an insurance against risk.¹ But we cannot justify the malpractices of money-lenders on this ground. The Agricultural Finance Sub-Committee, thus, sums up its views about the operations of the money-lenders as follows:²

"While it is true that the money-lender is the most important constituent of the agricultural credit machinery of the country, it is not possible to justify many of his services.... The credit dispensed by him instead of contributing to the agricultural prosperity of the country serves as a serious drag on it."

The other credit agencies, such as, Cooperative Societies, Commercial Banks and Government are concentrating their efforts on augmentation of agricultural finance. Ten years after the Rural Credit Survey Report in 1961-62 according to the All India Rural Debt and Investment Survey of the Reserve Bank of India, the total borrowings of cultivators, household, from all sources—loans, advanced by primary agricultural credit societies and land mortgage banks taken together, and by primary cooperative marketing and processing

1. Report of the Agricultural Finance Sub-Committee 1945 p. 59
   Note: The Government of India appointed in 1944, a Committee known as the 'Policy Committee on Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries', which set up a Sub-Committee on Agricultural Finance. The Sub-Committee, with Prof. D.R. Gadgil, as Chairman, reported that cooperatives were not likely to provide an adequate system of institutional credit for agriculture and hence they suggested the establishment of an Agricultural Credit Corporation for each Province except in those where cooperatives were thriving.

2. For details see report of the Agricultural Finance Sub-Committee 1945.
societies, totalled Rs.244 crores and 23 crores respectively in 1961-62. Thus the total credit provided by cooperatives comes up to Rs.267 crores, or 25.8 per cent of the total borrowing of cultivator household in 1961-62. In 1964-65 the total credit supplied by the cooperatives was increased to 331 crores.¹

It was estimated that the total short-term and medium-term credit requirements in the last year of the Fourth Plan would be about Rs.650 crores.² In addition, the Reserve Bank will have to meet the credit needs of members of cooperative societies for the high yielding varities programme. In 1965-66, primary cooperative societies were estimated to provide Rs.400.00 crores for short and medium-term credit for which cooperative banks are assisted by the Reserve Bank. The short-term credit made available by the Reserve Bank of India has sharply increased in recent years. In 1951-52, the short-term credit limits, sanctioned by the Reserve Bank, at a concessional rate of interest which is now 2 per cent, were

². Due to new programmes for agricultural development these estimates have now undergone changes.
Rs. 12.40 crores. This increase is indicated in the following table.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Advance</th>
<th>Outstanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951-52</td>
<td>12.40</td>
<td>6.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-61</td>
<td>147.11</td>
<td>89.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-62</td>
<td>192.92</td>
<td>122.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>220.28</td>
<td>134.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>301.56</td>
<td>135.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>283.49</td>
<td>148.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965-66</td>
<td>293.44</td>
<td>161.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-67</td>
<td>330.94</td>
<td>170.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td>500.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Fourth Plan (Draft) provides an outlay of Rs. 206 crores as compared with an estimated expenditure of Rs. 76.76 crores in the Third Plan. The short- and medium term credit provided by primary agricultural societies has been estimated at about 331 crores in 1965-66 and Rs. 400 crores in 1965-66. For short-term credit and also for medium-term credit, cooperative banks are assisted by the Reserve Bank.

The volume of short-term credit made available by the Reserve Bank to cooperative Banks has increased sharply in recent years. The tentative estimates of the fresh loans to be advanced by Cooperative Land Mortgage Banks* during the Fourth Plan is Rs. 300 crores. For fulfilling this programme it has been estimated that the land mortgage banks will have to float debentures for about 275 crores. The target for long-term credit in the Fourth Plan cannot be reached fuller support from the Reserve Bank, State Bank, Life Insurance Corporation, Government and the cooperative credit structure itself.¹ Moreover the commercial banks are also expected to cover the field of Agricultural finance. A target of Rs.$_{144}$ crores of additional advance to Agriculture was fixed by 16 Indian Banks for the year ending June 1969, while 47 crores rupees were actually sanctioned by them for the six months duration ended in December, 1968.²

"Lack of adequate and timely finance at reasonable rates has been one of the main handicaps to the cultivators in making land improvements, adopting better cultivation practices and buying the necessary inputs. This is an all-India problem, but owing to the greater backwardness of

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* In Uttar Pradesh it is known as Land Development Bank.
1. Fourth Five year Plan (Draft Outline), p. 138
agriculture in Uttar Pradesh, it is relatively a more serious problem here. Even to this date the bulk of the credit requirements are met by the traditional sources at high rates of interest. Even assuming a moderate figure of Rs. 50.00 per acre* for short-and medium term purposes in the State, the total annual loan requirement comes to Rs. 268 crores at present and is expected to be of the order of Rs. 426 crores by 1975-76." As against this, the cooperative credit supply in 1960-61 was only Rs.30 crores. It has increased to 44.48 crores during the year 1965-66 over and above 11.89 which has been advanced by the Land Development Bank during the same period. 2

According to the estimates of U.P.'s Fourth Five Year Plan the amount of short and medium term loan during 1968-69 was estimated as 45 crores and 6 crores respectively. 3 It has been estimated that by 1975-76 the total annual requirements will be Rs.426 crores by assuming a moderate figure of Rs.50 per acre. 4 At least three-fourths of the total credit requirements (i.e. Rs.318 crores) should be supplied through cooperatives for

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2. 'Cooperation in Uttar Pradesh' (Hindi) 1967, Department of Cooperation, Uttar Pradesh, p.3.
3. See Fourth Five Year Plan, U.P.
4. Techno-Economic Survey of Uttar Pradesh, op.cit., p.41

* On an average Rs.50 per acre should be sufficient for credit requirements.
any development in the agricultural sector which calls upon the State Government to strengthen the cooperatives without any loss of time. If cooperatives lag behind, the State will not break the shell of poverty.

FARM PRE-REQUISITES

Chemical Fertilizers & Manures:

In order to achieve the target fixed for U.P. for the First Five Year Plan only, it was necessary to harness all the manurial resources in the State. Although in the First Five Year Plan only three schemes, viz., Utilization of Slaughter House Waste, Town Composting Scheme and Rural Composting Scheme were included, yet 2.25 lakh tonnes of various types of fertilizers were distributed during this period. In order to explore the possibility of preparing blood-meal from the slaughter houses maintained by the local bodies in the State which was hitherto wasted and to use it for manurial purposes, a scientific method was evolved for processing blood into valuable manure containing 13 per cent nitrogen. The above method was adopted by five local bodies which produced 18.28 tonnes of blood-meal during 1951-56 of which 3.7 tonnes were produced during 1955-56.
Irrigation

More emphasis has been laid down on increasing the irrigated area in Uttar Pradesh; as a result of it a significant improvement has been made in this regard as is evident from the following table:

Table No. 15

Net area irrigated by different sources in UP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Irrigated Area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>000 Hectares</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>2292</td>
<td>2384</td>
<td>2070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>canal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube-wells</td>
<td>743</td>
<td>906</td>
<td>1115</td>
<td>1157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wells</td>
<td>1844</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2153</td>
<td>1866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanks, Lakes, &amp; Ponds</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5044</td>
<td>5844</td>
<td>6225</td>
<td>5621</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In view of the importance of agriculture in Uttar Pradesh it is necessary to provide more irrigation facilities.
One of the outstanding achievements of modern agricultural science is the production of a number of improved varieties of seeds for different crops. What we need today is to educate the farmers regarding the importance of improved varieties of seeds and to supply them in time in accordance with their requirements. If the improved varieties of seeds are used, there will undoubtedly be an increase in per acre production. The Famine Commission has estimated in 1945 that an increase in production from 5 to 10 per cent can be obtained from improved seeds.¹ The Intensive Agricultural District Programme has proved the importance of improved variety of seeds.² In the I.A.D.P. districts one of the factors which has contributed towards high yield per acre is the use of improved variety of seeds.

At present improved seeds of foodgrains are estimated to cover about 120 million acres of land. A target of 274 million acres is envisaged for 1970-71. The high yielding fertilizer responsive and non-lodging varieties of wheat etc. will cover an area of 32.5 million acres.³

1. Famine Commission, p. 151
2. For details see: Intensive Agricultural District Programme Report 1961-63 - Export Committees on Assessment and Evaluation, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Department of Agriculture, New-Delhi.
3. Fourth Five Year Plan (Draft Outline), pp. 188, 189.
One of the methods for achieving quick gains in productivity is the use of improved varieties of seeds. This programme has already been given high importance during the First and Second Plan periods. Though a detailed evaluation of factors responsible for the increase registered in the farm output during the past decade has not been made it is very probable that the use of improved seeds has contributed substantially, particularly for paddy and wheat. Among the various improved agricultural aids rendered by the extension agency, improved seed has been the most popular aid and the largest number of cultivators have been benefited by it.

By 1960-61, the coverage of improved seeds was about 190 lakh acres i.e. 36.3 per cent of the gross sown area. By the end of the Third Five Year Plan the coverage was expected to be 57 per cent of the gross sown area. This was sought to be achieved by producing foundation stock on ten state mechanised farms and issuing it to registered growers as well as for multiplication by village Panchayats. This programme appears to be sound but requires strict technical supervision during all stages of multiplication. With a view to ensuring that only improved seeds of good quality are used by the cultivators, it is necessary to establish a seed testing organisation, comprising a central
unit at the headquarters of the State Department of Agriculture and a subsidiary unit in each of the four agro-economic regions of the State.

It is expected that within the course of the next fifteen years almost the entire cropped area will be covered by improved seed; thereafter the nature of help required by the cultivators would be different. The introduction of new and better varieties, as evolved from time to time, on the lines prepared for the Third Plan.¹

Plant Protection:

In Uttar Pradesh good work has been done in the direction of plant protection. During the first two years of the Third Plan plant protection measures were undertaken over an area of 21.85 lakh acres and 30.22 lakh acres against a target of 10 and 15 lakh acres respectively. During 1963-64 such measures were undertaken over an area of 30.89 lakh acres. Efforts are being made to take protective measures in a concentrated manner in selected districts.²

In spite of publicity of plant protection measures the small farmer could not make use of it because of high price of insecticides etc. During sudden epidemics, a small farmer has to pay very high price for them. He cannot arrange for necessary spraying pumps etc. The result is low production and consequently increasing indebtedness. No doubt, if the farmers join together, they may add to their prosperity without any additional cost on such items.

The Planning Commission being aware of this problem suggested that the price of plant protection materials including pesticides and equipment has to be reduced and they have to be made available in requisite quantity at the proper time. It is, therefore, proposed to extend the production capacity of these materials in the public sector and to import and distribute pesticides through Government or Cooperative institutions. 1

The policy underlying agricultural production during the last decade in U.P. pivoted around the attainment of self-sufficiency in foodgrains by developing potentials aimed at increased output according to set yardsticks. Obviously, the important factors underlying any sound scheme of crop planning did not receive adequate attention.

1. Fourth Five Year Plan (Draft Outline), p. 191.
In future planning this deficiency should be corrected by planning of crops in such a manner as would yield maximum returns per acre. Keeping in view of the technological considerations in the different agro-climatic regions of the State, preference should be given to high value crops. The crop patterns should be determined after taking into consideration the soil structure, irrigation facilities and climatic factors. With the help of agriculture and irrigation officers, district plans should be prepared indicating the suitable cropping pattern for each district. This work could be carried down further to the Panchayat level for block and village plans. 1

The above discussion shows that, since the beginning of the First Plan efforts are being made for creating conditions for self sustained growth in Uttar Pradesh. But viewed from the point of view of increase in agricultural production and per capita income the progress achieved so far is hardly encouraging. The food production has been declining since 1961-62 and only 116 lakh tonnes were produced in the year 1963-64 as against the 142 lakh tonnes achieved in 1960-61. This slow progress has been recorded despite efforts to increase the production potential through measure like land reclamation, Zamindari Abolition, Strengthening of Cooperatives etc.

The work of strengthening cooperatives and channelling down all the farming requisites through them was taken up with new zeal. Village Plans were prepared. Targets of distributing fertilizer and covering more and more land under green manure were increased. The programme for the reclamation of land, consolidation of holdings, distribution of improved seeds and providing better irrigation facilities was followed under a planned and well coordinated programme of the State. But all these efforts have not saved Uttar Pradesh from being a poor State.

The crux of Uttar Pradesh's problem is her vast numbers of small cultivators who work on uneconomic holdings. They remain idle for about 118 days in a year and are unable to purchase farm requirements due to their poverty. The facilities of farm implements, fertilisers, improved seeds and irrigation were beyond their approach due to their low purchasing power. Hence the inevitable conclusion is that the structure of Uttar Pradesh's agricultural economy is laden with disincentives and is inimical to capital formation.

1. During the year 1963-64 the agricultural Food Commissioner has been made responsible for all agricultural programme and has been appointed Secretary to Government for the Departments of Agriculture, Cooperation, Cane, Animal Husbandry, Minor-irrigation, Community Development and Panchayati Raj. This has been done to ensure better coordination in the implementation of agricultural production programme.
Under the circumstances it is idle to talk merely of improved seeds, implements, manures and irrigation facilities for increasing the agricultural production. Let me now turn to the Rural industries to examine further the economic conditions of the masses living in Uttar Pradesh and their other problems.

**RURAL INDUSTRIES**

In spite of more than two decade of Planning, Uttar Pradesh is a backward Industrial State. If we measure it from the yard-stick of national income, it is noticed, that, whereas the national income during the first three plan periods has grown at an average rate of 3.5 per cent per annum, the corresponding rate of growth in Uttar Pradesh has been below this average. Thus, the per capita income of the State is not likely to exceed Rs. 255.00, which is less than the national average. As regards the employment, agriculture continues to be the mainstay in Uttar Pradesh and the dependence of population on agriculture is comparatively higher than the average for the whole of India.

In order to accelerate the economy of Uttar Pradesh, it is necessary to make deliberate efforts for

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increasing the per capita income of the rural masses.
The experience of the developed countries guides us to
the fact that agriculture cannot develop without industrial
development and vice versa. Agriculture provides raw
materials to the industry while industry provides tool and
brings about a mental change which enhances agricultural
production. But in a country where unemployment, under-
employment and inadequacy of capital exist; side by side one
cannot advise for the adoption of Russian pattern of
industrialisation under which heavy industries were
developed first to bring agricultural revolution through
mass collectivisation of agriculture. Thus it is not worth
while to start big industries because it cannot attack the
problem of unemployment. Moreover, it is not feasible in
view of the fact that Uttar Pradesh does not possess basic
raw materials like iron ore, crude oil for heavy industries
etc. This fact undoubtedly exercises a restraining influence
on the rapid growth of large scale industries in the State
and leads us to the conclusion that the strategy of
industrialisation in Uttar Pradesh shall have to be
somewhat different to that adopted in other STATES.

On the contrary, Uttar Pradesh has the advantage
of a large domestic market. Besides, programmed development
in the field of agriculture, forestry, livestock will tend
to increase the supply of raw material from the sources
which can provide a base for the development of a variety of rural industries having good promises in the field of employment without restraining the financial resources of the State. This will provide wherewithals of agriculture without undermining the development of urban industries which will help in creating skilled artisans, technicians and entrepreneurs for future leadership. The development of cottage and small scale industries and handicrafts etc. is of vital importance as they have the potentiality of increasing employment opportunities, providing work to agriculturists in their idle time and augmenting per capita income. Because of their importance in the rural economy of the State much importance has been given to the development of these industries in Uttar Pradesh. These industries can be classified as follows:

1. Small Scale Industries
2. Village Industries
3. Handloom
4. Sericulture
5. Handicrafts

The First Plan of the State was implemented primarily for the development of agriculture and certain agricultural raw material. However, it was admitted that for a balanced economic development of the State it was necessary to develop industries along with agriculture.
With this end in view cottage and rural industries were also encouraged during the First Plan and an amount of Rs. 289.54 lakhs was provided for the purpose. To develop handloom industry an amount of Rs. 21.54 lakhs was provided while Khadi, gur, hill wool and Blanket Finishing Factory schemes were taken up under the Khadi and village Industries programme. The work of developing small scale industries like cutlery, pottery, lock, etc. was encouraged for which an amount of Rs. 111.21 lakhs was provided. Moreover, the handicrafts and sericulture schemes were also encouraged.

The achievement made during the programme were not encouraging as is evident from the Table given on next page. The planned targets were not achieved in respect of industrial cooperatives: Handloom cloth production, Hill Wool Scheme (Training) and Lock Scheme. However, in case of sericulture and chiken embroidery the progress was satisfactory. But with the development of these industries neither enough rural employment potentialities were created nor they could play any significant role in the rural uplift programme. Moreover, the industries were not developed on cooperative farms. Even the Government agencies paid no attention to the problem of encouraging cooperatives to start agro-industries. Unless Government takes initiative, there is little prospect of agro-industrial development.  

1. Laxminarayan & Kanugo, Glimpses of Cooperative Farming in India, p.47
### TABLE No. 16

**Village and Small Scale Industries (U.P.) 1951-56**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue of Scheme/Item of work</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Position in March 1961</th>
<th>Target aimed 1951-56</th>
<th>Achievement Total 1951-56</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Handloom Cooperatives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Industrial cooperative</td>
<td>No. of members</td>
<td>99,141</td>
<td>1,05,000</td>
<td>95,499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Marketing cooperative</td>
<td>No. of members</td>
<td>7,180</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>22,638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handloom-Cloth production</td>
<td>In lakhs of Rs.</td>
<td>45.79</td>
<td>57.00</td>
<td>25.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gar Development-Number trained</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,070</td>
<td>7200</td>
<td>1,085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuitional Classes-Number trained</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2,905</td>
<td>4,165</td>
<td>4,007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hill Wool Scheme-Number trained</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>34,715</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>42,997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Ferrous Metal-Production</td>
<td>In lakhs of Rs.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,12</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khadi Development-Number trained</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>24,112</td>
<td>41,000</td>
<td>50,557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture-Beaters</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>618</td>
<td>618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govt. U.P. Handicrafts-sales</td>
<td>In lakhs of Rs.</td>
<td>99.36</td>
<td>55.50</td>
<td>61.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chikan Embroidery-Production</td>
<td>In lakhs of Rs.</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Marketing-Goods</td>
<td>In lakhs of Rs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Marked</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Handloom</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>56.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Looms</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>7.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Footwear</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>17.80</td>
<td>22.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Prints</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>87.00</td>
<td>110.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handloom Scheme-Production</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(No Physical targets have been fixed under the scheme)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handloom Scheme-Production</td>
<td>In lakhs of Rs.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration Handloom Factory,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Yarn dyed in lb., in lakhs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutlery Scheme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(No target has been fixed under the scheme)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pottery Development-Estimated production of finished goods by Khurja Potters</td>
<td>In lakhs of Rs.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pilot Workshop</td>
<td>Be Trained</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>101.00</td>
<td>75.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**18. Loans and Grants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Details</th>
<th>Amount (in lakhs of Rupees)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Loans</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) Grants</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**9. Improvement of Playing-Training of Players**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Scheme</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,561</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**D. Fruit preservation and Canning Scheme**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scheme</th>
<th>Details</th>
<th>Amount (in lakhs of Rupees)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i)</td>
<td>persons trained in fruit preservation and canning</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii)</td>
<td>Value of Fruit product</td>
<td>In lakhs of Rs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii)</td>
<td>Cleaning of Orchard</td>
<td>In acres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv)</td>
<td>Treatment of diseased plants</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v)</td>
<td>Area reclaimed for plantation</td>
<td>Acres</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECOND PLAN

At the time of drafting the Second Plan we were faced with the problem of finding employment for a large number of unemployed and under-employed persons of the State. With a view to solve this problem it was planned to develop and small scale industries. An amount of Rs. 1,144.42 lakhs was provided for the development of village and small industries in the following manner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rs. in lakhs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Village and small industries</td>
<td>1,008.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Estate and Township</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Cooperatives</td>
<td>36.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: After reappraisal this amount was reduced to 9.70 crores while the anticipated outlay during 1959-61 was Rs. 9.31 crores.

As many as 58 different schemes relating to different categories were taken up during the Second Plan. By the end of 1959-60, loans and grants amounting to Rs. 202 lakhs were distributed to industrial cooperative societies. In the 248 training-cum-production centres set up during the second plan as many as 15,800 artisans and craftsmen were trained. Two industrial estates at Agra and Kanpur, three smaller estates in the pilot project area (Deoband) and Community Development areas of Loni (Meerut) and Kashi Vichya Pith (Varanasi) were completed. Moreover five more small estates were sanctioned ruing the plan for different districts.
A good aspect of the plan was to develop 2,000 active industrial cooperatives by 1961 for which 36.04 lakhs were provided under the Plan. It was expected that 1,53,000 members of the cooperatives will be benefitted by the Scheme.

In short, during First and Second Plans of the State the Handloom, Small Scale Industries, Industrial Estates, Handicrafts, Sericulture, Village Industries and Industrial Cooperatives were encouraged as given on the next page.¹

But their impact on rural unemployment and underemployment was unsatisfactory. Most of the industries started except those under Khadi and Village Industries and Cooperative sector have created employment potential in the urban areas.

The industries which provided employment opportunities in the rural areas were mostly village oil, soap, hand pounding pottery, hand made paper and cottage match industries which produced goods worth Rs.82,75,650.¹⁴ and provided full employment to 8,840 and part time employment to 5,909 persons.² Another feature was the emphasis on the development of already industrially developed and congested cities like

### TABLE No. 17

Overall Progress of the Cooperative Movement in the Country as on 30th June, 1966.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATE</th>
<th>Primary Industrial Coops:</th>
<th>Primary Weavers' Societies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.of Societies</td>
<td>Member-ship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. dhabra Pradesh</td>
<td>2,045</td>
<td>36,526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>803</td>
<td>16,520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>2,656</td>
<td>82,374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>1,942</td>
<td>43,992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2,849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>2,440</td>
<td>2,50,394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>2,552</td>
<td>17,637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>23,823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>2,674</td>
<td>5,01,144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mysore</td>
<td>1,765</td>
<td>2,12,987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>1,439</td>
<td>43,657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>5,970</td>
<td>73,173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>2,042</td>
<td>39,784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>5,155</td>
<td>76,099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>917</td>
<td>57,965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andaman Nicobar Isls.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3,019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>2,038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hincehol Pradesh</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1,419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipur</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pondicherry</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tripura</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 1964-65: 59,849 10,78,410 2,79,855 13,086 15,05,525 5,05,285

Total 1965-66: 22,340 11,17,169 1,70,327 12,222 12,19,855 2,30,507

SOURCE: Report to 5th Indian Cooperative Congress, New Delhi (December 2-4, 1987), National Cooperative Union of India, New Delhi, p.37.
Kanpur, Agra and Varanasi. Although it was proposed to concentrate on the development of backward areas of U.P. but little was done for boosting up the economy of such areas by establishing cottage and small scale industries. Moreover, no specific programme was made to develop industries on cooperative farms under the cooperative farming programme started during the second plan. The growth of industries on cooperative farms was checked because these industries were looked after by the Directorate of Industries which has no sincerity with the ideology of cooperation. Whatever little help was provided goes to the credit of Khadi and village industries programme of the State. The Khadi and Village Industries Commission undertook experimental work of intensive development and developed some village industries on the cooperative farms. The cottage and village industries suitable for the area have developed under the guidance of the intensive area officer.

THIRD PLAN

The Third Plan was drafted with a view to accelerate the economy of the State and bridge the gap between the national and the State average of per capita income by increasing it through agricultural and industrial progress. For the rural industrial development of the

State the following provisions were made:

**TABLE NO. 18**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>All India</th>
<th>Uttar Pradesh</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Handloom and power loom</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(excluding central share for power-looms)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Small scale industries</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>18.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(including Industrial Estates)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Rs.5.87 for industrial Estates and Rs.12.69 for Small Scale Industries).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Handicrafts</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Sericulture</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Khadi and Village Industries</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Excluding schemes to be financed by Khadi and Village industries commission).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Coir</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>250</strong></td>
<td><strong>24.98</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Includes spill over of Rs. 42.18 lakhs from the Second Plan.  
SOURCE: Third Five Year Plan, U.P. p.91.

The tables show that financial provision made under the head of khadi and village industries was only 0.50 crores. Likewise for the development of sericulture and handicrafts Rs.0.95 and 0.99 crores respectively were made available under the Plan. This amount was quite insufficient for any effective progress in order to enlarge the employment potentialities through these industries in
rural areas. The development of small scale industries and handloom and power loom was greatly emphasised during the period. Some industrial centres were also developed. No doubt the strategy of developing these centres cannot be undermined but in view of the unemployment position it was also necessary to provide more funds for rural industries which were so essential for breaking stagnation of our rural economy.

In short, Third Plan has not been a success from the point of view of enlarging employment opportunities for rural population. The cooperative farming societies, have not developed agro-industries because the programme of developing these industries was taken up from 1963 and quite a large number of cooperative farming societies were either new or quite small for taking the work of developing industries. The Government was not keen to develop these industries as the cooperative farming societies were not showing any progress. In the absence of financial help, technical guidance, marketing facilities and electric supply, neither it was possible for the cooperative farming societies to develop industries in a short period of their existence nor they were actually developed.

FOURTH PLAN

The Fourth Plan of Uttar Pradesh recognise the importance of small and village industries in the economic
development of the State. The Plan says: 1 that the expansion of the small scale and village industries is most desirable in view of their vast employment potential, relatively low unit investment, short gestation period, simple techniques of production, wide dispersal possibilities, easy availability of required machinery and equipment, etc. Thus under the Plan small scale enterprises covering a wide range of industries are proposed to be developed. It has been suggested that the programme of small scale industries during the Plan will be integrated with the programmes of agricultural development etc. The Panchayats have also been encouraged to develop industries to feed the local market.

The Fourth Plan estimates that having regard to the present state of agriculture in the State and the programme of agricultural development it is envisaged that there would be a 4 per cent to 5 per cent increase per annum in this sector. Such a growth of the agricultural sector would result in the contribution of this sector to the total State income rising from 1.228 crores in 1965-66 to Rs.1,500 crores by 1970-71. At the same time this growth of agricultural production would also cause certain increases in the sectors of communication and transport as well as other services.

1. Industrial Programme in U.P. during IV plan, Kanpur U.P. D. 82.
But in order to increase the total State income from Rs. 2,043 crores in 1965-66 to minimum of Rs. 2,840 crores in 1970-71 at an annual rate of growth of 7 per cent, there would be a gap of around Rs. 200 crores after allowing for the possible contributions by the development of agriculture, transport and communications and other services. This then will have to be covered by the development of the industrial sector in the order given in Table No. 19.

Thus having regard to the ratios of investment to net output in various sectors derived from past experience of the country as a whole, and keeping in mind the type of industries which can be developed in the State, an increase in total income by Rs. 200 crores through the industrial sector during the Fourth Plan period would call for an investment of around Rs. 600 crores as given below.

Table No. 19

Distribution of Investment in Schemes in the Industrial Sectors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organised Industries</th>
<th>Rs. in crores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Public Sector Schemes</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Public Sector Scheme</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector Schemes</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small &amp; Village Industries Schemes</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It may be urged that the investment in industries in this state during the past has been of a much lower order. As a result of it the State has not succeeded in maintaining high tempo. Thus a high investment in Fourth Plan is an urgent necessity for industrial development of the State. Moreover in view of the adverse unemployment position, it is necessary to develop industries having more employment potentials.

Out of this proposed 600.00 it is suggested that small and village industries should be allotted 75 crores for creating employment opportunities and gross output so vital for the economic development of the State. It is expected that this investment will increase production and create employment opportunities as given in table No. 20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP</th>
<th>Total investment (Rs. lakhs)</th>
<th>Foreign Exchange requirements (Rs. lakhs)</th>
<th>Power requirements (K.W.)</th>
<th>Employment potentials</th>
<th>Estimated Gross output value (Rs. lakhs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Minerals and Ceramics</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>3,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pulp and paper</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>4,200</td>
<td>1,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Sugar and Fermentation</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>8,700</td>
<td>23,000</td>
<td>3,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Chemicals</td>
<td>152.00</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>3,50,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>11,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Engineering</td>
<td>185.00</td>
<td>7,000</td>
<td>2,84,000</td>
<td>57,000</td>
<td>16,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Textile</td>
<td>45.00</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>2,84,000</td>
<td>57,000</td>
<td>5,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Miscellaneous</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3,300</td>
<td>2,800</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Small and village industries</td>
<td>75.00</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>66,000</td>
<td>1,50,000</td>
<td>1,00,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Industrial Programme During IV Plan in U.P. p.87
From this table it can be read that small and village industries will require minimum foreign exchange while they have the potentiality of creating greatest employment opportunities, i.e. more than one third of the total employment opportunities created by investing Rs. 600 crores.

The programme for the development of small and village industries which should be followed during the Plan has been discussed below.

VILLAGE INDUSTRIES

For the development of village industries the State Government and the Khadi and Village Industries Commission¹ will undertake the work jointly. However, the Cooperative Department will also play its part in developing rural industries by giving organisational, financial and marketing assistance.

During the Fourth Plan an investment of about 40 lakhs is proposed on different schemes relating to the

¹ Industrial Programme of U.P. during IV Plan, p.87.
development of village industries as follows:

**TABLE NO. 21**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Scheme</th>
<th>Proposed Fourth Plan Outlay (Rs. in lakhs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Staff for Village Industries</td>
<td>24.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Khadi Development Scheme</td>
<td>6.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Barrack Blanket Scheme</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Hand-made paper</td>
<td>3.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Palm Product Development Scheme</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Leather and Training Scheme</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>40.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** *Industrial Programme in U.P. During IV Plan,* Directorate of Industries, U.P. Kanpur, 1965, p. 87

Besides the Government Schemes, the All-India Khadi and Village Industries Commission will assist the village industries to the extent of a little over 9 crores by way of loans and grants for implementing its programme through cooperative societies and registered institutions during the Fourth Plan.
The tentative scheme wise breakup is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rs., in lakhs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Oil</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Hand pounding of paddy</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Soap making with non-edible oil</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Pottery</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Leather</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Cottage matches</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Gur-Khandaasi</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Integrated Development scheme</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Fibre</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Bee-keeping</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Blacksmith and carpentry</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Handmade paper</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Limestone</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Ambar Khadi</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Hill wool</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Blanket scheme</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

936

SOURCE: Fourth Plan, Directorate of Industries, Uttar Pradesh, Kanpur, August 3, 1965, p. 88

The Khadi Development scheme which is in operation in 24 districts of the State will be strengthened during the Plan by opening 20 new khadi spinning centres and one service training centre. At present 67 certified institutions and 13 cooperative societies are engaged in khadi work. Their production is valued about Rs. 250 lakhs and employment created is estimated about 6,000 workers, 16,000 weavers and 34,000 part-time spinners.
It is evident from the above discussion that Uttar Pradesh has a backward economy. In the field of agriculture, no doubt, it had made some progress but it neither leads to the betterment of economy from the standpoint of per capita income or any other yardsticks. In this field of industrial development also this state is lagging behind the other neighbouring states. For example, Punjab has built up its economy with the help of small scale and agro-industries. But in Uttar Pradesh neither green revolution has come as a revolution nor industrial net work has been established. As a result of it, pressure on land is high, productivity is low. Consequently capital investment in agriculture is reduced to the bare minimum which in turn has lowered down the productivity. The different programmes which have been started in this state from time to time have not been successful. The Cooperative Movement saw the light of the day in 1904. It was expected that this will help the farmer in many ways. But in 1954 the All-India Rural Credit Survey Committee Report revealed that the Cooperatives provide only 3.1 per cent of the loan required by the farmers. No doubt it has now increased to about 30 per cent but still the moneylenders dominate the scene. In the field of marketing, processing etc. Cooperatives have made some achievements. However the overall picture is not encouraging nor reliance can be laid up on the Cooperatives alone for Rural Development. The grow more food campaign has revealed the secret that Agriculture Development cannot be taken as a separate Programmes.
For a balanced and progressive growth of rural economy, it is essential that its both sectors—agricultural and non-agricultural should received the desired emphasis in development performances. In addition, it is imperative that the human material should also be so moulded as to make it receptive for acceptance of new ideas of science and technology. It is only then that a dynamic growth of the economy can be fully ensured.

In the pasty efforts had been made by various agencies to develop a diversified economy including development of human material and good beginnings were made by some of them, keeping the objectives quite clear before them in the initial stages; but as the programme progressed, there occurred a drift in one direction or the other and thus the concept of a balanced growth was lost sight of. In some cases, the agencies got so much bogged down in so many details that they were misdirected. Earlier also this had been the fate of the various projects started by voluntary and official agencies, for instance, the renowned poet Tagore in Shantiniketan, while laying greater emphasis on human development, particularly through the younger-age group, could not pay adequate attention to the economic development of the area, with the result that inspite of creating a general awakening in the people, the tempo of progress could not be sustained. Hence a balanced development in the field of agriculture, industry
as well as in human material could not be realised in full. Similar experiences were obtained from other agencies, e.g. Gurgaon Development Scheme of Mr. P.L. Brayne which laid emphasis on agricultural development neglecting the human aspect; Martandam Project emphasising the use of human development and neglected the economic development. Likewise the Pilot Development Project, Etawah, laid emphasis on agricultural development and neglected the industrial and human development; and Nilokheri Experiment emphasised the need of industrial development for the displaced persons ignoring the needs of human development. Finally, the Community Development was launched by the Government of India in 1952 with high aims and objectives. This is a multi-sided, multi-typed and multi-dimensional programme which can take care of the various problems of rural life.

In this background the next chapter deals with the programme of Community Development and some of its physical achievements with special reference to U.P.

CHAPTER V

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

In the last chapter it has been discussed that the solution of rural problems lies in a dynamic programme embracing all the different activities necessary for a balanced socio-economic and cultural uplift of the masses. The problem of backwardness of the Indian rural folk drew the attention of the Government when after the seventies of the last century, there was a series of famines in the country. It was realised that something had to be done to place Indian agriculture on a sound footing; and in 1835 J.A. Voolcher, Consulting Chemist to the Royal Agricultural Society, was sent out to India "to advise upon the best course to be adopted in order to apply the techniques of agricultural chemistry to Indian agriculture". He not only exploded the then current myth that Indian agriculture was, as a whole, primitive and backward, but also observed that the differences in agricultural conditions in India were accountable to the following three factors:

1) Difference inherent in the people themselves as cultivating class, for instance, the fact that farmers from certain castes and races were not good at farming while those belonging to other, were good cultivators.
2) difference arising from purely external surroundings each as:

a) natural cause, like climate, soil, facilities for water, manure, wood and grazing;

b) economic and political conditions, like the relative ease or difficulty of living, and paucity or pressure of population;

3) difference arising from want of knowledge, for instance, the existence of diversity of agricultural practices in different parts of the country.¹

In the past, Government's efforts to bring about improvement in rural areas were directed through fairly well-organised Development Departments such as Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Co-operation, Health, Education, etc. These, however, worked independently of one another, following their own programme and without a sense of common objective. Each Department approached the villagers through its own hierarchy; the weakest link in each Department being the last official was, in most cases, inadequately trained and incapable of providing guidance to the villager. The area covered by him was so vast that a villager hardly felt his presence. The activities of these Departments were also not linked up with those of Revenue officers of the area or with the local bodies which, under the law, are

responsible for some of the welfare services like communications and water supplies. The result of all this was that there was no concerted effort to improve all sides of village life, to change the outlook of the farmer and to mobilize local initiative and resources for the betterment of rural conditions.

As a matter of fact in the past attention was paid for evolving organisations to meet the many sided needs of the villager. As early as 1926, the Royal Commission on Agriculture commanded the system of Village Guides devised by Mr. F.L. Brayne for his Gurgaon experiment.

The Fiscal Commission set up by the Government of India in 1949 observed in its report (June 1950):

"In our view the greatest need at present in India is an extension service with the object of bridging the gap between research and the practices of producers, similar to those which have been found so valuable in the U.K., the U.S.A., etc. What we have in mind is an Extension Officer with the necessary staff for a group of 40 or 50 villages working on a demonstration farm. The officer will be the agent of all the Development Departments in the implementation of the schemes of improvement for the villages in the Centre, and the guide and friend of the farmers in the area and in close contact with them."¹

¹ For details see Fiscal Commission Report, 1930, Government of India.
When, with the establishment of the Planning Commission in March 1950, we began to plan for large-scale economic and social progress, agricultural improvement was the most urgent question facing the country. Obviously, no advance could be thought of unless the great majority of the population living in the villages were roused from torpor. The paradox of the situation was that though our agricultural research and our work on animal husbandry had won international recognition, and though we had in the field of co-operation men with a wide knowledge of the movement and with missionary zeal, rural life had remained almost stagnant for many decades. Agricultural improvements had not been adopted over large cultivated areas, and co-operation had touched only a fringe of the population. What were the fundamental factors responsible for this state of affairs?

Between 1950 and 1952 the Planning Commission gave concentrated thought to this crucial issue in the country's economic development. They had before them the report of the Fiscal Commission which had recommended a National Extension Movement covering the entire country. Following wide consultations, the Commission, in the "draft outline" of the first Five Year Plan published in July 1951 made proposals for a rural extension service and the manner in which it should be organised for securing integrated development.
In February 1952, the Food and Agriculture Ministry appointed a committee to examine the Grow More Food activities of the Government which had been in progress from 1947 onwards, and to suggest measures for ensuring rapid expansion of agricultural production. The concept of a rural extension service, briefly referred to in the Fiscal Commission's report, was further developed by the Grow More Food Enquiry Committee.

The Grow More Food Enquiry Committee recommended that for the Extension Organisation on the taluka or tehsil - the lowest administrative unit - consisting of 100 to 120 villages would constitute a convenient development block in charge of a Development Officer or Extension Officer. The Sub-Divisional Officer or Revenue Divisional Officer would have to be relieved of his other duties by a special Assistant appointed for the purpose, so that he may perform the functions of the Extension Officer in his area. The Extension Officer at the block level will have to be assisted by Technical Officers dealing with agriculture, animal husbandry and co-operation. This organisation will function as a team constantly consulting one another and exchanging experience. The organisation will establish the closest contacts with agriculturists and be their friend and guide. Below the block level there would be (1) a group of villages 5 to 10 in number with a population ranging from 5,000 to 8,000, and (2) the village itself.
To sum up, the Grow More Food Enquiry Committee, which examined the economic aspects of village life in great detail, observed that all aspects of rural life were inter-related and that no lasting results could be achieved if individual aspects of it were dealt with in isolation. This, however, does not mean that particular problems should not be given prominence, but the plans for them should form parts of and be integrated with those for achieving the wider aims.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT - CONCEPT

Community Development as a consciously articulated method of accelerating the process of social, economic and political growth of the under-developed areas of the world is a post-war development. The earliest use of the term was made in the despatch, incorporated in the papers of Cambridge Conference 1948. It defined Community Development as under:

"We understand the term 'Mass Education' (Community Development) to mean a movement designed to promote better living of the whole community, with the
active participation and if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, it should be aroused and stimulated by special techniques designed to secure the active and enthusiastic response of the community.¹

The term "Community Development" has been used in the documents issued by several international agencies - the more prominent being the United Nations' Economic and Social Council and the International Cooperation Administration. The United Nations' Administrative Committee on Co-ordination in reporting to the Economic and Social Council said:

"The term Community Development has come into international usage to denote the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic and social and cultural conditions of the communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress."²

¹ Methods and Techniques of Community Development in the United Kingdom, Dependent and Trust Territories, UN Publication, p.24
The national community here comes into the picture. The efforts for community development are not to be viewed in isolation from the national policies of economic and social development but as parts of the attempts to integrate different communities into the life of the national community and to enable them contribute to the national goals. Viewed in this sense community development is a continuous process and does not terminate with the accomplishment of specific self-help undertakings. Its goal is to improve the role-playing capacity of the "small community" in relation to the "national community". It is coterminus with the process of national reconstruction itself so long as the "small community" has a useful role to play in promoting it.

The International Co-operation Administration defined the concept as under:

"Community development is the term used to described the technique many governments have adopted to teach their village people and make more effective use of local initiative and energy for increased production and better living standards. Community development as a
process of social action in which the people of a community organise themselves in planning and action; define their common and individual needs and problems; make group and individual plans to meet their needs and solve their problems, execute these plans with a maximum of reliance upon community resources, and supplement these resources where necessary with services and material from governmental and non-governmental agencies outside the community. In short, one of the definitions more appropriate to the Indian context is that "Community Development is designed to promote better living for the whole community with an active participation and, if possible, on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming by the same, use of techniques of arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active and enthusiastic response".

In short three elements are emphasised namely, democratic participation in initiating social action, self-reliance to the maximum possible degree and participation of the government and non-government agencies outside the community to supplement its resources with necessary services and material.

The concept has also been elaborated by the National Governments which have initiated nationwide programme of Community Development. More prominent amongst these countries are India and the Philippines.* The Indian Community Development Programme is an integral part of the country's Five Year Plans. The First Five Year Plan regarded Community Development as "The Method through which the Five Year Plan seeks to initiate a process of transformation of the social and economic life of the villages".¹ The Planning Commission in the First Five Year Plan referred to Rural Extension as the agency for the transformation of the social and economic life of the village. It must, therefore, be borne in mind that the National Extension Service, as it is called, is nothing more than a staffing pattern. It is an agency for extending to the villagers scientific and technical knowledge in certain fields like agriculture, animal husbandry, cottage industry etc. The extension agency also includes an element of service, e.g. taking preventive measures like inoculation and vaccination.

¹ The First Five Year Plan, p.223.

* The annual conference at Srinagar further pinpointed the objectives more specifically. They were maximisation of agricultural production, provision of certain minimum amenities of life to rural people, extension of help to weaker and more vulnerable section of community, improvement of the training and skill of the village level worker, use of seasonally idle manpower more effectively with new and varied skills and development of the Panchayati Raj institutions as the effective instruments of rural planning. (Krukshetra, p.6, Vol.XVIII, 1970, New Delhi).
The terms Extension Service, Extension Methods and Extension Education are so frequently used, sometimes one for the other, that it is necessary to define these terms clearly before discussing their details.

The term 'Extension was first used in the United States of America in the first decade of this century to connote extension of knowledge from the Land Grant Colleges to farmers. The process of extension or spreading the knowledge is through education, educating the farmers and not through compulsion or coercion or force. Hence, this process of spreading the knowledge from College and Research Stations to the farmers came to be known as Extension Education.

Extension Education is an educational process of imparting knowledge to rural people in convincing way and helping them to take decisions within their specific local situations. The decisions for actions should be...

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+ Colleges established in the various States Out of Land Grants from the Federal Government for teaching of Agriculture and mechanical arts.
1. The Scope of Extension in Community Development, Ministry of Community Development & Cooperation (Department of Community Development) Government of India, p.1.
taken by individuals themselves. The job of Extension workers is only to extend knowledge about improved practices and convince the rural people about the utility of these improved practices and not to decide for them. This extension of knowledge and convincing the rural people is done through the use of effective educational methods generally known as extension methods, such as, systematic discussions, demonstrations, audio-visual aids, study tours, etc.\(^1\)

"Extension is education and its purpose is to change attitudes and practices of the people with whom the work is done." Extension is a continuous process designed to make the rural people aware of their problems and indicating to them the ways and means by which they can solve them. It involves not only the education of the rural people in determining their problems and methods of solving them but also inspiring them towards positive action in doing so.\(^2\)

The term "Extension Service" in the Indian context is used to mean the National Extension Service, an agency consisting of Gram Sevaks, a team

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1. Ibid, p.2.
of Extension Officers and the Block Development Officer (these three functionaries working within the jurisdiction of block as a unit of planning and development), and the system of coordination of all the development functionaries at various levels. In particular, the National Extension Service as an agency was introduced to fulfil the following two objects:

(i) To integrate the efforts of all the development departments at the village level with a view to providing quick help and service to the rural people;

(ii) To intensify the impact of National Extension Service on villagers with a view to putting concerted efforts to meet all problems of village life, to change the outlook of the farmers and to mobilize the local initiative and resources for the betterment of rural conditions.

The extension work was started in India, with the establishment of the Department of Agriculture during 1880. This was the result of the recommendations of the Famine Commission; and it was one of the measures recommended to stop the recurring famines in the country. Gradually various other development departments were set up, all with a view to help the rural people to improve
their economic conditions. These departments gradually extended themselves to serve the rural people, particularly farmers; and with this in view undertook several tasks such as research, supply of seeds, manures and fertilizers, implements and also various other service activities such as providing storing facilities, marketing and credit etc. A series of attempts were made to improve these services, and more important to improve the living conditions of rural people. The Royal Commission on Agriculture, the Grow More Food Campaign, the Fiscal Commission, the G.M.P. enquiry committee and finally the Planning Commission are the most important landmarks in the evolution of Extension Services as we see them today.¹ The National Extension Service movement aims at placing before the country the ideal of bringing about an appreciable improvement in all aspects of rural life and making it fuller and richer. It seeks to ensure that the energies of the entire administrative machinery of the State and the best unofficial leadership in the area are directed to plan for awakening mass enthusiasm and enlisting the active interest and support of millions of families living in the country – side in the immense task of bettering their own conditions.

¹ Ibid, pp. 3-4.
In the words of V.T. Krishnamachari "The aim of the National Extension Service is not merely to provide for ample food, clothing, shelters, health and recreation facilities in the village. All these are there, but what is emphasised is a change in the mental outlook of the people, the instilling in them of ambition for higher standards of life and the will and the determination/work for such standards."¹

1. Objectives of the Programme

In order to appreciate the broad objectives outlined above, some more specific objectives of the Community Development and National Extension Services Programme should be kept in mind. Some of the important ones are the following:

1) Self-Involvement: The first of these is a sense of involvement on the part of village people, a feeling that they too are participating in helping to meet the great challenge of remaking the social and economic shape of the new nation. This has important political and economic ramifications for national

¹ Krishnamachari, V.T. Community Development in India, 1958 pp.11.
development. Politically it is a pre-requisite for the growth of a system that is at once democratic and stable. The creation by Community Development of a sense of involvement will make an important economic contribution to the national development. The people themselves will participate in and will sustain, the execution of the projects and this kind of participation will be forthcoming only because the people will also form a part of the planning process and because the programmes under way will grow out of the needs and desires of the people themselves.

ii) Two-Way Communication: Another objective of the programme is national development which calls upon the establishment of two-way lines of communication between the people and all levels of governments. On the one hand, the government, particularly at State and Central level will have an open channel through which communication from the village will flow and its programmes will remain in touch with the needs and hopes of the people themselves. At the same time it is important that all village people will have the understanding that the government is concerned about their welfare and joining hands with them in working together for the common good. Furthermore,
the people will understand that the government is reaching to join hands in helping them to help themselves. They will also realise that their own voices will have meaning as their problems and aspirations are voiced and moved up through channels from the village to the block from block to the district from district to the State, and finally to the Union level. In this way, the people will have faith in the efficiency of the communication process and feel satisfied that their own thoughts, ideas and experience are of importance in the overall set-up.

iii) Economic Development: Community Development is expected to contribute to economic development and from one point of view, this will be its primary contribution to national development; for without/boost in the rural economy, the villagers cannot be expected to demand many commodities and services that are supposed to indicate a fundamental attitude in change.

From the economic point of view, Community Development's principal contribution will be the mechanism that it will provide for the mobilization of resources to meet a particular problem, or set of problems. Community
Development is the only way of making available the diverse resources—technical and financial to the administration. Agriculture is a good instance in this respect and the first priority here will be the improvement in agricultural production which Community Development will bring about. As Agricultural development is an integral part of rural culture so the farmers can be expected to respond more energetically and swiftly to the demand for increased food production through a comprehensive programme of Community Development instead of any other programme of purely technical nature. Community Development will provide means of administrative coordination and an organisational structure through which various technical departments will be able to utilise the best available administrative talents.

iv) **Social Change**: This programme can bring about social change in the following ways.

a) Increased employment and increased production through a widespread application of scientific methods in horticulture, animal husbandry, fisheries, etc. and the establishment of subsidiary and cottage industries;

b) Self-help and self-reliance and the largest possible extension of the principle of co-operation;

c) Harnessing a portion of the vast unutilized time and energy in the countryside for the benefit of the community.
(v) Cultural Change - In the course of development of rural life, economic planners will be faced with the problem of reconciliation and integration of pure economic programmes with the programme of an overall development of scientific culture in rural India. This will be an important contribution to the general development of the nation. By taking this programme to the people and allowing it to grow out of their own needs and wants, it at once will be related to the contemporary cultural process going on.

In short the programme aims at all-round development of rural areas. According to Jay Prakash Narain Community Development includes every thing - the creation of new social order and way of life, industrialisation, agricultural development, education, health, employment, conquest of poverty, planning and a host of other things1. There is financial provision for a small works programme serving as the nucleus around which the staff would be engaged in their various activities. The financial provision made in the programme itself is small and it is intended that this should be supplemented by additional resources made available only from the development programme financed by the State Government or by the State and the Central Government jointly.

The State Government have been told that all
development programmes should be concentrated in these
areas in a liberal measure. There is also provision for
loans-medium-term for minor irrigation schemes and
short-term loans for providing credit facilities to
the villager. The estimated expenditure of a Development
Block is of the order of Rs.7.5 lakhs for a period of
three years. The staff consists of one Block Development
Officer, three Extension Officers (for agriculture, animal
husbandry, cooperatives and panchayats), two Social
Education Organisers (one man and one woman), one Overseer
and 10 Village Level Workers. This staff is inclusive of
the existing staff of the various Development Departments
in the area which would be absorbed in the N.E.S.
organisation with such training and orientation as may
be necessary.

For the realisation of these objectives the
basic principles on which the movement lays stress
are:

(a) the motive force for improvement should come
from the people themselves. Self-help is at
the root of all reforms, the State assisting
with supplies and services and credit. The
vast unutilised energy lying dormant in the
countryside should be harnessed for constructive
work, every family devoting its time not only for
carrying out its own programmes but also for the benefit of the community.

(b) The co-operative principle should be applied in its infinitely varying forms, for solving all problems of rural life.

The Grow More Food Enquiry Committee gave a number of examples in which the co-operative principle can be applied. They are as follows:

"Firstly regarding schemes of permanent improvement where there is a major irrigation project, the canal system in villages can be taken up for execution by the villagers on a co-operative basis. This will eliminate middle-man's profits and bring into the co-operative movement large amounts of money which can be utilised for agricultural improvement. The same remarks apply to schemes of reclamation, contour-bunding, etc. Also, a system of voluntary labour for works useful to the community village irrigation tanks, common drinking water wells, roads and village plantations can be usefully organised.

"Secondly, for raising standards of cultivation, local efforts should be promoted in seed production, green manures, compost making etc. This will ease supply problems besides ensuring purity of seeds, etc.

"Thirdly, there are numerous ways in which the co-operative movement can be developed to advantage for providing short-term finance, for joint ownership of
agricultural machinery and pumps, for lifting water, etc., joint ownership of storage accommodation, joint farming, and co-operative marketing.

"Fourthly, provision can be made by co-operative methods for subsidiary occupations and cottage and small scale industries.

"Fifthly, it is specially important to organise work among women as their cooperation in raising levels of life can be most valuable". 1

FIRST FIVE YEAR PLAN (1951-56)

The Community Development and National Extension Services Programmes have been outlined in the Plan as essential for intensive development designed to cover every family, in the countryside and also to secure and coordinate a balanced development of all aspects of village life. Centres like Sevagram in Madhya Pradesh, Firka Development Scheme in Madras, Sarvodaya Centre in Bombay, and Gorakhpur represented post-war efforts on the state level to increase agricultural production and remove the poverty that prevailed among the agriculturists. Therefore, it is not an entirely new concept. But the Plan decided to undertake Community Development and National Extension Services Programmes on all India basis. The Unit of development was a Community project which covered approximately 300 villages with a total area of about 450 to 500 sq. miles, a cultivated area of about 150,000 acres and a population of 200,000. At that time the project was conceived to be divided into three development blocks, each consisting of about 100 villages. Every block was further divided into groups of five villages, each group being the field of operation for a village level Worker. In this way at the end of the first plan, the number of stage I blocks in India stood at 1075 while no block entered into II or Post II stage.

It was agreed by the National Development Council in September, 1955 that during the Second Five Year the entire country should be served by the National extension service and that not less than 40 per cent of the national extension blocks should be converted into community development blocks. The question of converting a higher population up to 50 per cent of national extension blocks into community development blocks depended upon sufficient resources available for this purpose. During the second plan 3800 additional development blocks were to be taken up under the national extension scheme and of these it was expected that 1120 will be converted into community development blocks. The plan provided a sum of Rs.200 crores for implementing the programme.

The tentative programme of the Community Projects Administration contemplated that national extension service blocks and their conversion into community development blocks will be taken during each year of the second year.
plan as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>National Extension Service</th>
<th>Conversion into Community Development Blocks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1956-57</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957-58</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958-59</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959-60</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-61</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>1120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For general guidance it was envisaged that the outlay in a national extension service block will be Rupees 4 lakhs and in a community development block Rupees 12 lakhs. The distribution of the allotment of Rupees 200 crores between States was not made in terms of the new programme and its distribution shown in State plans being altogether provisional. It was reckoned that of this sum about Rupees 12 crores was required by the Centre for schemes undertaken or directly sponsored by the Community Projects Administration and about Rs. 188 crores was for part of the plans of States. However the tentative distribution of the total provision for the national extension and community development programme between
different heads of development was as follows:

Rs. Crores

1. Personnel and equipment-Block headquarters 52
2. Agriculture (Animal husbandry and agricultural extension irrigation and reclamation) 55
3. Communications 18
4. Rural arts and crafts 5
5. Education 12
6. Social education 10
7. Health and rural sanitation 20
8. Housing (for project staff and rural housing) 16
9. Community Development - Miscellaneous (Centre) 12

200

In carrying out the programme for the second five year plan, it was realised that a sense of participation and a definite programme of work for improving its standard of living had to be carried to every rural family. It was hoped that both through the national extension and community development programme as well as through other complementary programmes during the next few years, besides agricultural production, there will be marked progress in the following fields:

(1) development of cooperative activities, including cooperative farming;
(2) development of panchayats as institutions actively responsible for village development;
(3) consolidation of holdings;
(4) development of village and small industries;
(5) organisation of programmes designed to assist the weaker sections of the village community, especially small farmers, landless tenants, agricultural labourers and artisans;
(6) more intensive work among women and among youth; and artisans;
(7) intensive work in tribal areas.

For implementing programmes in such diverse fields as village and small industries, cooperation, agricultural production, land reform and social services, areas selected for intensive work under the national extension and community development programme provide specially favourable opportunities. When these programmes are undertaken in a coordinated manner and the necessary local institutions and support are organised, success in one programme creates the conditions for success in another, and the entire economy of an area may gain greater strength. During the second plan agricultural production had the first and foremost claim on extension workers.
In a balanced rural economy it is important that opportunities for non-agricultural work should increase steadily relatively to agricultural work. Recent experience of village and small industry programmes has pointed to the need for an extension service which can be in touch with the village artisans, provide necessary guidance and assistance, organise them under cooperatives and help them in marketing their products both within and outside the rural area. A beginning in this direction has been made with 26 pilot projects. It is essential that as early as may be possible each extension and community project area should have a trained specialist to carry out the rural industry programme.¹

The above discussion reveals the fact that the community development programme in India was launched primarily for rural progress. Thus a number of schemes like development of agriculture, by providing agricultural pre-requisites, irrigation facilities, animal husbandry, village industries, rural health and sanitation, Education communication etc. were undertaken as indicated in the table given on next page.

### Table No. 24-11

Progress of expenditure according to major heads: All India

(Amount in Rs. lakhs)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>I. Block Headquarters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(including transport, office equipment)</td>
<td>1051</td>
<td>5476</td>
<td>3099</td>
<td>1530</td>
<td>1101</td>
<td>669</td>
<td>17776</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(22.9)</td>
<td>(29.3)</td>
<td>(20.5)</td>
<td>(15.2)</td>
<td>(36.1)</td>
<td>(34.7)</td>
<td>(30.1)</td>
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<td>II. Agricultural Development</td>
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<td>A) Agriculture &amp; Animal Husbandry</td>
<td>855</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>3051</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>233</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(7.7)</td>
<td>(5.9)</td>
<td>(11.5)</td>
<td>(14.5)</td>
<td>(15.9)</td>
<td>(14.9)</td>
<td>(9.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Irrigation and reclamation</td>
<td>1095</td>
<td>4859</td>
<td>5567</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>13779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(23.6)</td>
<td>(26.0)</td>
<td>(21.9)</td>
<td>(15.1)</td>
<td>(13.7)</td>
<td>(7.5)</td>
<td>(21.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Village Industries</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>701</td>
<td>1855</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>2996</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(4.7)</td>
<td>(5.0)</td>
<td>(4.6)</td>
<td>(4.5)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Amenities</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Health &amp; Rural Sanitation</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>1697</td>
<td>2818</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>5146</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>(8.2)</td>
<td>(9.0)</td>
<td>(6.6)</td>
<td>(9.3)</td>
<td>(11.8)</td>
<td>(9.7)</td>
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<td>b) Education</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>1296</td>
<td>1406</td>
<td>151</td>
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<td>2894</td>
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<td>(7.6)</td>
<td>(6.4)</td>
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<td>(3.2)</td>
<td>(4.4)</td>
<td>(5.7)</td>
<td>(5.8)</td>
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<td>c) Social Education</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>1019</td>
<td>1579</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>2285</td>
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<td>(2.6)</td>
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<td>(5.2)</td>
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<td>d) Communication</td>
<td>516</td>
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<td>1483</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>297</td>
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<td>4881</td>
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<td>(11.2)</td>
<td>(6.7)</td>
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<td>(10.7)</td>
<td>(9.8)</td>
<td>(11.8)</td>
<td>(7.5)</td>
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<td>e) Housing</td>
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<td>1090</td>
<td>1157</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2729</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3.9)</td>
<td>(5.8)</td>
<td>(4.4)</td>
<td>(5.2)</td>
<td>(5.2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(including imported equipment expenses)</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1125</td>
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<tr>
<td>charges etc.)</td>
<td>(6.1)</td>
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<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Highlights of the Programmes of Community development special programmes panchayati raj, Administrative Intelligence Unit Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development & Cooperation, Feb. 1970, page 16.

Figures in brackets indicate percentage to total. Includes incomplete information for Gujarat, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh and does not include information in respect for Andhra Pradesh, as the same is not available.
This table shows that expenditure under the plans has increased from Rs. 4508 crores during First Plan to Rs. 18712 lakh during Second Plan and Rs. 26732 during Third Plan. In the annual plans of 1966-67 and 1967-68 it stood at Rs. 4039 crores and Rs. 3047 respectively. The provisional allocation for 1965-69 was Rs. 1929.

**THIRD FIVE YEAR PLAN**

The basic aim of this plan was to achieve socialism and equal opportunity for every citizen. With this end in view the plan postulated increase in agricultural production and industry by 30 per cent and 70 per cent respectively. This was considered possible by gearing into action the community development activities and pursuing a balanced industrial policy. Thus the outlay of different heads of development during 1961-66 were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Target fixed (lakh)</th>
<th>Achievement in lakh acres (lakh)</th>
<th>Acres</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1961-62</td>
<td>15.66</td>
<td>21.20</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>18.11</td>
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<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>18.23</td>
<td>20.80</td>
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</table>

**SOURCE**: Highlights of the Programme Community Development Special Programmes Panchayati Raj, Administrative Intelligence Unit Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development & Cooperation, Feb 1970 page 16.
Out of Rs. 1068 crores on agriculture and community development the amount earmarked for community development was Rs. 281.9 crores. Other activities related to community development including cooperation were estimated at Rs. 379.7 crores.

Due to Chinese aggression and Pakistans attack on India during third five year plan and failure of the monsoons in the first two years of the plan the planned targets could not be achieved.¹

However since the end of the Second Plan the number of development blocks to which community development programme has been extended has risen from 3100 to 5183, thus covering almost the entire rural population.² By September 30, 1969 the entire rural India has been delimited into 5,268 Community Development blocks. Of these 674 were


2. At the end of June 1962, 305 development blocks had completed five year period and entered the second stage, 2,766 blocks were still in their first stage, and in 659 blocks pre-extension works had been taken up.

* See Appendix C
in stage I and 2275 in stage II on September 30, 1969. The remaining 2319 have passed on to the post stage II phase. The quantum of departmental funds routed through the block which amounted to Rs. 37.97 crores in 1960-61 increased to Rs. 206.33 crores in 1966-67 and remained more or less stabilised ever since. The stage II will also be provided a sum of Rs. 40,000 per annum according to the recommendations of the Conference of Chief Ministers & State Ministers incharge of Community Development and Panchayati Raj held in June 1960.

As a matter of fact the principal test to be met by the community development movement was its practical effectiveness as an agricultural extension agency and its ability to mobilise the largest possible local effort through panchayats etc., for increasing agricultural production. However this could not be materialised due to various reasons discussed in the next chapter.

The Fourth Five Year Plan has laid down a target of 120 m. tons food grain production which can be achieved by strengthening the community development programme under the local leadership. Thus the programme of Community Development and Panchayati Raj has to be closely linked with the economic development of the country.

The total outlay in the Fourth Plan under agriculture and allied programmes in the public sector will be around Rs.2,410 crores of which Rs.1,944 crores will be devoted to agricultural programmes, Rs.260 crores to community development and panchayats and Rs.206 crores to cooperation.¹

In short the Community Development organisation has continued to give primacy of attention to agriculture and allied programmes. The responsibilities of the Block organisation cover the formulation and implementation of field programmes for the development of agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry, distribution of inputs like seeds, fertilisers and pesticides, construction and maintenance of minor irrigation works, popularisation of improved agricultural techniques and implements, organisation of

¹ Govt. of India Fourth Five Year Plan, p.46,47-48.
demonstration farms and agricultural shows and, in general, motivation and mobilisation of the farmers for better production effort. According to the information received from the blocks, for the year ending September 1969, 4.9 million tonnes of chemical fertilisers as against 3.91 million tonnes during the previous year and 39,382 tonnes of pesticides as against 37,130 tonnes previous year were distributed in the blocks. In all 5,00,290 tonnes of improved seeds and 5,25,943 improved implements were also distributed. Besides, 1.50 million hectares of cultivated area were improved through bunding and terracing, 3.8 million hectares of cultivated area put under green manure and 1.2 million hectares brought under vegetable cultivation.

The expenditure on village industries fluctuated between 5.4 per cent of the Nucleus Development Budget of the Blocks during the Second Plan period, and 6.6 per cent during 1968-69.

The Social welfare services, including health, rural sanitation, education and social education, accounted for 28 per cent, 30 per cent and 28 per cent of the Nucleus Development Budget of Blocks during the First, Second and Third Plan periods, respectively. Again, the percentages were 20, 27 and 29 during the years 1966-67, 1967-68 and 1968-69, respectively.

* See Appendix D
Amenities programmes, including communications and housing, had an expenditure from the same Budget of 21 per cent, 18 per cent and 16 per cent during First, Second and Third Plan periods, respectively. Again in the years 1966-67, 1967-68 and 1968-69 the percentages were 21, 20 and 26 respectively. The integrated success of the programme, one hopes will provide an "alternative to growing urbanisation and mass poverty in the villages. The use of all the resources in an integrated way blends all of society together in a series of interlocking socio-economic, politically viable rural cum urban areas. The Dichotomy between rural and urban fates and the people born in the village can look forward to earning a living in the area of their birth and all can contribute, culturally and economically enriching the area".

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN UTTAR PRADESH:

In Uttar Pradesh the scheme of Community Project and National Extension Service was started in 1952-53 and by the end of 1955-56, there were 26 community projects and 135 National Extension Service Blocks of which 28 were converted into Intensive Development Blocks.

Community Projects:

The Community Blocks covered 6,150 villages spread over an area of nearly 7383-92 square miles inhabited by over 23.22 lakh people. The programme of work covered almost all aspects of community life with particular emphasis on development of agriculture, provision of better communications, spread of education, cottage industries, etc. Over 6.5 lakh mounds of pedigree seeds 2.5 lakh mounds

1. Raukehetra, Volume Nineteen, November seven, January, 1971, Page 10 New Delhi

2. Douglas Enringer, "Rural India in Transition. All India Panchayat Parishad"
of fertilizers and about 14,000 implements were distributed. Irrigation facilities were extended to an additional area of 2,63,665 acres. In the sphere of Community works a large number of buildings for panchayatgarhs, schools and seed stores were constructed. Two thousand four hundred and two miles of kachcha and 275 miles of pucca roads were constructed. Work worth Rs.1,48,60,880 was done by way of villagers' voluntary contribution. About 779 adult education centres were running in Community Project Blocks. Eight hundred and thirteen community centres and libraries were set up to provide recreation to the people and to keep them well informed.

The Arts and Crafts which were introduced in the projects included agriculture, Khadi spinning and weaving, leather work and tailoring. Local people in the trade were encouraged to form co-operative societies. There were 103 Training-cum-Production Centres functioning in the Community Project Blocks.

National Extension Service Blocks

National Extension Service Blocks started during the First Plan covered about 18,695 villages with a population of 87,14,753. In these blocks also the main emphasis was on the development of agriculture. About 3 lakh mounds of
fertilizers, 8,86,248 mounds of improved seeds and 16,660 improved agricultural implements were distributed to cultivators. Irrigation facilities were extended to an additional area of 3,10,070 acres by sinking masonry wells, constructing tube-wells and deepening of tanks etc.

The voluntary contribution of the people in cash, labour and material, etc. amounted to rupees four crores and eleven lakhs.

Thus at the end of the First Plan a population of 110 lakhs was covered by NES/CD programme. It was expected that by the end of the Second Plan the entire rural area of the State will be covered by this programme. In fact emphasis in the First Five Year Plan was on improving agriculture although considerable extension in Industrial activities also took place.

In 1953-54 while 8 more C.D. Blocks were allotted to Uttar Pradesh the Government of India initiated the N.E.S. scheme with the intention of covering about one-fourth of the country with these Blocks by the end of the First plan period. Out of the 26 C.D. Blocks 18 finished their period of intensive development and were normalised.

* A modern cement factory with an outlay of Rs.2.92 crores went into production in the public sector in Mirzapur District in 1954. There was considerable expansion in the organisation of cottage and small-scale industries throughout the State. Besides the expansion in state-sponsored projects, industrial output in private sector registered a marked improvement. The number of Joint Stock Companies rose from 2,044 in 1952-53 to 2,109 in 1954-55. Sugar production touched a new height of 9,04,307 tons in the year 1954-55.

1. Govt. of U.P. Progress Review of the Uttar Pradesh First Five Year Plan 1951-56, p.18
from the 1st of April, 1956. The remaining 8 Blocks finished the intensive phase on 30th September 1956 and started functioning like N.E.S. Blocks. By the end of the First Five Year Plan Uttar Pradesh had opened 135 N.E.S Blocks in the State and out of these 28 had already been converted into intensive development blocks. These blocks covered over 23,000 villages having a population of about 110 lakhs. Covering about one-fifth of the area of the State. The progress in these development blocks has been encouraging. Intensive work in improved agricultural practices, distribution of improved seeds, implements and chemical manures, extension of irrigation facilities, education, health and village industries was undertaken. Efforts were made to educate the people in improved techniques of production in order to strengthen the rural economy. The influence which the Community Development programmes has exerted upon the activities of the people is very significant and can be seen from their participation in the planning and execution of various schemes in all the blocks. This has clearly indicated that where a correct approach is made to the people, they have come forward to give freely in cash, kind and labour.1

Second Five Year Plan of Uttar Pradesh

In September, 1955, the National Development Council approved that during the Second Five Year Plan the entire country should be covered by the National Extension Service and about 40 per cent of the N.E.S. Blocks should be converted into the Community Development Blocks for intensive development. In consonance with this decision it was proposed to set up 752 blocks so that the entire State is covered by the N.E.S. Scheme. It was also proposed to convert 245 of these blocks into Intensive Development blocks. In the Budget Estimates for the current financial year the state had made a provision for 99 N.E.S. and 25 Intensive Development Blocks. The total cost of the N.E.S. and Community Development schemes during the Second Plan period was anticipated to be about Rs.46.09 crores. As against this a sum of Rs.36.6 crores had, been tentatively allocated to Uttar Pradesh by the Community Project Administration.

As already indicated, substantial results had been achieved in the First Plan under this programme in many fields, specially, in the fields of agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, education, social education, health, sanitation, communication etc.
thoroughly been examined in the next chapter. There appear, however, certain gaps in the programme. While, therefore, normal programme of work continued during the Second Plan period, the fields to which special emphasis was given

(1) Development of village and small-scale industries—
with a view to providing additional income, and increasing employment opportunities in the countryside;

(2) development of co-operative activities,

(3) intensification of the programme of work among the women and youths.

As has been discussed earlier the aim of the Community project and the National Extension schemes is not merely to provide for ample food, cloth, shelter, health and recreation facilities in the rural areas but also to bring about a change in the mental outlook of the people and instilling in them the ambition for higher standards. Extension services in Community Organisation are a vital source in democratic planning and the second Five-Year Plan has reached out to millions of people thorough the network of Community Projects and National Extension services. These projects are the means by which, through co-operative, self help and local initiative, villages and groups of villages can achieve both social change and economic progress in an increasing manner and thus become partners in the national endeavour.
The successful experiment in Pilot Development Project for rural areas conducted in this State, which led to the idea of Community Development Programmes, also gave the concept of systematic training of workers in the practical application of knowledge in basic technical subjects to promote the Extension Programme in different fields so as to bring about an integrated development of the area. The first Pilot Development Project was started in Etawah in the year 1948 and a year later the first Training Centre was started at Lakhnau, a few miles away from the Project area. Gradually as the Pilot Project Programme was expanded and Community Projects and N.E.S. Blocks came into being, the Training Programme was also expanded. With financial assistance from the Government of India, another Training-cum-Extension Project was started at Bakhshi-ka-Talab in Lucknow, in the year 1952. Later on five other centres were started with assistance from the Government of India. In order to give extension training to the various departmental workers and also to some extent supplement the output of the six Training Centres mentioned above, 16 other centres were also run. By the end of the First Plan period these centres trained 4,312 personnel, including 228 Districts Level Officers, Group Level Workers and 1,991 Village Level Workers.
It was envisaged that during the Second Plan period, workers will be trained for 760 N.E.S. and I.D. Blocks, which should be opened during this period. About 10,000 Village Level Workers and 4,000 Block Development and Assistant Development Officers were trained. In addition refreshers courses were to be run for the different category of workers so as to keep them fully acquainted with the latest technical developments in the different sciences, which may have bearing on the Extension Programme.

The total expenditure on the Training Programme during the Second Plan period was to be Rs.109.25 lakhs, out of which Rs.30.07 lakhs was non-recurring and Rs.79.18 lakhs recurring. The expenditure was incurred in a graded scale spread over a period of five years.

Alongwith the Training Programme, a Publicity Scheme was also run so as to keep the workers in the field, both officials and non-officials fully informed about the day-to-day experiences gathered in different quarters in the execution of the various programmes. This facilitated the exchange of ideas and pooling of experiences and helped in creating unity of concept along with the necessary diversity in approach to suit local factors. The total cost of the scheme was Rs. 4.75 lakhs, of which Rs.0.68 lakhs was recurring and Rs.4.12 lakhs non-recurring.  

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN UTTAR PRADESH DURING THIRD PLAN

The Third Plan total outlay for the State was Rs. 502.12 crores. For Community Development an amount of Rs. 50.21 crores with a capital component of Rs. 16.17 crores was earmarked out of which a total of Rs. 28.65 crores, i.e. about 57 per cent was spent, by the end of 1963-64. During the third year the plan provision stood at Rs. 8.30 crores including a provision of Rs. 3 lakhs for the construction of Primary Health Centres in the Development Blocks. The total expenditure incurred during the year was Rs. 9.56 crores, the excess over the provision being made good by re-appropriation from other heads. An additional sum of Rs. 1 crore was also sanctioned during the year for production programmes.

During the year 1963-64 the remaining 165 pre-extension blocks were converted into Stage I blocks, thus covering the entire State with active blocks.

Emphasis was being laid on programmes relating to agriculture and allied sectors. The recommendation of the Ram Subhag Singh Committee were also put into effect during 1963-64. The Agricultural Production Commissioner was made responsible for co-ordination of all agricultural programmes and appointed Secretary to Government for the Departments of Agriculture, Co-operation, Cane, Animal Husbandry, Minor Irrigation, Community Development and
Panchayati Raj. This was done to ensure better co-ordination in the implementation of agricultural production programmes.

The distribution of outlay and expenditure under different programmes was as follows:

(Rs. in lakh)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head</th>
<th>Outlay 1963-64</th>
<th>Actual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project Headquarter at Block level</td>
<td>320.12</td>
<td>323.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Extension, Animal Husbandry</td>
<td>66.88</td>
<td>94.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigation (Reclamation)</td>
<td>29.06</td>
<td>24.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor Irrigation (Loans)</td>
<td>175.00</td>
<td>254.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and Public Health</td>
<td>26.57</td>
<td>27.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>35.09</td>
<td>37.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Education</td>
<td>49.01</td>
<td>44.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>20.50</td>
<td>21.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Arts and Crafts Industries</td>
<td>22.77</td>
<td>23.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works</td>
<td>85.00</td>
<td>105.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>830.00</td>
<td>955.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In short at the end of the First Five Year Plan of Uttar Pradesh 135 Community Development Blocks were functioning while at the beginning of the second Five Year
Plan they were 610. In October 1963 their number increased to 870. During 1967-68 the number of Blocks was reduced by 193 for administrative and other reasons.

Expenditure on these blocks during the year 1951-1969 has been as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plan Year</th>
<th>Rs. in lakhs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Plan</td>
<td>956.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Plan</td>
<td>2765.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Plan</td>
<td>4754.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-67</td>
<td>569.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967-68</td>
<td>288.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td>295.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It is expected that by the end of the Fourth Five Year Plan there will be no stage I blocks, and Stage II blocks will approximately be 91 while the other blocks will be in stage III. To expedite the developmental activities about 1000.00 lakh Rupees is earmarked for the purpose in order to create a balanced rural development through agricultural activities, irrigation facilities etc., and avoid the uneven rate of progress which is evident from the fact that some blocks and some favourable villages have gained at the cost of others. The progress of the weaker sections of society has not been encouraging.¹

¹ For details see IV plan U.P. page 66.
During the Fourth Plan emphasis has been laid on the existing programme instead of expansion in new directions. Thus an amount of Rs. 2.65 crores will be spent on agricultural development and 0.15 crores on Community Development Schemes only.

The public came forward to participate in this programme. In terms of money the people's contribution amounted to Rs. 24.19 lakh.* This is not encouraging. Likewise in the field of agricultural production and increase in productivity U.P., has not stolen a march over the neighbouring states. The development of cottage and small scale industries, animal husbandry and social education have not achieved the desired success although under the existing pattern, the village panchayats, Keleatra Samiti and Zila Parishad i.e., all the three tiers of Panchayati Raj organisation are actively associated with the community development activities. But U.P. State remains one of the most backward states. According to a report of the Planning Commission out of the 17 states U.P., occupies the 14th position in the descending order, Orissa, Jammu and Kashmir and Nagaland occupying the last three positions. The per capita income in 1968-69 at constant prices of 1960-61 was Rs. 253 as against the all India average of Rs. 321. At current prices of 1968-69 the estimated per capita income of U.P., was Rs. 462 as against the All India average of Rs. 542. Naturally there is a swing towards industrialisation although U.P., remains primarily agricultural state.

On the whole for the Community Development movement in India the 1950s were the years of great excitement, of tremendous creative upsurge, of constant experimentation and innovation. New concepts of social change were

*Community Development, 1970 page 17.

Also see Appendix E

The figure quoted here has not included people's contribution during 3rd Plan due to non-availability of data.
developed. New material and managerial tools were invented and the process of extension and consolidation was set in motion, which continued throughout the 1960s. On the basis of the achievements during these two decades, there are substantial reasons to be satisfied with the achievements of Community Development Programmes being primarily implemented through Panchayati Raj.

In this context the next chapter deals with the impact of democratic decentralisation coupled with Community Development, so that the new problems and new responses posed by them may be analysed in order to understand, to accept and to meet the challenges of 1970s.

+ For important events of Community Development and Panchayati Raj, see appendix F
CHAPTER VI

IMPACT OF DEMOCRATIC DECENTRALIZATION

A Balance Sheet of Panchayati Raj

After the introduction of the Panchayati Raj pattern of administration in India, there has been a complete cycle of hopes and expectations reposed in the system and dismay and despondency accruing from it.

As mentioned earlier this system came into light after the report of the Committee, headed by late Balwant Mehta which recommended for democratic decentralisation. It won the active support of the late Prime Minister, Jawaharlal Nehru, who saw in it a device to bring the Community Development Movement closer to the people. Due to his support the new pattern was first introduced in Rajasthan on October 2, 1959 and later on in Andhra Pradesh on November 1, 1959 and so on.

Basically the new pattern has three tiers of administration - the Village, the block and the district. While the first and third had been in existence for many decades the block was a new regional demarcation which was considered to be a more suitable unit for development administration.
At each of these levels elected assemblies were constituted, some of which were directly elected and others indirectly. Each of these three bodies had an elected President (or Chairman) who was provided with considerable executive authority. The functions allotted to these bodies also varied. While the Panchayat was concerned with basic amenities in the village, the block level Samiti was charged with rural development and the Zila Parishad with major roads, secondary education and other subjects that had an impact over a large area. Inevitably as the movement spread from state to state, there were variations in the basic pattern. Thus, while in Madras the Zila Parishad was not set up and only advisory development councils functioned at that level; in Mysore, the taluk was retained as the middle tier, which to a certain extent, came into conflict with the traditional unit still used for revenue collection and land record purposes.

Both Maharashtra and Gujrat carried the pattern to its logical conclusion of making the district level as the highest executive authority for supervision of the developmental programmes in the district. In most states, however this function continued to be exercised by the official functionary, the District Collector or the Deputy Commissioner - in consultation with the Zila Parishad. The block level Samiti has emerged in those states as the most important tier of the Panchayati Raj pattern and the
Presidents of these bodies have begun to command considerable influence and prestige in their areas. The Panchayats have tended to remain as somewhat weak bodies with inadequate financial resources and limited scope of operations, and have been unable to play as significant a role as was envisaged for them.

Now that the Panchayati Raj system has been adopted almost all over the country, one may well ask what its impact has been and why it gained popularity so quickly. As mentioned earlier, the late Prime Minister P. Jawaharlal's support was a powerful factor in its ready and universal acceptance. To him it was logical extension of the democratic frame-work to rural areas to enable the people living there to participate more fully and effectively in matters that concerned them. This became particularly significant and purposeful after the inauguration of Community Development movement, since it sought to change the living conditions which were admittedly in a pitiable state. It was realised that unless education, health and sanitation were improved it would be difficult to raise agricultural production appreciably, which was a necessary prerequisite for rural prosperity. What the Community Development movement attempted to do was to change the state of stagnation which was prevalent in the rural areas and quicken its pace with a newly acquired tempo of development.
Although the Community Development movement began in a mood of high expectations and with a few zealous and dedicated workers, it was quickly realised that in general an important element identified as popular enthusiasm was missing. Unless the public accepted the movement as their own and participated in it, there was little hope of making quick gains expected from it. More specifically it was expected that the Panchayati Raj system would bring about a greater speed in decision making. Decentralisation of administration would bring the decision making levels progressively closer to the people and the Panchayati Raj machinery would be able to respond to the needs of the situation quickly and what is equally important, with greater relevance.

Finally it was felt that good government was no substitute for self government and that local participation would bring to administration greater support from the people. Panchayati Raj would thus become the standing evidence of the power of the people's will to transform themselves and to usher in a new era of progress and prosperity in the traditional atmosphere of Indian villages.

It is comparatively difficult to make an assessment of the spectacular achievements through Panchayati Raj in a country subjected to foreign domination for a long time.
However, Panchayats in their short span of existence have done remarkable work in different spheres. In the first and second five year plan periods Panchayats accomplished many things in relation to construction of roads, drains and community buildings like schools, Panchayat Ghar, Sinking of wells etc. etc. In addition to this Panchayats have established village libraries, Community centres and have contributed towards adult literacy classes. Since the beginning of third five year plan the emphasis has changed from amenities programme to the production programme, Panchayats are coming forward in this direction too. They are encouraging the use of improved agricultural practices through demonstration, meetings and crop competitions. They have also organised voluntary help for the construction of tanks, small embankments and other minor irrigation works. Now the focus is slowly shifting towards social change. In the beginning the change may have been un-spectacular, but certainly is more basic, more significant and therefore more purposeful. "Growth with social justice" has to be the main object of rural development and Panchayati Raj which has been accepted as the pattern for local development administration necessitates, fuller and more active involvement in this process of economic development and social advancement.
In the light of the above facts the working of Panchayati Raj during the last 12 years and its achievements or otherwise have been discussed below.

**ASSETS**

**SOCIO-POLITICAL IMPLICATIONS**

Socio-political implications of Panchayati Raj may be evaluated in terms of people's reaction towards these institutions, mass participation, leadership pattern, voting behaviour, role of political parties and the overall impact of these conditions over the weaker section of the rural society who are supposed to be the main beneficiaries of all developmental programmes.

Empirical surveys have brought out the fact that substantial number of rural people have now an awareness of Panchayati Raj institutions and are conscious of their power of vote. Political consciousness has spread among all classes, though this is less marked among the weaker sections of the society, such as the scheduled castes and tribes.

In general people's reaction to the Panchayati Raj is encouraging and favourable. According to a survey* conducted by the National Institute of Community Development

* See Local government Institutions in rural India NICD Hyderabad, page 83.
in 1965 covering the entire nation with a sample of 365 villages and about 7,000 respondents, it was found that:

The image of Panchayati Raj in the people's mind is extension of the regular administration rather than as people's organisation. However Panchayati Raj institutions are accepted by an overwhelming majority of the people as permanent institutions and the over all reaction to Panchayati Raj is favourable and people want them to be strengthened. Some of the most frequent reasons given by the respondents for their acceptance of Panchayati Raj are:

(a) because it is a government supported programme,
(b) because it provides an agency to solve petty differences of opinion or disputes at the village level (c) because it provides a channel through their own leaders to secure governmental help and to communicate with government.

A detailed study made by Jadeja of Bagi Gaon Sabha in Doiwala Block in Dehradun supports the above findings. A brief summary of the findings is as below:

1. There is a general lack of awareness among villagers towards the village panchayat's rights and responsibilities.
2. Once the village Panchayat is elected the villagers feel that their duties have ended and they cease to take interest there in.

3) There is lack of interest and general unwillingness among villagers to bother about or participate in the programmes of village Panchayat.

4) There is general apathy among the people who are not sure about the village Panchayat as their own institution and their expectations of it.

5) Peoples belonging to higher socio-economic level have a more favourable image of the panchayat than the people belonging to the lower socio-economic strata.

It cannot, however, be doubted that the Panchayati Raj pattern has brought administration closer to the people. In the area covered under this study there was a greater awareness amongst the rural people. They felt that the government is no longer at a distance from them. No doubt in different states public may have a sense of relief due to the creation of Panchayati Raj bodies which looks into their grievances.

The National Institute of Community Development, Hyderabad, undertook a research study on Awareness of Community Development in village India. The result showed that 86.6% of the respondents know about Community Development programme, 61% knew the Village Level worker. About 30% contacted the Block Development Officer, 9% contacted the Agricultural Extension Officer, 16% contacted the Cooperative Extension
Officer, 47.2% of the respondents reported to have adopted chemical fertilisers, 36.4% improved seeds, 31.3% insecticides and 18.9% improved ploughs, 58% listened to the radio including community radios, 69% acquired membership of Cooperative Societies of different types. Panchayati Raj is primarily responsible for this awareness. Panchayati Raj pattern has also generated greater acceptance of the new responsibility of self government and willingness to respond to local needs with the result that people's participation has definitely increased. In fact villager tends to loose interest in Panchayats as a developmental institution, when they are told that it is to be treated as exclusively a developmental agency. However, if the basic necessities like drinking water wells and irrigation are provided for, he may show much more interest in the developmental activities.

Following are some of the principles, which can be made applicable to secure people's maximum participation in development programmes.

Programmes of public cooperation are to be initiated through the established institutions and agencies of the people themselves. A clear understanding and awareness of the programmes and problems on the part of the people's is very important and requires their involvement in consultations and groups discussions - a beginning of people's Participation. The process of public-cooperation
involves the entire community—men, women, youth through various agencies as local bodies, Mahila Mandals, youth clubs and other voluntary agencies. The targets should be laid down and clearly known to the community, so that local resources are generated to achieve the targets rather than to depend on outside help. Undisputed leadership and the devoted type of volunteers engaged in development programmes are also important factors in increasing people's participation.

Public-cooperation is a continuous process and therefore, should be used as an instrument for all round progress and development of the whole community on continuous basis. It is possible to maximise people's participation, if the principles and methods of public participation are followed through a band of trained, devoted and mature workers. Areas, institutions and people retarding the work should be clearly identified and ways means are to be found to remove these obstacles.

Political participation consists of not only making decisions of local development programmes, and contribution towards construction of local development works like schools, community halls etc., but also voting beha-

vour in Panchayats as well as national elections.
An electorate that is well informed and actively participated in the political process for the public good and is motivated by a sense of civic duty is the first need of a democracy. Such an electorate has yet to be created through political education; the process of such education has just begun. But Panchayati Raj system has played its role well in accelerating this process and in arousing political consciousness among the people and has been successful in involving them in its activities.

The second fundamental requirement of political participation is leadership. The right type of persons must be chosen for public positions. The socio-economic conditions in rural India have not yet led to the appearance of leadership needed by democratic local governments. The rural leadership which emerged in the wake of Panchayati Raj was more traditional than modern; more used to the language of hierarchy than the modern language of politics which envisages the withering away of what the sociologist would call "sociological pathologies"—caste, religious, ethnic, linguistic and communal groupings. Yet the process of adaptation has been set in motion. With the passage of time the interaction between these modern institutions and environmental settings is becoming more and more apparent. Consequently new leadership has been emerging in many places and this temporary phase of factionalism and conflict might be termed as transitory. Though in general the young and better educated leadership is emerging, the traditional and informal leadership based on caste, age, wealth, and heredity still matters at the village level. But at the block level the traditional leaders
of small groups do not find a place, because of the greater area, the varied interests in the block and the new demands of leadership under community development programme. Thus the block leadership pattern is different from that at the village level. The block leaders are educated, rich persons and leaders of factions.

It is a fact that the Panchayati Raj institutions are responsible for the emergence of local leaders, who now occupy seats of power. In the words of Prof. Iqbal Narian "A new traditional leadership, not completely possessed by tradition, not entirely modern but drawn to and bargaining ahead towards modernity, coming from comparatively younger age groups and having a distinct material benefits orientation as its base, is in the offing. This is an earnest for the rural elite of the future, who would form the backbone, both of the developmental administration and politics at the rural levels and would become a link between rural and urban politics and ultimately exercise a determinist influence upon district, state and national level politics from bottom upwards, which may growingly become 'rural-urban' and shed its present day 'urban-rural' character."

A few common characteristics of rural leadership have been brought out in studies as follows:

1. The leaders hold more progressive ideas and more liberal

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3. Sen & Roy (1967); Narain(1967); Mehta (1963); Robin (1967); Arora (1969); Bhattacharjee (1969); Asthana (1967); Sharma (1963); Rout (1967); Sirzi (1964); Chaudari (1963); Thorat (1962); Local Govt. Institutions in Rural India, N.I.C.E., Hyderabad, P. 91.
attitudes:
2. Their contact with extension agents is higher;
3. They travel more and visit urban centres more frequently;
4. The proportion of literates and educated among them is higher;
5. They are more exposed to mass media such as radio and cinema;
6. They participate more often in voluntary organisations;
7. They are more efficient in the use of labour and other resources in farming, and
8. They adopt more scientific techniques of agriculture.

For some years after independence, the seats of power were monopoly of urban people, but with the introduction of Panchayati Raj a large number of people acquired political power in rural areas. The posts of Pradhans of Panchayat Simitis have become prize posts captured by the emerging local leaders. Not only this, but they are also aspiring for advance. The results of many studies reveal that the Presidents of Panchayati Raj specially of its intermediary tier are proving potential M.L.As. (A reverse trend is also visible. The leaders of strong Zila Parishads having a preference for this body in comparision to State Assemblies).

The democratic decentralization has opened a channel between

+ The same research findings on the socio-economic background of elected leaders, however, show that a large proportion of them belong to upper caste and upper economic strata.
local and state levels as well as between state and central levels, thus providing a chance of advance to grass-roots leadership.

These leaders have been asking for more powers. Even the Sarpanch and Panches of village Panchayats would like the Panchayats to be an all purpusev institution, solving their revenue, law and order problems besides catering to their developmental needs. It is a logical corollary of democratic decentralization, which among the rural population in general and among politically inclined local persons in particular has infused a new feel of power.

As far as the election is concerned democracy is fast coming to age. Direct election is allowed by the various State Acts for Village Panchayats. Only Assam and Mysore allow direct election for Simitis and Maharashtra, Gujrat as well as Uttar Pradesh for Zila Parishads. (Mehta Committee gives the right of extension to the State Government). None of the Committees appointed from time to time by the central as well state governments made specific recommendation that the elections to the Panchayati Raj institutions must be held on the expiry of their normal terms.

+ Maharashtra Cabinet has also decided to hold Panchyat Simiti Elections directly and to link them with the Zila Parishad Elections on the lines of Lok Sabha and Assembly Elections. Hindustan Times, Sept. 11, 1972.
* In U.P. last Panchayat Elections were held in 1972 after 1961.
Though the idea of contesting election has been legally accepted by the State Governments, preference for unanimous election is openly propagated by offering financial incentives to village Panchayats. Sen and Roy (1967) report, on the basis of a nation wide survey reveals that out of about 7,000 respondents sampled from 365 villages, 56 percent have preferred unanimous elections as compared with 21 percent who wanted contested election. But there are regional variations also. A survey conducted in Punjab by the Indian Institute of Public opinion (1961) showed a reverse trend, the majority in this case wanted contested elections.

An overwhelming majority of our village people think that the elections are fair and the officials conducting the elections are impartial (1964). This favourable image is primarily responsible for heavy turn out. It also implies that the initial problem of acceptance has been successfully solved. "As far as elections are concerned, democracy is fast coming to age, if it has not already done so. But peaceful and orderly elections and high polling percentage is only one aspect of democracy, we can say that it is the exterior of democracy. The inner aspect is of real and vital importance, and we have yet to catch the spirit and soul of democracy."  

1. Local Govt. institutions in rural India, p.58 N.I.C.D. Hyderabad. p.58
The introduction of Panchayati Raj has greatly affected the voting behaviour in the rural areas. Although voting in the Panchayat elections along factional lines is quite common, caste, kin and family ties exert the most powerful influence. But sometimes factions cut across caste and kinship lines. There is abundant evidence to show that upper caste has sought alliance with lower castes in order to offset the dominance of another upper caste. Voting pattern in Aligarh (U.P) Lok Sabha constituency in recent 5th Lok Sabha election confirms the fact.*

According to Rettlaff the immediate effect of the election on village society is divisive. The heat generated during the campaign, preceding the election leaves a more permanent impact on the village society. But there is also a long term effect, not immediately visible, but is much more permanent in nature. That is the changed social and power relationship between the upper and lower castes. Apart from the small benefits which weaker sections get, because of their political alliances, they are now in a better bargaining position with the upper castes. This has affected the traditional status relationship among castes and the lower castes have definitely gained.

*Brahmin and Scheduled castes voted en block for Congress(R) while R.K.D. got complete support of Jat Community particularly in Khair and Iglas Constituencies of Aligarh distict.

Economic advancement has been a contributory factor in accelerating the process of changed relationship. Though a Punjab Agricultural University survey¹ shows that mechanised farming and the affluence resulting from the Green Revolution have not weakened religious beliefs, people generally are more interested in improving their lot through economic means than leaving things to fate or depending on religious rituals. The most respected people in the Green Revolution today are not priests, as in the past, but those possessing technical skill and know-how.

In another survey² conducted by an agricultural expert of the Punjab Agricultural University in four villages near Ludhiana, a large number of farmers with mechanised farms said that they spend more on buying agricultural implements and inputs than on buying anything else. Another important item on which they spend money is education, even advanced education for their children. It is an important departure from the traditional way of living, a social change directly resulting from the economic advancement.

In the Green Revolution area there is a general demand for more seats in schools, for institutions of advanced studies, particularly in the vocational field, more link roads and implementation of projects like the Beas River Link and the Tractor Factory at Nangal. A political party, which, the voters feel, is serious about giving the state all these and other amenities will get the people's support.

¹ Hindustan Times March 7, 1971.
The expenditure pattern according to the same survey placed housing and family comfort third and fourth respectively in importance. It also noted that 64 per cent of the farmers questioned could be called liberal in the matter of observing caste norms from among those engaged in mechanised farming. It showed that mechanisation was leading to a modification of the outlook of farmers regarding inter-caste relations. Voting for candidate of one's own caste only is, therefore, not likely to hold good specially in the areas touched by Green Revolution.

Political parties are actively participating in the process of political education but from the very inception of Panchayati Raj the role of political parties vis-a-vis Panchayati Raj institutions has been a subject of great controversy. It was thought unhealthy to bring in party politics in our already fragmented village societies. But the actual situation indicates the involvement of political parties whether direct or indirect at all levels. An 11-P0 Survey\(^1\) conducted in Andhra Pradesh, Madras and Rajasthan showed such involvement at the village as well as at higher levels. A recent survey of Maharashtra during the 5th Lok Sabha election by Rasheed Talib confirms the hold of political parties, particularly the ruling party at the grass roots. As the ruling party is primarily responsible for the implementation of all welfare programmes and schemes, it gives it an edge over the parties in opposition. It is through the various rural institutions and the benifits provided by them, the party in power exercise an effective control at the lower levels.

\(^1\) All India Institute of Public opinion.
In the words of Rashid Talib, "This system institutionalises the power structure of the State level all the way down to the grass roots. It thus places in the hands of the ruling party in the State a direct lever of power at the district, taluka and village levels. Naturally, the pattern of power at the top level tends to reproduce itself at the lower levels. Not for nothing is it sometimes said that the President of the Zila Parishad is the counterpart of the Chief Minister at the district level and the various members of Zila Parishad committee are like so many District Ministers in charge of various portfolios." However this system is not without its advantages particularly in a developing society. Prof. Joshi has rightly said "It has ensured political stability and continuity in administration, two of the most important prerequisites of peaceful economic and social growth. By being inclusive, the Congress has given representation to regional and sectional interests, thereby minimizing social discord which might have threatened the integrity of the new state. Finally, the preponderance of one party, along with a small but active opposition, has also resulted in making the administrative apparatus relatively efficient and responsive."

2. Ibid.
Party politics has come to stay in villages, but the political socialisation has produced in the rural areas is desirable and likely to contribute towards national integration. Probably with the passage of time frictions would be minimised. In the words of Weiner "those who argue that local bodies should be given more powers, but at the same time there should be no politics amidst them - involving either political parties, castes or factions - are taking contradictory position. Whenever there is power there must be politics - a law as fundamental in political science as supply and demand in economics. Fractionalism and caste as well as political parties inject ideological issues in these traditional disagreements. Due to land reform, higher literacy, adult franchise, growing power of local bodies, higher standard of living and many other social and economic changes, conflicts in our villages are bound to increase. From the practical point of view as Weiner suggests, the question is not how to eliminate conflict (as Servodya leaders suggest), but rather how to manage and channelise it. The major weakness of the Servodya stand is that in the name of non-partisanship, the common people is disarmed in their fight against the local gentry who is likely to transform Panchayati Raj as the instrument to serve their interest. With the non-participation of political parties the individual would become the centre of power. It is only an organised political party system which promotes discipline and coordination between the State and the Panchayati Raj institutions.

A healthy effect (discernible at national and state level also) of the involvement of political parties at the lower levels, which is gradually becoming obvious, is the polarisation of political forces; the weaker sections coming nearer to the progressive forces, while the traditional groups siding the rightist elements.

As mentioned earlier all this awakening and political participation is less marked in the weaker sections of the rural society, while the upper socio-economic strata in our villages has captured the political power in the panchayats. Even then as a result of the various development programmes the status of lower strata in general, is gradually changing. Construction of new roads, improvement of old ones, increasing transport facilities are bringing the rural centres, closer to the urban ones and influencing their way of thinking in several ways. Abolition of Zamindari and distribution of land among cultivators has given status to many hitherto landless workers in the villages. Spread of education and introduction of Panchayati Raj made them more conscious of their democratic rights indirectly affecting their attitude towards upper castes. A case study\(^1\) of village situated at the border of Lucknow district, confirms that the low caste people are becoming conscious of their own worth and have

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*In his case study of Harijans of Tamil 'nadu A Vagiswani finds Harijans as owner cultivators. Giving comparative figures of per capita income per Harijan and non Harijan house holds he explains that relatively speaking the position of Harijans is not so shocking as often depicted in the popular press or public plateforms. Vagiswari, A. "Income earning trends and social status of Harijan Community in Tamil Nadu", Sangan Publishers, 11 Sunkuram 3, Street, Madra.

\(^1\) Dr. S.L.Chetra, "Changing social status of low caste people in Indian villages", Arakshatra, November, 1969.
started behaving like free citizens of a democratic country; there is a visible occupational diversification and the realisation of the value of education as an important means for upward social mobility. The consciousness of the power of vote has placed them in a better bargaining position with the upper classes than before. Adult suffrage and voting by secret ballot have enabled the weaker sections of the community to assert themselves and to influence the choice of village leaders. They have also broken the hold of the dominant castes. Factions among the dominant castes have had to cultivate the weaker sections in their struggle for power to retain their privileged position. Traditionally dominant groups have begun to be attentive to their needs. Such attention bears witness to the power in their hands. Village society is undergoing a gradual transformation. There is a definite change in the social status and economic condition of the scheduled castes, tribes and backward classes. There has also been a marked rise in their expectations. The new political system has been a powerful contributory cause of the change. The weaker sections have begun to participate in the political process; though the degree of their participation is yet rather limited as compared with that of the dominant castes in the village society.

+ In this connection the result of the recent Haryana Panchayat elections is most encouraging. According to a report of the Panchayats Directorate, the Panchayat elections presents a new sociological pattern promising the uplift of the scheduled castes who had always been looked down upon by the high castes. Out of the total of 28,000 Panches the number of the scheduled castes Panches is 5,400. The Hindustan Times, August, 24, 1971. Panchayat elections in Andhra Pradesh in June 1970 also testify that not only a large number of young men, but also a considerable number from the scheduled tribes and Harijans and in some villages women had been elected as Sarpanches. Airukushetra - October 16, 1972.
The process of transformation is accelerated by the green revolution in the country, which has widened the gulf between the upper and lower classes of the rural society and thus has directly helped in promoting the political consciousness among the weaker sections and made them more conscious of their present position. As an impact of green revolution, the traditional pyramidal structure in the villages is being eroded. "The hold of the leaders of different factional groups in less homogenous villages is also declining. Several factors are responsible for this. The first and foremost is the growing political consciousness of the landless— a direct result of the dramatic increase in their bargaining power and a not so dramatic improvement in their economic condition due to the increasing demand of labour resulting from multiple cropping and intensive farming." The small farmer is subject to all kinds of caste, kinship and regional pressures that pull in separate directions. The impression one gets is of certain determination on the part of the smaller cultivator to free himself from these issues."

Among lower caste villages (generally found among the landless) the idea of leadership is growing. Having lost their traditional advantages, but having secured constitutional rights, they are more united than before, and are choosing

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their own leaders. Whereas the landowning classes may vote one way, it is felt, the landless may vote another. The landless are more likely to vote for parties with progressive policies likely to benefit them.

The fear that "it may not even be safe to devolve power to the so called Panchayati Raj bodies because such power would make the existing exploitation more ruthless" in the absence of communitarian spirit and that "These bodies are bound to operate to the detriment of the weaker sections as their powers do not accrue from sanctions from below but are handed from above", seems unfounded on the basis of past experience.

The criticism that the new political system has made the rich richer and the poor, poorer is also not valid. The poor may not have become poorer but the widening disparity gives such an impression. Especially with the village leadership having passed into the hands of the rich peasants, their power and influence are more directly felt.

The conclusion, that the weaker sections have not reaped the benefits of Panchayati Raj and have not won positions commensurate with their number, would seem to be premature. It is to be remembered that social change in a

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traditional society is never spectacular and is often imperceptible. Men are judged as they are, institutions will become what men make of them. Now what is needed in India is to adopt the attitudes of the people to the changing circumstances. "The defects stemming from lack of education and excessive interplay of political, regional and cast factors should be remedied to bring in improvement and ensure that there will be no square pegs in round holes".

Economic Implications:

Coming to the economic implications of Panchayati Raj the first thing which draws attention is democratic planning through democratic decentralisation.

Democratic Planning through Democratic Decentralisation:

The problems faced by us are difficult and the development problems are many while the possibility of mobilizing required resources by way of central and state revenues is so limited that for maximization of effort it is essential to explore the possibility of local mobilisation of resources for local development.

The sectors in which our development has to be specially active and vigorous are agriculture, small scale industries and related sectors. A central plan can only provide certain broad guidelines for development in these sectors. But for effective results to be obtained, specific

1. Douglas Ensminger - "Rural India in transition" All India Panchayat Parishad.
schemes of development have to be formulated on the basis of detailed knowledge of the local situation. Development of various kinds of activities — industry, agriculture, transport, social services etc., have to be coordinated so as to ensure balanced development of these sectors by maximum utilisation of the potential created. Urban, Semi-urban, and rural areas in a given area have to be thought together when the possibilities of further development are worked out. This requires integration of sectoral development programmes not only at the national and state level, but also at the local levels. Surprisingly enough the Community Development programme which was launched in order to achieve village transformation was given more or less the same administrative apparatus which had been built up by the British to rule over a slave country. Some exceptions were however, noticed in some blocks where the enthusiastic and zealous workers in the official and non-official sectors combined and worked with devotion. But ultimately these patches became show pieces. The villages remained passive and indifferent to these changes. This led the Mehta Committee Report which recommended Democratic Decentralisation. The concept of planning from below was a part of the process of Democratic Decentralisation. The idea was that the state Five Year Plan and the Annual Plan should be broken into district and block plans under which each village should have its own development plan, to give willing acceptance to its objectives by millions of small farmers in order to enlist their active participation.
Here it is also necessary to have a clear perspective of the planning process. "Planning is basically a backward and forward process - an exercise in successive approximation as well as successive coordination. While the tentative targets go from the Planning Commission to the Central Ministries, States, Districts and block planning bodies, it is the modified proposals of these authorities which subsequently come back to the Planning Commission that forms the base of the formation of the final plan. Planning at Village, block, district or State level presupposes oneness of mind at various levels and, on a fairly long term basis regarding the main objectives of the plan. Detailed and searching surveys of the problems involved are called upon at every process of planning. Planning requires fitting in of numerous details and analysis of facts. It also requires experts and technical people with adequate knowledge, experience and objectivity to chalk out a plan of action." 1 Therefore it is not within the means of such elected bodies, as village Panchayats, Panchayat Samitis or even Zila Parishads to prepare the detailed working plans. Yet the final responsibility for planning must be taken by the people's representatives and the final say has to be theirs. Panchayati Raj has made a substantial advance in providing political education to the people and creating psychological receptivity in the village to look vigorously for the solution of the problems faced in the field of planning.

Another notable achievement in this connection is the newly emerging pattern of coordinated district development. With the advent of large scale planning on the one hand and Panchayati Raj on the other, all national, regional and local agencies are coming closer to one another, and the different governmental and quasi-governmental operational agencies within the district, have developed an awareness for coordinated and integrated approach in programming and implementation. There is growing consultation both vertical and horizontal between agencies discharging related functions. For example, Life Insurance Corporation has to seek the assistance of Gram Panchayats, Cooperatives and local leadership for the mobilisation of rural insurance and the regional officers of Khadi and Village Industries Boards have to keep themselves in close contact with the local institutions for the purpose of coordinated programming and their implementation, and the result is the emergence of a new pattern of areal organisation. This new pattern of areal organisation is to work on more concrete lines, when the ideology of "Growth Centres" is fully developed and covers the whole country.

Panchayati Raj & Agriculture:

As Panchayats are the agencies for the socio-economic development, therefore, they are closely related with the economic problems of the rural folk. Thus they look after the interests of agriculturists, artisans and labourers etc., apart from the multi-tuped activities which have been assigned to them.
With the implementation of Panchayati Raj, Panchayat Samiti has been made responsible for planning and development of the area. The technique of planning adopted by these Samities is similar to regional planning or area development planning. Now these newly constituted panchayats have under them a wide range of rural activities covering almost all the aspects of rural life with particular emphasis on agricultural development. Agriculture being the main stay of rural folk has a prior claim and no economic, social or cultural revolution is possible without agricultural revolution. With this view the Third and Fourth Five Year Plans of India have given considerable weight to agricultural development. To achieve this end the system of VILLAGE AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION PLANS has been introduced. The village panchayats have been associated with this work. This has involved the village community in the task of the development under the guidance of Panchayats. The Mussoorie Conference on community development also recommended that "Each village in block should have an agricultural plan and targets for each item of agricultural production should be worked out on the basis of funds available for this purpose from various sources." For a rapid balanced development it is necessary to seek help of the gram panchayats, Cooperative Society as well as other social and functional agencies in

1. See proceedings of Mussoorie conference on Community Development
the preparation of village plan consisting of agriculture, industry, education, social and cultural development. This plan is to be implemented through various committees, under the overall supervision of Panchayat because a village as a unit is under the Panchayat. The Panchayat Samiti being the planning and development body at the block level, prepares an estimate of the resources such as fertilizer, seeds, credit, manpower, irrigation potential etc. The block authorities collect data from each village regarding land utilization, waste land, population, cultivation pattern. This helps in preparing plan of the block and checking any imbalances in the village plan which is to be a digested form of plans approved by the Gram Sabha.

It is necessary that the production plan should consist of realistic items of works, practices and demonstrations to be adopted in the village. The Third Five Year Plan has mentioned the following in connection with the agricultural production plan at the village level:

1. Full utilisation of irrigation facilities, including maintenance of field channels in good condition by the beneficiaries, repair and maintenance of community irrigation works and economy in the use of water.

2. Increase in area under multiple cropping.

3. Multiplication in the village of improved seed and its distribution to all cultivators.
5. Programme for composting and green manuring.
6. Adoption of improved agricultural practices, e.g. soil conservation, contour bunding, dry farming, drainage, land reclamation, plant protection, etc.
7. Programme for new minor irrigation works to be undertaken in the villages, both through community participation and on an individual basis.
8. Programme for the introduction of improved agricultural implements.
9. Programme for increasing production of vegetables and fruit.
11. Animal husbandry, e.g. supply and maintenance of stud bulls, establishment of artificial insemination centres and castration of scrub bulls etc.
12. Programme for the development of the village fuel plantations and pastures.

These programme would differ in regard to areas where there are major and medium irrigation works or where there is adequate rainfall and in regard to unirrigated dry areas. The following are some of the basic criteria for selection of works to be included in the village production plans:

a) These must be practicable and achievable by most of the cultivators in the village.

b) These should concentrate on the use of local man-power and readily available resources.
c) These should, as far as possible, be of short-term duration so that their results are immediate and effective.
d) These should not involve excessive financial outlays and considerable dependence on outside materials which are difficult to secure.
e) These should reflect exact utilisation of outside assistance in the form of seeds, services, etc. ensured to the villagers from above.

These programmes fall under two groups; (1) supply of credit, fertilizers, improved seeds, assistance for plant protection, minor irrigation, etc. for which a measure of assistance has to come from outside the village, (ii) programmes such as digging of field channels, contour bunding, digging and maintenance of village tanks, development and utilisation of local manural resources, village fuel plantation, etc. which call for an effort on the part of the village community or beneficiaries.

The effectiveness of the production plan depends upon various factors e.g.

1. Administration of work and Management.
2. Technical guidance.
4. Adequacy of loan, etc.
The Gram Panchayat is responsible for the Administration and Management, technical guidance, arrangement for supplies of seeds, fertilizers, implements etc. Theoretically speaking, all this is within the resources of the village panchayat. As regards credit facilities, the cooperatives are expected to follow closely the village production plan. However, practice shows that coordination of activities of bureaucratic Government officials, local self Government officials and democratic organisations and cooperatives is a SINE QUA NON of the progress of rural India. In many spheres of activities village panchayat has to look upon the support of cooperatives but no serious thought has been given to the problem of coordination of their activities. This is why in all the developmental activities whether GROW MORE FOOD CAMPAIGN or IADP the progress achieved has been below expectations.

The Intensive Agricultural Development Programme which was initiated in 1969-61 has now proved that the village production plans can go a long way in increasing

1. Seminar on problems of Panchayati Raj (N.I.C.D., Hyderabad, 1969) recommended the close collaboration between Panchayats and Cooperatives at the village and the higher levels. It suggested that a reasonable percentage of loanable funds of cooperatives should be earmarked for assistance to the weaker sections, e.g., small farmers, artisans, and landless labourers and the rate of interest subsidised by the State Governments. The Panchayats on its side would prepare special programmes for the benefit of the weaker sections to be implemented as Panchayati Raj Programme.
farm productivity provided the package of farm facilities is easily available to the farmer. The I.A.D.P. Evolution Reports further witness that the results have been poor due to lack of coordination in the activities of Block Samiti, Cooperative Institutions, Government Departments and Panchayats. In a case study Dr. Sami has clearly pointed out that in Aligarh the causes of slow progress of I.A.D.P. have been the neglect of cooperation department and cold war between the officials of agriculture and cooperative department. Every one wanted to snatch power at the cost of the programme. Thus the I.A.D.P., could not succeed in the early period of its implementation in Aligarh. However, later on panchayats were involved in the task of rural uplift with the result that-

1. I.A.D.P., was to be worked in selected district (district being the key of administrative unit was considered the focus of agricultural development) which had maximum irrigation and minimum natural hazards. The programme would provide all the essential elements needed for increasing production including credit to all participating cultivators and would also demonstrate the most effective ways of increasing production by the application of scientific know-how. The most essential feature of the programme is to provide timely, qualitative and adequate credit and other farm requisites including plant protection material on the basis of production capacity and cultivators' needs, not on the basis of his credit worthiness, securities offered, land valuation and mortgages etc., etc.

2. Intensive Agricultural District Programme II Report (1960-65) Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development, Cooperative (Department of Agriculture),

3. Dr. Sami Uddin "Scope and Problems of Cooperatives in India", Aligarh Muslim University, Publication 1964 page 37.
The Panchayats have carried the message of GREEN
REVOLUTION to masses to boost up agricultural production.
The Community Development and N.E.S. Programmes coupled
with other special programmes of agricultural development
for example I.A.D.P. (Intensive Agriculture District
Programme), I.A.A.P. ¹ (Intensive Agricultural Area Programme),
S.F.D.A. ² (Small Farmers Development Agency), and M.F.D.A. ³
(Marginal Farmers and Agriculture Labourers Development
Agency) being successfully implemented through Panchayati
Raj institutions has gone a long way in giving a general face
lift to the village economy and changing the outlook and
approach of the agriculturist who now considers agriculture
as agri-business. There has been a marked shift from
subsistence farming to commercial and mechanised farming.
The Green Revolution is not a myth but a reality now. The
total production of foodgrains in India has increased from
54.9 million tonnes in 1949-50 to 99.5 million tonnes in

1. The idea behind this programme is to plan the development
strategy of a particular area according to its potentiality.
A certain area may have enough potential for dairy or cattle
breeding whereas other areas may be more potential for
fruit growing and some other areas may be more suited and
potential to cereals.

2. The Small Farmers Development Agency is in Central Sector.
A provision of 67.50 crores has been made for 4th plan for
this purpose for 46 projects. Under this scheme districts
are to be selected keeping in view the adequate number of
small but potential viable farmers, a strong cooperative
base and reasonable irrigation facilities. A small farmer
has been defined as one holding 2.5 to 6 acres of land.

3. The scheme is introduced for helping landless labourer
whose 50% or more income comes from Agricultural wages and
sub-marginal farmers with holdings not more than one
hectare. The participants are paid 33 1/3 % subsidy under
the scheme for investment in (i) Soil conservation and land
levelling (ii) Poultry development (iii) Piggery and Dairy
Development. The other important feature of the scheme is
the construction of link roads, storage tanks etc. During
the 4th plan 40 such projects are to be set up with a
 provision of 47.50 crores in different parts of the
country.

N.B. The S.F.D.A. and M.F.D.A. are financing agencies but they
are working in cooperation with the Panchayati Raj bodies
for effective financing and implementation of their
1969-70. Even more significant is the fact that per hectare yield has increased from 553 kilograms to 805 kilograms.

High yielding varieties were first introduced on a large scale in 1966-67. The area under them has made a substantial increase from 1.9 million hectares in 1966-67 to over 14 million hectares in 1970-71.

Minor irrigation covered 12.9 million hectares in 1950-51. By the end of 1969-70 it was extended to 19.6 million hectares.

Fertiliser consumption was stepped up to 17.6 lakh tonnes of nutrients in 1968-69 and about 21.6 lakh tonnes in 1970-71.

The gross area benefited by Plant protection measure has increased from 18.6 million hectares in 1965-66 to 40 million hectares in 1968-69. In 1970-71 it is expected to be around 52 million hectares. Further increase in the production can be managed by multiple cropping. This programme was first introduced in 1967-68 and covered about 17.5 million hectares by the close of 1969-70.¹

The area sown more than once is about 19.6 million hectares or just about 15 per cent of the cropped area. A major part of the double cropped area about 16 million hectares lies in the rainfed areas, and the remaining 3.6 million hectares are in the irrigated areas.

Roughly about 15 per cent of the irrigated and non-irrigated area is under double cropping. But, only about 27 per cent of the double cropped area raises more than one irrigated crop.

The increase in the cropping intensity and the irrigation intensity from the present low of 115 per cent and 119.1 per cent to about 150 per cent is calculated to lead to an increase of 8.5 million hectares under crops, and of 12.75 million tonnes of food-grains, and a substantial increase in the production of cash crops.

During the period from January 1970 upto the end of August 1971 small and marginal farmers invested in 2025 tubewells, 3336 dung wells, 1643 pump sets, 1367 units of milch cattle and 419 units of poultry birds with the funds available to them.

Upto the end of August 1971 credit has been disbursed to the tune of over Rs.562 lakhs on short term, over Rs.67 lakhs on medium term and over Rs.192 lakhs on long term basis. S.F.D.A. and M.F.A.L. agencies spent during the same period over Rs.33 lakhs on risk fund contribution, over Rs.8 lakhs on subsidies for various programmes, over Rs.5 lakhs on staff over Rs.23 lakhs on share capital contribution to cooperatives. The agencies have been able to list over 9 lakhs potentially viable small farmers and over 3 lakhs marginal farmers and agricultural labourers, of whom over 2 lakhs of the first category and 27,000 of the second have been brought into the cooperative fold.

It is with these achievements that the Union Government decided not to enter into any fresh commitments for the import of food grains from the U.S.A., under the PL 480 Scheme after the expiry of the present agreement in June 1972. The Government also decided to stop all food grains imports by December 1971 in view of the sizeable buffer stock* of 8.5 million tonnes of food grains with the centre. 1

In 1967-68 only 18 percent of the wheat average was sown to the new dwarf wheats conceived for the green revolution - but these varieties produced 40 percent of India's wheat crop. In 1968 the national average Indian wheat yield was 1,300 pounds per acre, a 62 percent increase over the average for 1962-65.

In the State of Bihar where famines have been epidemic for hundreds of years there are today districts where four-fifths of the wheat grown is of high yielding varieties and yields per acre have increased from 720 pounds to over 1,300 pounds. 2


* Punjab would contribute 8.5 lakh tonnes of wheat to the central pool in the current year (all time record for the state) and Haryana would give 4 lakh tonnes, thus the two states together would be meeting 50% of the central pool demanded for the entire country. The buffer stock position of rice is gradually improving. The last rice year (November, 1971) opened with a stock of 4 lakh tonnes in the central pool; the current year has 9 lakh tonnes in the central godowns. The main problem now is of storage and food grain movement, Hindustan Times, December 30, 1971.
The Planning Commission has asked States to give special attention to the high-yielding varieties programme relating to rice in the annual Plan for 1972-73 to make a decisive impact on the attainment of the Plan targets for rice production at the State and national levels.

The guidelines issued by the Commission to the States for the formulation of the States' annual plans underscore the necessity for reorienting them to provide for greater intensification of agricultural activities so as to help in absorbing the unemployed and under-employed in the rural economy.

Besides maximising agricultural production, the Commission has advised the States to provide financial outlays next year for strengthening the share capital of primary credit societies which should be reorganised, for construction of grain storage and for urban consumer co-operative activity in order to maintain price stability. The States have also been asked to establish rural dairy centres to cover smaller towns.

According to Commission, the annual plan for 1972-73 should also enable as large a section of the rural population as possible, including the small cultivator and the farmer in dry areas to participate in development and share its benefits.

Pointed attention would have to be given to the specific programme of multiple cropping and provision should be made for a major thrust forward to increase cropping intensity.

High priority should be attached to the programmes having a bearing on research, extension and development in respect of pulses, cotton and jute.

For financing agricultural programmes adequate plan provision would have to be made to develop the financial strength as well as organisational competence of various financial institutions like land development banks, co-operative banks and credit societies.

Economic plantations for industrial and commercial uses should be given a high priority while determining the allocation for the annual plans relating to forests.
For the applied nutrition programme, the State Governments would have to earmark funds for the production components under 'horticulture', 'minor irrigation', 'poultry' and 'fisheries' in the agriculture sector for the effective community development blocks that would be in operation during 1972-73.

Recently the government has finalised a scheme for setting up Agro-service centres in every community development block, by technically qualified persons who will undergo training conducted by Agro-Industrial Corporations. The main functions of these centres will be hiring and maintenance of farm machinery, soil testing, distribution of fertilisers and other chemicals, undertaking spraying for crop protection, sowing and harvesting with machines, training farmers in the latest techniques and adopt villages on a pilot project basis. The centre will also help in the decentralisation of production and supply of consumer goods in remote areas. The scheme is to bring about technical know-how to the villages on a national scale and to spread base agricultural input facilities.

Growth Centres - a necessary corollary of balanced development:

The accumulated achievements of Community Development Programme and the new agricultural strategy have brought about, over the last two decades, some basic

+ So far 95 agro service centres have been started by trained engineers and 53 cooperatives have started functioning. The Govt., hopes to establish 2,500 centres within the next two years - Hindustan Times, May 22, 1972.
alterations in rural economy in India, Agricultural production functions have changed and new demand patterns are emerging both in the sphere of production and consumption. This new approach is embodied in a new and more comprehensive concept, namely the concept of "growth centres". The salient features of the scheme are firstly, the scheme drawn up for different growth centre areas should be based on local resources, conditions and needs. For this purpose the scheme should retain a certain degree of flexibility. Secondly the area development scheme should be an integrated whole embracing the work of all the developmental agencies and projects should be linked with larger plans for economic development in rural areas. The scheme known as "Pilot Research Project in Growth Centres" is centrally sponsored and is being implemented in the fourth plan. An outlay of Rs.1.45 crore has been provided in the plan. The aim of the Pilot Research Project is to evolve a broad research methodology and pattern for identifying growth centres and to indicate how the growth potential of these centres can be promoted through a comprehensive and scientific study of overall development needs and to weave these centres meaningfully into the framework of the District Plan. The organisation of the countryside should provide channels through which goods and services can move from each rural household to the total society in which they are located. For this the missing facilities have to be arranged. To locate these functional gaps and provide the needed facilities at appropriate place
has been the principal aim of the Pilot Research Project.

In this connection it is necessary to coordinate the recently introduced Crash Scheme* for Rural Employment with Pilot Research Project because the former also interalia aims at the creation of durable assets in the rural sector.

The question of financing and execution of the development programme is fundamental. There is room both for official agencies and the private enterprise. Credit needs in the Growth Centres may largely be met by the Lead Banks District Programme. In this connection the scheme of the State Bank of India to start 150 agricultural branches to meet the needs of agriculture is important. The Industrial Development Bank of India may also find it possible to finance some long term projects. The Agro-Industries Corporations and the State Industrial Development Corporation should also collaborate with the Growth Centres exercise.

Panchayati Raj has been common to all these programmes. It serves as a platform for the execution of these programmes by creating consciousness and desire for the same. It provides better link between the new technology and its feasibility under particular situation, and creates a sense of partnership between the centre and the local institutions for the noble ideal of common good. This paves the way for the ready acceptance of these programmes.

* The scheme has two fold purpose. Rural projects of various kinds should provide employment for 1,000 persons on an average continuously over a working season of 10 months in a year in every district. Secondly each project should produce work or assets of durable nature in consonance with the local development plans. A sum of Rs. 50 crores was allocated for the (contd...)
RURAL INDUSTRIALISATION

Agricultural development has to be accompanied by industrial development to secure balanced growth of rural economy. P.R., institutions are coming forward in this direction too. Modernisation of agriculture has created great demand for agricultural implements, fertilizers, pesticides and fungicides etc. The demand has to be met by establishment of industrial units and engineering workshops near the centres of demand.

Another important development of the agricultural boom is the prosperity of the agriculturists, enabling them to invest the surplus money in industry, meeting all kinds of local demands for goods and services. A vast variety of consumer goods have to be produced with the fundamental change towards the attitude of life in the rural society. Within a country as vast as India the levels of economic development vary not only from State to State but also from region to region within the state, causing grave social and political tensions. Rural industrialisation is to upgrade wisely the economic levels of the rural and semi-urban areas in the country, and to tackle the problem of unemployment in these areas.

Scheme during 1971-72 and proposals amounting to Rs. 46,316 crores for 345 districts have been approved so far. The scheme has been transferred to the Plan Sector as a central scheme with effect from 1972-73 and a provision of Rs. 100 crores will be made during the last two years of Fourth Plan. The Hindustan Times, January 29, 1972. The total expenditure incurred during the year 1971-72 under the SCRE Programme, as reported till the end of June, '72, is Rs. 32,32 crores and this has resulted in the generation of 808,17 lakh man days of employment - Kurukshetra August 1, 1972 p. 19.
Even in advanced countries like the U.S.A. the home of the industrial giants, small units make up 92.5 per cent of the establishments, employ 45 per cent of the country's workers and handle 29 per cent of the volume of business in the country. Sericulture, silviculture and vineiculture in France, dairying in Denmark, toymaking, lace and embroidery works in Italy and Holland, cocoon-rearing and poultry-farming in Japan and watch and instrument-making in Switzerland have contributed to rural prosperity in these countries.¹

In the first decade of our national planning which began in 1951 the small scale sector was considered poor in relation to the large scale sector. Nevertheless at the end of the second decade of planning the small scale sector has emerged as a very significant arm of the industrial structure in the country, as reflected by its growth rate, employment as well as production performance.

Rural industrialisation is a three tier structure. At its bottom are the rural artisans who form the infrastructure for the village economy. They comprise diverse occupations like carpentry, pottery, blacksmithy and weaving. Because of little technological input into them these occupations are tended to become stagnant, while on the other hand the needs

¹ Khadigramudyo July 1967, p.711.
of the rural society are becoming more sophisticated, particularly in the areas touched by the "green revolution". It is to help these sections of the people that recently the Government has initiated a rural artisan programme in 86 select project areas of the country. The object is to provide the artisans with special training to upgrade their occupational skills, and to give them suitable equipment and tools that would enable them to meet the challenges of society. An amount of Rs. 5 lakh to Rs. 10 lakhs is spent in each project area over a period/five years. The basic elements of this programme are not new and have already been tried in the early days of community development programme.

The next tier in rural industrialisation are the basic village industries generally looked after by a statutory body, the Khadi Village Industry Commission, whose technical personnel provide guidance to those engaged in these industries. These industries are processing of cereals and pulses, Ghani oil, leather and tanning, the cottage match industry, Khandari and Palm Gur, non-edible oil and soap, hand made quality paper, Gober Gas, manufacture of shellac, fruit processing and preservation, bamboo and cane work, manufacture of gum resins and industrial extracts from minor forest produce. The commission is also maintaining a research centre at Wardha to devise improved tools and techniques for use in agricultural operations.
The total production of such industries looked after by the Khadi Commission is estimated to be about Rs.78 lakhs in 1969-70 of which about Rs.65.5 lakh is being sold. Nearly one million persons are being employed in such industries. Rs.27 crores are distributed as wages. The programme is spread over 1.25 lakh villages all over the country. The commission has to enlist the full support of the Panchayati Raj bodies in making the programme a success. In Orissa, Panchayat bodies have taken up industrialisation in an earnest manner and extension officers have been appointed for this purpose. They have even initiated a prize scheme under which the first two panchayats in every distict are awarded a prize of Rs.50,000 and Rs. 25,000 for establishing industries of their choice. At the state-level again, three best panchayats are awarded prizes of Rs.50,000, Rs. 25,000 and Rs. 10,000.

Another feature of the programme of rural industrialisation is the modern small scale industry, comprising the small units whose technology is basically similar to the large units as in the urban areas but with lower capital investment. Such industries are now being set up in 40 Rural Industries Project areas all over the country. The programme was initiated in 1962. On an average

2. Khadigramudayog, July 1967. Similar type of schemes may be practiced by the P.R. Institutions in other states also.
each project area covered three to five C.D. Blocks with a population three to five lakhs. The programme is however confined to town and villages having a population of 15,000 or below.

The approach adopted for the programme was to organise basic and essential services and facilities for the development of existing industries and crafts, through improved technology and productivity, and to promote new modern small scale industries.

The most significant achievement of the programme is the growth of small industries and the widening range of their activities even in some of the most difficult area. By the end of March 1971, more than 30,000 small industries were provided financial and technical assistance. Of these about 14,000 units were set up for the first time. The industries in the project areas belong to more than 150 types of industries ranging from traditional items to modern industries. This group accounted for 67 percent of the gross value of production and generated 43 percent of the employment opportunities.

Keeping in view the main objectives of rural industrialisation, (i) enlarging employment opportunities (ii) raising incomes and standard of living of rural communities; (iii) diversification of rural occupation;
(iv) reducing exodus to urban centres; (v) eliminating regional economic imbalances; (vi) reducing inequalities in wealth and income; and (vii) securing social justice, the results achieved even in physical terms are quite satisfactory.

The progress of expenditure since the inception of the programme is given in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Grants</th>
<th>Loans</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1962-63 (Actuals)</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>44.36</td>
<td>35.21</td>
<td>79.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>74.80</td>
<td>101.35</td>
<td>176.15</td>
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<tr>
<td>1965-66</td>
<td>104.13</td>
<td>129.98</td>
<td>234.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-67</td>
<td>95.68</td>
<td>127.29</td>
<td>222.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967-68</td>
<td>91.97</td>
<td>105.57</td>
<td>197.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td>101.51</td>
<td>126.81</td>
<td>228.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969-70(Estimated)</td>
<td>99.54</td>
<td>48.18</td>
<td>147.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>614.43</td>
<td>674.51</td>
<td>1288.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kurukshetra, December, 1970

A total expenditure of Rs.13.75 crore has been incurred on this programme during the period 1962-63 to 1970-71. This comprised Rs.6.81 crore for implementation of promotional schemes, viz., provision of training and common facility services, and staff etc. and Rs.6.94 crore as loans to artisans, entrepreneurs and industrial cooperative societies.

The expenditure of Rs. 13.75 crores, both on promotional services and loans, has resulted in a total investment of Rs. 18.58 crore towards the fixed and working capital of the industrial units set up in the project area.

Mobilisation of rural savings can be termed as another important contribution of RIP. Training, provision for technical and financial assistance, supply of improved tools and equipment have resulted in increasing the value of production per worker, which has enhanced the capacity to save.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>No. of workers</th>
<th>Production per worker (Rs.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>32,100</td>
<td>295.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965-66</td>
<td>48,775</td>
<td>620.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-67</td>
<td>68,798</td>
<td>684.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967-68</td>
<td>79,705</td>
<td>878.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td>95,000</td>
<td>1052.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td>1,16,500</td>
<td>1866.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>1,33,343</td>
<td>1981.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Krukshetra October 1, 1971

By the end of March, 1971 nearly 1.3 lakh persons have been provided with gainful employment opportunities by the Rural Industries Project Programme. The 49 Projects cover an area of 234 Community Development Blocks which
roughly equal an area of about 15 districts. Hence it worked out that on an average 8,889 jobs were provided for a district in a period of seven years. This has been achieved with a total expenditure of only Rs.13.75 crore or an expenditure of Rs.1,031 for one work-place. Taking only the expenditure of Rs.6.61 crore on promotional schemes and services, the expenditure per work-place worked out to be only Rs.518. It is estimated that it would be possible to create at least 5,000 new employment opportunities per district in 54 existing projects during the Fourth Plan and about 15,000 work opportunities per district in 104 projects during the Fifth Plan period. The total employment opportunities that are likely to be created in the 104 Rural Industrial Project areas by the end of the Fifth Five Year Plan thus worked out to be more than 20 lakhs.¹

Encouraged by these achievements the programme has to cover 50 new districts in each plan period commencing from Fifth Five Year Plan, with the object of covering the entire country in about 25 years.

A definite policy has been adopted by the Government to provide more incentives for entrepreneurs setting up industries in backward districts/areas selected

¹. Krukshetra, October 1, 1971.
by the Planning Commission for this purpose. These incentives are (i) Outright subsidy amounting to one-tenth of the fixed capital investment in new units having a total fixed capital of not more than Rs. 50 lakhs in the back-ward districts. The maximum amount of this incentive being Rs. 75,000 as outright subsidy; (ii) concessional finance provided by various financial institutional to the nearly 200 backward districts and eight union territories, selected by the Planning Commission; (iii) transport subsidy equivalent to 50 percent of the transport cost of both the new materials as well as finished products; and (iv) facilities provided for import of machinery and raw materials for new industries in rural backward areas.

To take up the technological issues and problems in detail, the Ministry of Industrial Development has recently set up an appropriate technology cell in the Ministry.

Credit facilities are being extended to the small scale industries under the various schemes of State Bank of India, Commercial banks, specially nationalised commercial banks and 'Lead Banks' in all the 335 districts all over the country.

1. In order to accelerate the pace of banking development the Reserve Bank of India is implementing a scheme under which a specialised commercial bank is to be designated as lead bank in respect of a particular district.

* Development of technical and managerial aspects of small scale industries is looked after by the small Scale Industries Development Organisation at the Central level and by the State Directorate of Industries at the State level.
Thus the main purpose of rural industrialisation is to overcome the teething period having many strains and stresses on the economy of the country, and to fulfil the national objective - the establishment of a socialist society with dispersed growth, better distribution of wealth and income and the creation of a balanced agro-industrial structure. The rural institutions have to play an important role to secure the objectives, without their assistance it is not possible to enlist the participation and cooperation of the people. They have heavy responsibilities in the execution of all these developmental schemes; their performance in utilising the rural talents for the development of rural economy is quite encouraging. The extension officers (industries) working in the districts and blocks are to carry forward the massive programme of rural industrialisation. The responsibility now rests with the Zila Parishad, Panchayat Samiti and Panchayats to utilise the services of these extension officers for promoting the growth of small scale as well as khadi and village industries and thus pave the way for harmonious and balanced development of the rural economy.

Role of Village Panchayats during Emergency:

In ancient India Panchayats played the role of small units of self-contained and self-reliant groups of people. The central and provincial governments came and went but the social, ethnic and caste structure of the
village communities remained the same. They nurtured a sense of identity and were not perturbed by whatever upheavals took place even at the district levels. They gave the villagers a sense of belonging and local customs and traditions kept them self-satisfied. In medieval India also they were left undisturbed in their limited spheres.

In Independent India Panchayats played successful role during the Chinese and Pakistan aggression. Not only did they create consciousness for increased agricultural production and Industrial output but arranged for the supply of goods through service cooperative and cooperative stores; collected funds for national defence, mobilised public to donate blood and join army. Even after the emergency they look after the village volunteer force and the Defence Labour Bank Scheme. Through their Cooperation Famine Relief work can also be carried out successfully and national reserves can be built up. The important work which can be done by Panchayats is to keep the morale high in the hours of distress and prepare the masses to meet any emergency.
How to sum up the achievements of Panchayati Raj institutions it can be safely concluded that India won Independence as a poor nation. Poverty was everywhere in the life of 350 million people, in the form of meagre food and crowded huts, bare feet and broken pots; and their deepest aspirations were of economic betterment. However today it presents the picture of a gigantic effort to these aspirations. In 560,000 villages of India where nearly 80 per cent of our population live, the tremendous upsurge in growth is most evident. The Indian farmer is no longer alone and helpless. A variety of extension services—expert—guidance backed by increasing supply of irrigation water, fertiliser, improved seeds and implements—are available to him through the Community Development Programme. This programme revitalised by the village Panchayats has enabled the villagers to participate more fully in the task of nation-building.

As a result of all these efforts today, there are not many villages which do not have a school, a dispensary and a well or hydrant for clean drinking water and access roads. To a number of villagers even these basic amenities were unknown ten years ago. Electricity is reaching the countryside, lighting villagers' homes and working their water pumps.

For some important physical achievements of Panchayati Raj in U.P. see Appendix G
Much in our villages is however still old. Mud huts, cow-dung cakes and bullock carts are there; but some new things have come in; tractors, farm machines, wrist watches, bicycles, sewing machines, ready-made shirts, radio sets and even jeeps. No doubt the higher attainments of science and technology have yet to reach the villages. But the process of change has begun.

The rise in literacy and the spread of education has brought about an explosion of ideas and a new intellectual ferment. Radio and films have progressively enabled even the illiterate among the rural population to be in touch with social and political changes. And this change is following downward in a democratic framework.

Under the impact of political forces released and nourished by the emergence of a democratic secular society and by the growth of representative institutions like Panchayats and co-operatives in rural areas, social status and political power is passing from the hands of the old urban elite to the hitherto less-privileged sections. A new leadership - in science, in commerce, in industrial enterprise, in politics - is rising from the grass-roots; it is more responsive to new ideas; is better equipped to acquire and handle new tools.
In short what we are witnessing is transition from primitive and feudal to modern. Here is diversification of skills and re-deployment of faculties which hundreds of years ago achieved the finest in art, philosophy and social organisations. There is economic development operating as an instrument of social change. This social change is in turn stirring the process of equalisation of opportunities and further accelerating economic growth. A long distance has been covered; a longer road lies ahead.¹

¹ Krukshetra, August 16, 1971.
LIABILITIES

Political and Administrative Concerns:

Along with some of these significant gains, some stresses and strains emanating from Panchayati Raj have become more pronounced. An unfortunate consequence of Panchayati Raj has been the "Politicalization of village politics, the village which had survived from early time independently of the power politics that went on the capital was now drawn into political whirlpool. This in turn was grafted on to the traditional common rivalries that exist in the villages; hence paradoxically, Panchayati Raj has unwillingly given a new lease of life to entrenched vested interests and a new rationale to them to impose their tyranny on the people below them."¹

Initially few had expected the new institutions to gather strength and prestige so rapidly, but as government devolved more powers on them, the Sarpanch and the President of the Samiti acquired a new status in the eyes of his fellow citizens. He was not merely a respected non-official whose words carried weight with the District Collector or the State Minister; in many instances he was himself the executive authority to make

¹ Ram K.Vepa "Has Panchayati Raj any future" Local Govt. Institutions in Rural India, N.I.C.D., Pages 251.
appointments, to make transfers of teachers, or grant loans to agriculturists. He had with him the entire apparatus of administration, a team of officials, a jeep and all the other prerequisites of office. These offices, therefore became coveted ones and when the time for the elections to these posts drew nearer there was intense canvassing in which political parties became prominent and considerable expenditure was incurred. There was also marked corruption in the techniques of election (not excluding kidnapping and murder to ensure victory at election. "Thus by the mid-sixties, the earlier group of non-officials who had come into Panchayati Raj to do service were replaced by more 'hard boiled' veterans who had fought their way to these offices", and so Panchayati Raj system which in the first few years "attracted some devoted and dedicated men with idealism, quickly became a pawn in political squabes and party manoeuvres". 1

Instead of enthusiasm from the lower level reaching up to the Zila Parishad it has been experienced in almost all the states that politics has travelled down to the village level from the Zila Parishad. The programme evaluation organisation in its several report had made it clear that factions and fads have got accentuated by

1. Ibid.
Panchayati Raj. The impact of Panchayati Raj became more far-reaching, as conventions regarding politics at the rural level are yet to be established and the price of political interference at times is to be paid in terms of development. As a result "in the working of its institutional framework evidence of both creative liberty and destructive licence have become discernible, and it has precipitated rise of power; power that invades the vacuum left by receding social authority. When traditional authority appeared to crash down or subverted, it began to seek the security of organised power, and Panchayati Raj institutions provided this."¹

Having come to power with the backing of these traditional groups of people, the newly elected Sarpanch or Samiti President generally satisfy themselves in many ways - transferring officials and teachers according to their choice and making available loans and grants which are known to be misused. For example, for obtaining application the extension personnel have to disseminate the information among the ryot which the generally do not. The Gram Sewaks who are the nerve centres of the development process have no attraction in their job because of stagnation and lack of promotional prospects, with the result that whenever a new scheme is taken up for implementation at the block level,

the Gram Sevak brings it to the notice of the Sarpanch first and next to one or two prominent ryots only of the village who are in touch with him.

By the time the small farmer comes to know of the benefit, the opportunity is already grabbed by the Sarpanch and his followers. Even if there is a little chance for the small farmer to get benefited, he is hesitant to come out because of the fear of subscription to national savings, sale of T.B. seals or some benefit drama ticket imposed by the Gram Sevakas to achieve their allotted targets.

At the Samiti level also the Sarpanches being the members of the standing committees concerned, are in a position to adopt resolutions conferring the benefits on their own relatives or followers leaving little chance for the small farmers, to get benefited by the developmental activities of the Samiti. The Oil engines, agricultural implements, pesticides and fertilisers are distributed on loans basis but the major portion of these schemes has always been taken away by the people, sufficiently well off, with the small farmer remaining a passive onlooker of the developmental activities.
As a consequence Panchayati Raj system, acting as a means of patronage, has meant concentration of economic and political powers in the same hands, with the result that political haves have turned into economic haves. Following are the findings of a case study \(^1\), in... Andhra Pradesh." In the set-up obtaining in Andhra, the Panchayat Samiti is the important unit and its President the key figure in the area. The Samiti President has the power to give administrative sanction to non-recurring expenditure up to Rs. 30,000 for minor irrigation works, school buildings, village roads etc. For recurring expenditure the limit is Rs. 10,000. Besides he can also give grants-in-aid. These power establish his primacy in decision-making at the block level. Since most of the public activities in the area are within his financial calling, he is virtually supreme.

The Samiti and its standing committees also select sites for development programmes and decide such matters as inclusion of villages in the package programme or operation of the intensive manuring scheme. All this adds up to a sizeable power of patronage. The medium and small farmers remain beholden to the Samiti President for one gesture or another. There is much give and take in the operation of this key lever of power.

In most cases, the Samiti Presidents either belong to or are with the ruling party and especially its dominant faction. An interesting development recently has been that educated young men from rich peasant families are taking an active part in panchayat politics. It is regarded as the first step on the path to political career. Very often, all the levers of influence are in the same family or group of families."

The same experience is supported by Rasheed Talib in his study of Maharashtra State. "The Zila Parishads in Maharashtra are thus not only powerful tools for rising local politicians to entrench themselves in rural politics; they are also a rich source of dispensing patronage. An American scholar, Mary C Carras, has observed after careful study that like other states, the functions entrusted to the Zila Parishad in Maharashtra were entirely of a developmental nature (projects in public health, agriculture and so on) economically the Zila Parishad was and is largely dependent on State Government funds to carry out its duties. However, the powers with which it was invested - or which it otherwise assumed - to make decisions regarding the distribution of benefits in project and spheres of activity entrusted to it, gave to the Zila Parishads in Maharashtra considerable political weight as relatively independent dispensers of patronage."

"Parallel to the development of the Zila Parishads has been the growth of the cooperative movement in Maharashtra. As part of a package of agricultural reforms, predating the green revolution, a whole series of State-inspired cooperatives have sprung into existence since the first sugar cooperative was set up in 1955 at Parwara.

Thus there is no doubt that the Zila Parishads and Cooperatives Societies are important sources for dispensing patronage in the Maharashtra country side."

The control over the government machinery and its capacity to dispense patronage at different levels down to the grass roots, places the ruling party in most advantageous position. "Through the programme of community development projects, the national extension service and Panchayati Raj institutions, the ruling party is in a position to influence the implementation of welfare activities. It is also in position to see that opposition parties are not given opportunities to undertake such activities. The result is that those who are excluded from power also get excluded from the benefits of it. In rural areas to oppose party in power often amounts to being cut off from patronage. One hears complaints that the supporters

1. Ibid.
of Congress have used their position in Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads to penalise whole villages which voted for opposition candidates by delaying or denying them approach roads, dispensaries, cooperatives, fertilisers or corrugated sheets.  

This partisan approach has got accentuated as political rivalries increased and brought disruption to the entire Panchayati Raj system of administration. The situation has further aggravated by the fact that in the Panchayati Raj Acts passed by the various states, there are no specific provisions to make the office bearers of the Panchayati Raj institutions accountable for the misuse of power, perhaps because of a mistaken notion, that elected bodies, at whatever level, were supreme and could not be interfered with. Though various legislations provide for the suspension of Chairman and Vice-Chairman of Zila Parishads and Samitis and other non-official office bearers, but the provisions are quite vague. To ensure that the P.R. bodies exercise their powers objectively and impartially it may be worthwhile to establish a Panchayati Raj tribunal as suggested by the Sadiq Ali Committee Report to examine

1. Ibid.
2. Panchayat and Development Deptt. Study Team on P.R., Report, Sadiq Ali, Chairman, Jaipur Rajasthan, 1964
the cases of malpractices and abuse of power against
the non-officials. This tribunal may consist of judges,
preferably the retired high court judges. It is absolutely
necessary that elected bodies like the non-officials are
also made answerable for their malpractices or corrupt
practices. The Seminar¹ on problems of Panchayati Raj
has rightly recommended the establishment of a Statutory
Panchayati Raj Board in each state, composed of senior
officials and non-officials "to watch review and control
the various aspects of Panchayati Raj bodies."

The process of politicization symbolizes itself
into power politics. The establishment of Panchayati Raj
which has divided every Panchayat Samiti and almost every
village into a dominant and opposition group, the former
ruling to the disadvantage of the later; presents a picture
of power built up from bottom to top. As Iqbal Harain has
observed "Political consciousness has, however, not
crystalized as yet into civic consciousness. This can easily
be borne out from the predominance of self-regarding
impulse, overwhelmingly distinct, power orientation of rural

¹ Seminar held under the auspices of the National Insti-
tute of Community Development Hyderabad - 1969
leadership, and its monopoly of power at the higher echelons of authority; the deepening of political factionalism in rural India, the discriminatory and uneven distribution of developmental benefits by the ruling elite by way of patronage among their camp-followers and consequent apathy (which at times assumes the form of open hostility, to developmental programmes; power rivalries between such allied institutions as Panchayats and Cooperatives; the tension between officials and non-officials and so on."

The two important aspects of this power - politics are (a) Relationship between bottom and top leaders and (b) State and Panchayati Raj institutions.

The first symbolises the relationship between Sarpanch and Pradhan, Pradhan and Gramwadi, Pradhan and M.L.A., Gramwadi and M.P. and also the pattern of their cross relationships.

Rivalries between Sarpanch and Pradhan have drawn Sarpanch into Panchayat Samiti politics more and more, thereby neglecting Panchayat affairs. Bare personal equation factor is stronger than organisational linkage.


†. There has been a definite change in that position during the recent past, with more emphasis on various development programmes for the weaker sections of the rural society and increasing polarisation of political forces, considerable improvement is marked in this direction. The achievements of Green Revolution are the result of the joint efforts both of the officials & non-officials.

2. Panchayati Raj and Planning and Democracy. Edited by N.V.Rathor, and Iqbal Mitra, p.3
With the emergence of Panchayat Samiti as the 'King pin' of Panchayati Raj the Pradhan has emerged as the key political figure overshadowing the office of the Pramukh, though with the gradual transfer of power to the parishad, (a recent trend) the later may assume greater importance. A closer contact or clash has also been highlighted in the relationship between the Pradhan and the M.L.A.s. In most cases the Pradhan is to be wooed or ousted by the MLA. The role of M.P. in Panchayati Raj politics is limited at the most to the Zila Parishads. In the first place the constituency of the M.P. being larger, party affiliations being more clearly defined and disciplined, he is steady in his behaviour, hence no clashes occur. At times he keeps the local politics constantly on national track. In the second place, local factors (caste, tradition, personal influence etc.) being more important in case of Panchayati Raj institutions, the impact of state politics on these institutions is only indirect and limited.

In many states where the original scheme of decentralisation is followed and the M.L.A.s or district officials can be directly elected or nominated to serve on the Panchayat Samitis or Zila Parishads, the chances for the assertion of a purely local initiative are greatly reduced.
Coming to the second aspect of power politics which symbolises the relationship between Panchayati Raj institution and state government, the working of the former explains, that they act as the state agencies with a line of officers of the State Development Department, exercising supervision and control over them. Motivated by party politics minister use their power as a "pole axe" to suppress opposition rather than as a "spur" to promote self-government. Centralisation and bureaucratisation are inconsistent with democratic decentralisation. One of the basic requirements of Panchayati Raj was a complete integration between Community Development and local-self government. It is a pity that at present there is a devolution of responsibility and not devolution of power. While the terms 'devolution of power and responsibility and Panchayati Raj are synonymous, delegation of power and Panchayati Raj are contradictory to each other. The Panchayati Raj institutions are acting merely as the agents and limbs of the State administrative machinery and are subject to basic assumptions and limitations of the traditional local-self government. There is neither democratisation, nor decentralisation as far as existing Panchayati Raj system is concerned. No doubt in the under-developed economy due to illiteracy, ignorance, poverty etc., the scope of people's participation is limited.
therefore, the government has to intervene to create leadership. But once the government intervened it never withdraw.

For dynamic rural development it is necessary that there should be downward decentralisation. Discretionary authority should percolate to the lower echelons and the lower staff at the village level should be given more freedom of work so that leadership be encouraged.

The Seminar on problems of Panchayati Raj recommended that the states should eventually divest themselves of development as well as regulatory functions at the district and lower levels, leaving the local bodies to assume complete responsibility for all developmental and welfare work and local socio-economic planning with particular emphasis on agriculture, small industries, family planning etc.

A review of the working of Panchayati Raj institutions has been taken up by some of the voluntary non-governmental organisations like the Indian Institute of Public Opinion and association of Voluntary Agencies for Rural Development, in addition to the evaluation done by the respective state governments and the programme evaluation organisation of the government of India. According to the various reports dealing with the working of the institutions, it is reported that the relationship between the officials and the non-officials is not very cordial, harmonious or happy, with the result that there is a set back in the efficiency of these institutions. The reason is simple, all the political happenings as a result of the introduction of democratic decentralisation had its own impact on the moral of the officials working in the system; the good ones becoming confused and demoralised and the
bad ones taking full advantage of the situation. Prof. Iqbal Narain, a member of Sadiq Ali team, points out the phenomenon of politics demoralising administration. Administration under Panchayati Raj, almost at all levels, again differences of degree apart, can be called a case of alienated administration, because the departments and functionaries whose powers have been transferred to non-officials under Panchayati Raj, have developed an injured psychology born of sense of loss of power, authority and prestige. This is turn has engendered a sort of built in resistance in the departments and the official functionaries to adjust with the change and to own their responsibilities and obligations under the new set up, which has naturally affected their own performance."

"As a logical corollary of the alienated and split character of development administration, the institutional and administrative behaviour has tended to be competitively bi-modal, more atomistic than integral, more negative than positive. This versus that has at times appeared to be emerging as the political idiom of Panchayati Raj."

But apart from politics demoralising administration, the attitude of the officials itself has to share equally the responsibility for this split in administration. Introduced in a background, with strong hierarchical inheritance and caste-like attitude of civil servants, who were also aloof from the broad masses, Panchayati Raj administration faced the apathy of the officials at the cost of development. In the words of Krishnamachari "the greatest obstacle to development in India in my views has always been the mental distance between those who are 'educated' and those who are not, 'educated'. I have an impression that this mental distance has been increasing in recent years". Moreover there is deep status cleavage between Indian administration personnel, those who usually have not been posted below the district level and the rest of the government service which has been left, among other things, to man local rural development projects. It was once complained by Ensminger also that "all too frequently the village worker is looked upon and treated as a low grade peon, not as a co-worker."\(^1\) An important hurdle to development is "also/attitude of technical departments. Due to their hurt ego, they are not taking up the role of guiding the Panchayati Raj institutions but only carrying out

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inspections. (At times, it has also been experienced that technical advice is not always welcomed by the Zila Parishads; nor it adhered to.) The district level officers have developed in general an attitude that the schemes transferred to the Panchayati Raj Institutions are no more their own and as such they have no sense of responsibility towards their successful implementation.

At the Block level, the frictions between the non-official and Block Development Officer is also a known fact. It is felt that the Zila Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Acts do not clearly lay down the line of command and responsibility with regard to the relation of officials and non-officials, and this has resulted in deepening of tensions. Extension officers at Block level are working under a triennial control, i.e., the technical control of the department, departmental control of Block Development Officer; political control of non-officials; quite a few of them are inclined to take note only of political control and ignore or take lightly the other two controlling bodies.

That is why commenting on the weaknesses of Indian Agricultural Development, Guy Hunter feels that "the Government has moved too fast in setting up co-operatives and Panchayati Raj institutions before the staff and political environment was good enough to give a fair chance of success."1

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Therefore, the changes as a result of the new system call for rationalisation in district administration and fresh definition of functions and responsibilities between officials and non-officials and attitude orientation through carefully drawn training programmes.

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF PANCHAYATI RAJ**

**Rural development and weaker sections:**

The community development programme expected to make a major contribution towards improving the well-being of India's less fortunate groups, living in the villages - the landless labourers, the holders of small uneconomic farming units, the village artisans and the persons belonging to the scheduled castes and tribes. At first the programme was in the hands of Block development Committee and the district development committee. Though some non-officials were ex-officio and nominated members of various committees, but they were not effective in the implementation of the programme. The officials of Community Development movement having fixed targets did not bother about beneficiaries of the programme. Extension officers naturally picked up the leaders who in most cases represented old feudal element leaving the poor sections out of programme. Quite a good deal of emphasis was placed on development of land and agricultural production which did not benefit the landless. The amount spent on
land, minor irrigation projects, fertilisers, compost, demonstration schemes naturally benefited only, the land owners. Later on the schemes of development were transferred to the Panchayati Raj administration, without any significant improvement in the lot of those people who were supposed to be the main beneficiaries of the development programmes.

With successive bad harvests after 1962 and shortfall in agricultural production all attention was focused on agricultural development activities neglecting the other aspects of rural development. Dr. Ram Subhag Singh in his report (1963) has recommended that the village level worker should not be burdened with activities unconnected with agricultural production such as those relating to amenities, social service and other technical functions. The introduction of high-yielding variety of crops has kept all the extension officers busy in the agricultural programme at the expense of the basic objective of rural reconstruction programme - the social change.

The rights and privileges of the weaker sections were guaranteed by the constitution and law. No doubt in a democratic set up the power of vote is supreme, and Panchayati Raj set up was expected to make headway in this direction, but that too has not been able to achieve the desired end. Even though there was some representation
of members of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the democratic set up due to reservation of seats for them, there was no safeguard for economically backward classes. As a result the village headman, the leader of particular group who was a rich person, managed to win the election. Besides some qualifications prescribed for standing in the election as office bearers stood in the way of illiterate and economically backward classes. The result was that they were not sufficiently represented in the three tier structure. Even the persons who manage to get elected continue to remain back-benchers. Women generally remain out of the Panchayat Samitis and the Panchayats, mainly due to the old age tradition of remaining in seclusion and lower rate of literacy. Here some facts about rural female literacy may be worth mentioning.

In the 1971 census literacy has been defined as "the ability to read and write with understanding in any language." Though the female literacy has shown some rise, it is mainly due to the concentration of efforts in the urban areas to the comparative neglect of rural areas in which the major portion of the population lives. While the overall national literacy percentage stands at about 30, the percentage of literates among males is 39.5 and that of females 18.5. Percent of the literates live in the urban areas and 33.8 percent in the rural areas. Among females, 41.9 percent literates are in the urban areas and only 12.9 percent in the rural areas.

† Women have been coming out in large numbers as voters, a general trend noticed recently in Lok Sabha election throughout the country.
1. Krukushetra September 1, 1972 p.18
The rate of literacy in the rural parts of the country is 12.92 per cent, when we look at the literacy rate for States Union Territories and Other Areas the picture emerges as shown in Table 20.

From this table it can be seen that there are 10 states and Union Territories which have lower rate of female literacy in rural areas as compared to the national average, which is 12.92 per cent. These 10 states, Union Territories contribute more than 53 per cent of the rural female population of the country and cover almost all States in the North-West and Central India. Amongst the southern States, where the literacy rate is considerably high, Andhra Pradesh, trails behind with only 10.88 per cent of the rural females as literates.

RURAL FEMALE LITERACY RATE 1971

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>State/Union Territory/Other Area</th>
<th>Rural female literacy rate, 1971</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>52.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>L.H. &amp; A Island</td>
<td>30.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>C.D. Diu</td>
<td>30.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>A &amp; N Islands</td>
<td>25.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Pondicherry</td>
<td>23.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>19.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>18.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Meghalaya</td>
<td>18.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>17.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

contd....
11. Maharashtra 17.49
12. Chandigarh 17.47
13. Tripura 17.43
14. Gujrat 17.07
15. Nagaland 16.74
16. Assam 16.25
17. Manipur 16.05
18. West Bengal 14.63
19. Mysore 14.37
20. Orissa 11.94
21. Andhra Pradesh 10.83
22. Haryana 9.00
23. D & N Haveli 7.77
24. Uttar Pradesh 6.59
25. Bihar 6.16
26. Madhya Pradesh 6.00
27. Jammu & Kashmir 4.74
28. Rajasthan 3.85
29. N.E.F.A. 2.86


This disturbing picture brings into being many problems of state administration, in respect of primary education, allocation of priorities in respect of plan expenditure, and distribution among scheduled tribes and classes and backward areas-pockets of extremely low literacy.

Inspite of a change here and there the socical status of low castes has not considerably improved. In many cases, Beranard S. Cohan Survey showed that abolition of Zamindari and adoption of various measures for the uplift of

'low-caste' people had not resulted in any significant improvement in the social status of these people. They had long been subordinate in all economic and political affairs to the Thakur landlords and the patron-worker ties were hereditary. The low caste people continued to do their work as Sahar, Rai, Chamar, Bari or Dhoti in return for bi-annual payments in the form of grain. Approximately 22% of our population identified as scheduled castes and scheduled tribes have not received adequate benefits which both the law and constitution have provided for them. There is appreciable evidence that when funds have been available under the provision of constitution & law, these have either not been fully utilised or have been diverted for other purposes. According to a UNI Survey\(^1\) new hopes and aspirations of equality and justice for all, kindled by the independence 25 years ago are still shrouded for many Harijans living in rural areas. Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Gujarat are in the fore front of untouchability and social boycott of Harijans.

The statutory Panchayat members who were envisaged in the community development to play a major role in introducing changes in the socio-economic conditions of the villages, and were required to take welfare measures to help the poorer sections for creating a better climate of social change have belied all the hopes. Instead of acting as the agents of social change, they are considered in general by the community as leaders of the caste groups to which they belong.

\(^1\) Hindustan Times: September 4, 1972.
As a result it has become increasingly difficult to obtain support from the poorer sections of the village and the popular contribution to the Programme's work has failed to match that of the government. At present the local institutions have neither come out as people's institutions nor achieved social justice and equity. It cannot be denied that if democratic community development as conceived in the community development programme is to succeed in the long run social justice must be achieved.

Economic disparities

An increased stress on agriculture extension services has raised the problem of negligence of non-agricultural sector and increased inequalities in villages.

Agriculture being the main occupation of the rural people, institutional set up of the rural economy is to be determined by the pattern of land ownership. An N.S.S. survey gives the pattern of this ownership as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>OWNERSHIP-SIZE CLASS (IN ACRES)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mil to 2.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rural household</td>
<td>57.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of area</td>
<td>6.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Krushtra September 1, 1971
The position is still worse in some states, for example, according to the same survey in West Bengal 61.68 of the rural households did not own more than 1.5 acres of land each and 32.23 percent of the households did not have more than 3.6 acres of land while the balance 17.77 percent had holdings sizes of which ranged between 7.5 acres to 45.5 acres. In between them they operated 59.45 percent of the area cultivated.

Thus a majority of the people being deprived of land have no option except to be agricultural labourers or share croppers. Their position is more insecure than the position of industrial workers who have trade unions, a number of other institutions and laws on industrial relations.

The abnormally high rent of the land induces the people having surplus money to go in for the purchase of land thus intensifying the imbalances in the pattern of land ownership. Similarly money invested in the agricultural trades generates much higher surplus than the organised

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1. Statistics and some ideas borrowed from the paper of A.H. Bose "Institutional bottlenecks the main-barrier to the development of backward regions" Indian Journal of regional science Vol. II No. 1
industry. The differences between high and low prices in such common agricultural produce, such as wheat, gram, rice, mustard seed, raw jute ranges between 23 to 185 percent, \(^1\) (the difference being still higher in case of unorganised rural markets) with the result that the traders thrive on such fluctuations, buying at a time when the price is low but selling when the price shoots up. Being more profitable the system retards industrialisation.

Backwardness of the rural economy creates material conditions for sustaining the money lending class, the rural masses are left at the mercy of the landowner, traders and the money lenders.

The social and political implication of the situation is that the class representing this trinity enjoying social and political prominence takes all the advantages of the facilities provided by the new political institutions.\(^3\)

Thus the green revolution, started in this background has benefited mainly the well to do farmers. In the first place it is not a paying proposition for the small farmers and tenants. The reason is simple; normal expenditure on the quick manuring, high yielding and fertiliser, responsive varities are costly and beyond their reach.

\(^{1}\) Krukshetra, September 1, 1971
Following differences between old and new methods for a single crop were given by Mr. Chester Bowles.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Per Acre</th>
<th>Old Method</th>
<th>New Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cost</td>
<td>Rs.300</td>
<td>Rs.1830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Yield</td>
<td>1.5 tonnes</td>
<td>Rs.5 tonnes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Total value of yield</td>
<td>Rs.810</td>
<td>Rs.4875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Net earnings</td>
<td>Rs.510</td>
<td>Rs.3045</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the second place the various loan policies like house building loan, fertiliser loan and other loans actually helped the well to do and influential sections as they were in a position to offer securities, whereas in many cases the village artisans could not get any loan for want of these securities. Analysing these inadequacies, the All India Rural Credit Review Committee reported in 1969² that the flow of Credit has been quantitatively satisfactory compared to what it was a few years ago, the gains from these new facilities for those most in need of them have been minimal, partly because of the power structure in the rural areas, that tended to favour the rich and the influential farmers with strong political affiliations and also due to unrealistic expectations of the conventional banking norms in the matter of security and credit worthiness from the more vulnerable sections of the rural community.

A genuine attempt was made by the crop loan system but the credit-worthiness of small farmers and their repaying capacity stands in the way of getting the credit. Moreover other facilities like marketing, storing and processing facilities are also not available to the small farmers having marginal and sub-marginal land.

1. S. Nakkiran, "Green Revolution, new dimensions", Krukushetra, February 16, 1971
2. For detail see the Report of the All India Credit Review Committee, Reserve Bank of India, Bombay, 1969.
The yawning gap is constantly widening between the minority of the cultivators, who are in a position to adopt new methods of cultivation and the majority of the farmers holding less than 2 hectares and who constitute more than two-thirds of the total farm population. It is clear by a single example of loans provided by land development banks. In Madhya Pradesh, the small farmers holding below 4 hectares constituted only five percent of the total borrowers in 1966-67. It was 33 percent in Gujarat 40 percent in Uttar Pradesh 42 percent in Andhra Pradesh and 32 percent in Haryana in the same year.\(^1\)

Even the small Farmers Development Agency Programme has covered the small farmers up to a certain level. Allocation by the State of about Rs.50 crores for community banks, tube wells and river pumping projects, is another programme provided under the fourth plan for the small farmers. The progress of these programmes has been poor during the last three years.

As an impact of Green Revolution there is already absolute overcrowding in the agricultural sector manifested in the form of seasonal unemployment, disguised unemployment and under-employment on the one hand and the existence of a large population of landless labour (the group was recently exploited by the catchy slogan of "Land grab movement")

\(^{1}\) Krukshestra February 1, 1971 p.4
sub-marginal farmers, fragmented holdings and widely prevalent subsistence cultivation, on the other. It is estimated that nearly one-fourth of the total working force in the agricultural sector is surplus in the sense that their marginal productivity is either zero or much below the level of their consumption. The total rural unemployment at the end of the Third Plan stood at $8.5 + 11.4 - 3.5 = 16.4$ million.¹

The growing unemployment figures and the widening disparities in the income pattern are said to have sharpened the economic division of the rural society. According to a U.N. Study Report April 21, 1969 jointly prepared by F.A.O. and I.L.O. "the land reforms in Asia and the Near East over the past decade have eroded the traditional feudalistic landlordism prevalent before World War II. Commercially motivated farmers are the new dynamic class in Asian Agriculture. But regulation of tenancy and wages, and abolition of unjust labour contracts have been uneven - mainly because governments have been unable to enforce legal provisions favouring the weaker party. With individual ownership land has become more marketable and created in many countries a class of landless labour, and small farmers forced to work, the relatively large farms of some who own and perhaps manage the operation, but do not

work the land themselves, increasing population pressure and inadequate government services have hit the tenant and small farmers especially hard. The above mentioned facts can be well supported by two examples both from U.P. According to a recent survey of the state "The new factor in the wind of change is the emergence of the Kulak - with rising land values and the high returns from farming, a new class of capitalist farmers has emerged depending largely on hired rather than family labour. This is especially so in the Terai. And by and large this class of farmers has been the quickest to take up the new technology and has benefited the most from it. In the Rabi of 1970, for instance in the Terai region of Naini Tal district, 91 per cent of farmers with holdings of more than 30 acres had sown the high yielding varieties of wheat. This compared with 70 per cent of farmers in the size group 15-30 acres, 16 per cent in the 7.15 acres category, 2 percent in the 2.5-7.5 acre category and 8 percent in the below 2.5 acre category. The income per sown acre for the smallest farmers was insignificant, while for the 2.5-7.5 acres it was Rs.339 as against Rs.628 in the 30 acre and over category."

The rich farmers have done well for themselves and this is reflected in their consumption standards. A UPAUJ survey in the Terai shows for instance that the average spending per farmer on clothes and footwear for the 30 acres.

1. Economic Times - 22.4.69 (Bombay)
2. The Hindustan Times, Weekly Review, March 7, 1971
and over category was Rs.1,642 per annum as against an average of between Rs.245 and Rs.581 for smaller farmers (up to 15 acres). Spending on education for rich farmers averaged Rs.2,815 per annum as against Rs.13 to Rs.158 for smaller farmers.¹

The other example is provided by the crash programme in U.P. for rural employment started on October 2,70 with Rs.20 crores which is getting a poor response according to a recent report from the State.

Out of the 54,000 people who are to be given employment at the rate of 1,000 per district under this centrally sponsored programme only about 11,000 could find work so far. Uttar Pradesh has 54 districts. Each district is allotted about Rs.37 lakhs under the programme.²

It is because of these reasons that Panchayati Raj System is said to have made richer richer, since it enabled them to capture power, through the new institutions and take advantage of the grants and subsidies which the government was channelling through these bodies under the various schemes of development. It is an established fact that at the higher levels of new political system the economic interest and political behaviour go hand in hand. Established in such a

background Panchayati Raj system with an object to establish a new social and political order is incompatible with the existing economic institutions.

What is urgently needed is thorough land reforms, their proper implementation, priority given to distribution of surplus and waste land, protection of share croppers and homestead tenants, preparation of record of rights and modernisation of production relations for the extension of economic democracy.

If it is not done the result may be well summarised in the words of Douglas Ensminger,¹ "While each of India's five year plans discussed the desperate plight of the poor groups in programmes, efforts to implement rural works programmes have always been half-hearted and never on a scale adequate to provide temporary relief or provide new opportunities for the poor groups. Consequently, to this date i.e. the middle of the Fourth Plan, India lacks the experience, the technique and the know how which it should have in the national rural works programme.

For most of the fifties and perhaps even into middle of the sixties, the poor groups lived on hopes and promises. To many having schools and health centers for the first time it was a partial though significant fulfilment of some of the promises. But by the middle of sixties, the poor groups began to be restive, seeing little or no evidence that they are better off after 23 years of freedom from foreign rule. What they see in the future is denial of access to economic opportunities to earn a decent level of living".

¹Douglas Ensminger, "Community Development and Panchayati Raj Indian Express March 1971, New Delhi."
"While modernising agriculture can provide for intensification of labour and, therefore, more days of work at the moment what the landless laborers and the holders of non-viable acreage see is the very great economic advances being made by the medium and large landholders resulting in their position being relatively less favourable." Thus he warns that "India cannot afford two more decades of neglect of the poor groups in the villages. These people cannot tolerate further neglect. Before they see another generation living and have an opportunity to be educated, they will act in the ways, they think to be in their interest." 1

The Static: Green Revolution:

Even the so much talked-about Green Revolution has not been free from political pressure and administrative malpractices. The Indian achievement in wheat production leading to a near doubling of the total harvest from a little over 12 million tonnes to 23 million tonnes in four crop seasons has no doubt few parallels in word's agricultural history, but what is more revealing in cold statistics is that unlike wheat and to some extent also in rice grown in Andhra region, the yield in respect of non-cereals has virtually remained stagnant for nearly five to six years.

1: Ibid.
4: For imbalances in farm growth see the next page.
ANDA, PRODUCTION AND AVERAGE YIELD FOR DECADES OF INDIAN COUNTRIES 1949-68

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The non-availability of high-yielding seed has been mainly responsible for yields remaining stagnant. At the same time, with poor facilities for irrigation and pest control, even the wonder seeds could not have changed the situation much, not at least in crops like rice, Jawar, maize, oil-seeds, cotton and pulses. Even with the use of hybrid seeds, national yield in jawar has increased from 4.4 quintals in 1961-62 to 4.7 quintals per hectare in 1970-71. The present situation is that although a large variety of new and improved variety of seeds have been evolved but few of them have reached the farmer.

In the case of cotton, large scale cultivation of hirsutum varieties, suitable for dry land farming, could have saved the country from the current shortage (almost a million ton a year). This is because more than 75 percent of cotton is grown in rainfed areas and the seed used is of a very low yield capacity. Certain latest variants are capable of mixed-cropping and inter-cropping such as and sugarcane/cotton.

+ The new seeds are not merely high-yielding types. The recent accent has been to produce seeds which mature early, enabling farmers to raise, three, four or even five crops in rotation.
The U.A.R. produced in 1968-69, about 2.43 million bales from about 0.6 million hectares, while India produced during the same period 5.82 million bales from 7.6 million hectares.

The farmers complain that they do not get seeds without political pressure or get substandard seeds at too late time. The Green Revolution has been both a political and administrative failure.¹

According to the mid-term appraisal of Fourth Five Year Plan it has been found that the progress in agricultural had also been uneven as between regions. While Gujarat, Rajasthan and Haryana have accomplished their entire plan target relating to additional food grains production, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Kerala, Maharashtra and Orissa which by the end of the second year of IV five year plan have failed to reach even the assumed base year levels.²

Among the various factors responsible for this uneven development, the plan appraisal has enumerated inefficient implementation of the programme as one of them.

A study of Panchayati Raj institutions in the sphere of Agricultural production shows,

1. The inadequate involvement of the elected wing in the programme planning.

2. The process of consultation with the level which has to execute the targets of the programme, was not given sufficient importance.

3. Absence of reconciliation between the programmes being framed from below coming from above.

4. Sometimes the procedure for programme planning was started late and consequently the targets were fixed well after the working season was over.

5. Quite often the targets for Kharif and Rabi were decided in the beginning of the year when the figure of the performance of the Rabi season were not available and, therefore, programming of Rabi tended to be rather adhoc.

6. It has been observed that available statistics at present were not reliable and also take seriously the responsibility for timely submission of figures in as accurate a manner as possible.

In connection with the failure of Green Revolution respects
in certain Dr. M.S. Swaminathan has brought into limelight an important point; the inadequacy and irrelevance of rural education, which is neither meaningful, nor relevant to the daily life, environment and the economic needs of the farming community. As a result the average farmer-parent has been sceptical about the relevance and usefulness of formal education to his practical needs and occupation. Additionally, sending children to schools means disrupting distribution of labour within the family, and thereby
Creating what a farmer may well consider an avoidable shortage of helping hands. Especially at the middle school level, there have been alarming drop outs and stagnation, the last one mostly due to withdrawal of students during the peak sowing and harvesting seasons. Therefore, to obtain the fullest genetic potential for yield and quality of the new strains by the use of new agricultural technology, we need an integrated application of intellect, physical inputs and management talent at the grass root level. Rural education should aim at making this possible rather than make the villagers "educated" in the conventional sense.¹

Coming to the planning at the grass roots, it was admitted by the planning minister Mr. D.P.Dhar, in the Lok Sabha debate that one of the failures of planning was that the nation's leadership has not been able to involve the people at the grass roots level in the planning process? He also accepted that despite impressive developments, there had been imbalances in the growth, both inter-state and intra-state and the country would have to cover a long way. Experience has revealed numerous inherent and built-in difficulties in the formulation and implementation of well connected plans, through the democratically elected Panchayati Raj bodies. In the first place it is not possible to expect oneness of mind from these bodies because of the mixed elements and groups, — political economic or those based on casts or communities, indicative of struggle for personal power. Secondly the

standing committees of these bodies enjoying a variety of powers are manned by the persons who are politically influential, but lack any perspective for scientific area planning or a scientific subject matter planning on a long-term basis with eyes fixed on state level or national level priorities. In addition to this, on account of the opposing and sometime mutually exclusive interests and point of views and visions, a setback is received in the implementation of the various plans; one failure paves the way for the other and chain reaction is set in. The technical and administrative personnel work just mechanically. The attitudes and propensity required for successful implementation is almost negligible. Panchayati Raj bodies are equipped with very inadequate resources. Time factor in all agricultural planning forms the crux of the matter.

Finally the higher levels which are given the powers of controlling the Panchayati Raj bodies to provide necessary correctives to keep the deviationists on line, poses the practical picture quite often different from theoretical assumption. Panchayat elections have created at different levels an equation between unequals. No political equality is compatible with great economic disparities. The Panchayats and cooperatives are mostly
dominated under the present system by those very interests whom they are supposed to liquidate in the process of socialist planning. These difficulties have no reference to any particular state but are built in the system itself as it operates in the country as whole.

In the light of the above facts it can be easily concluded that the experiment of democratic decentralisation has been a partial failure in most of the states.*

The detailed study of Panchayati Raj institution reveals that the system has not sufficiently stimulated popular participation in the development programmes, a majority of the people has not made any contribution towards these programmes, and is ignorant of the various development schemes. There are complaints of the partiality in the administration of various projects and misuse of funds by the persons in power. The system has proved primarily beneficial to the most affluent section of the rural society making the rich richer, though not necessarily making the poor, poorer. Despite over a decade of Panchayati Raj there has not been expected impact in the rural areas in the sphere of social change. The process of this change is painfully slow and people's participation in such schemes like family

* It was on the ground of inefficiency of the Panchayati Raj institutions to participate actively in the cultural, social and economic revolution of the state that the U.P. government suspended the functioning of the Zila Parishads throughout the state.
planning, women welfare, health, sanitation and eradication of untouchability etc. is by all measures negligible.

There is delegation of responsibility without matching delegation of power. And the whole has yet to emerge as a full fledged vehicle of development. Inadequacy of funds is a big hurdle in the successful implementation of the development plans. Being nearer to the people, Panchayats are reluctant to impose taxes.

What has caused so much dismay about the Panchayati Raj System is the fact that its progress has not been even in the country: (a view expressed at a meeting of Parliament's Consultative Committee of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Community Development) and its impact on the people has been even more uneven. While the system has made satisfactory progress in certain states, it has never been tried out in certain other areas. What is even worse is that it was envisaged that the scheme may prove to be self-generating and self-sustaining within a decade, but this has not materialised and the central government is doubtful whether it can perpetually meet the State's commitments in this sphere.¹

A careful study of the balance sheet of Panchayati Raj explains the necessity of reforming the system to yield the desired results. In this connection the next chapter deals with the basic challenges of the system, in order to arrive at certain conclusions.

¹. Hindustan Times, October 30, 1969
After examining the balance sheet of Panchayati Raj System, it may not be out of place to identify the basic challenges and crucial problem areas that decentralisation as institutionalised in Panchayati Raj faces particularly in a developing country like India. Some of the critics, while examining the system have questioned the rationale of the system and its usefulness as providing guidelines for development administration elsewhere. For example according to the analysis of the administration of agricultural development by Guy Hunter, "Indian experience is more useful as a warning of the pitfalls than as a model for other developing countries."

As a matter of fact it is easier to identify the weaknesses of a working system than to recommend available alternatives. Therefore the crux of the problem is not to examine the weaknesses only, but to focus attention on those stresses and strains which a developing country is bound to have. India is not an exception, rather a number of problems which have not been experienced by the other developing countries are faced by the Indian planners. The solution lies in a dispassionate analysis of these problems to find out reasonable solutions. Some of these problems have been discussed below.
Political Parties and Panchayati Raj

One of the major problems faced by the states after the introduction of Panchayati Raj is the intrusion of party politics in the activities of these local institutions. But opinions vary about the desirability of such interference by the political parties. One of the basic objects of Panchayati Raj was to secure the willing and active cooperation of rural people in the implementation of various developmental activities and thereby ensure their maximum participation in the process of democracy. With this objective in mind the Sarvodaya leaders have been vehemently opposing the intrusion of political parties in the activities of village institutions.

To Jaya Prakash Narain Panchayati Raj and political parties both are contradictory. The former sprang from grassroots, the latter means implementation of decisions from above or by a few. Again "parties create differences where they should be minimised." In a 'communitarian society' in his opinion differences should be resolved by consensus relations between the members of community. But the question of consensus has to be examined against the background of facts of village life, country's parliamentary set up and the perspective of industrialisation.

The unity of village community, unanimous elections and decisions on the basis of consensus, inspite of being plausible are utopian propositions. A leading western-scholar Myron rightly argues that factionalism and caste politics are nothing new in the villages. There are caste and class differences, there are family and personnel factions, and there is hardly any collective will in village. In the context of such a village life, unanimous elections (if elections are free and fair) are neither possible, nor desirable, because this unanimity is likely to be more artificial and imposed than genuine and spontaneous. "The Indian villager is to be taught and trained in the art and necessity of changing the old institutions, systems and practices. This cannot be done if unanimity is imposed in the name of preserving the unity of village - a unity which really does not exist."  

Conflicts in our village life are bound to increase, because of land reform, adult franchise, higher literacy, growing decentralisation, higher standard of living and a number of other social and economic changes.

The contribution of political parties is to inject the ideological issues in the traditional disagreements. It is with the introduction of Panchayati Raj that the people have experienced for the first time the value and importance of vote—particularly the weaker sections are provided with a weapon to challenge openly the established authoritarian and dominant groups. It is for the first time that the weaker sections find themselves in a better bargaining position. For the first time they have got an opportunity to challenge those whom they were previously supposed to obey. Hence many times political rivalries take a violent turn. But that passing phase is to be over in course of time when the old dominant groups become used to this challenge and the traditional leadership is replaced by the new leadership.

Closely related with the issue of consensus in Panchayati Raj decisions and unanimous elections is the issue of the role of political parties in Panchayati Raj institutions. In the context of our present system of government, it is not possible to keep political parties away from and indifferent to the happenings in rural India. The three tier structure of Panchayati Raj which organically grows upward step by step has to operate in the bigger structure of parliamentary democracy.
cannot function properly without the party system. There are different approaches to the social, economic and other problems, which actually lead to the formation of political parties, therefore, the conflict between the parties is most natural, rather desirable in a democracy. If there is an open competition it encourages the secular outlook. Hence party is the only remedy to eradicate casteism, groupism, and all sorts of village rivalries. When the people have the right to elect and reject leaders, to make and unmake government, to accept and to reject the basic national policies, they require an organisation. That organisation is provided by political parties which place issues in proper focus both analytical and remedial. They give the issues a national outlook. Their participation in the welfare activities of the villages engages them in the mobilisation of local resources. Further, parties ensure the growth of better leadership at the lower levels and create an organic link between these institutions and the parliament.

The criticism that "parties create dissensions, where unity is called for, exaggerate differences where they should be minimised" is not new in political theory. In the West also the debate had run
a full circle. Ostrogorski suggested the abolition of political parties after discussing that "government is a monopoly; it is in the hands of a class which, without forming a caste, constitutes a distinct group in society" - a highly developed electoral system is, therefore, only a purely formal homage to democracy, and produces in reality, a diminution of its strength.¹

Such type of criticism encouraged people to think ways and means for the improvement of the working of democratic institutions. Therefore, from a practical point of view in this reference also the question is not how to get the parties out of the Panchayats, but how to manage the parties to provide a good government at the local levels. To get them out is simply out of question because of the basic fact that power, politics and parties go together. Panchayati Raj politics can not operate isolated from the overall framework of parliamentary democracy.

"Politics and democracy together is a dilemma which is inherent in the very process of democratic decentralisation. It is not peculiar to Panchayati Raj

¹ M.Ostrogorski; Democracy and the Organisation of Political Parties, London, 1902 pp.11, 508-89.
administration, because the same dilemma is to be faced by administration at national and state levels - It may be emphasised here that the development administration under Panchayati Raj will have to learn to co-exist with politics which can be rationalised and thereby made sober, but cannot be banished altogether."

In the process of the functioning of Panchayati Raj Institutions people were expected to be more activised, politically as well as in terms of developmental consciousness. The process of activisation generated by Panchayati Raj has to "politicise" the rural masses and that is why it is the popular slogan from Gram Sabha to Lok Sabha.

No doubt with the complexities of democracy of a participatory model committed to rapid socio-economic change, all the evils of politics are bound to manifest themselves as concomitant factors in the functioning of political institutions. To try to

separate politics from the process of socio-economic development is an attempt to try to separate milk from water. What is more pertinent is to give the political process a sense of direction and clothe the institution with a sense of responsibility and accountability to the people and leaving the process with administrative and technical expertise. Herein will lie the main distinction between the institutions of the old days and those of the modern days.1

With a greater degree of decentralisation, there is an increasing participation in local government politics. As already mentioned earlier "those who argued, as many Gandhians did, that local bodies should be given more powers but that there should be no politics in the local bodies - whether involving political parties or castes or factions - were taking a contradictory positions. Where there is power there must be politics - a law as fundamental in political science as supply and demand is in Economics."2

1. G.Ram Reddi and K.Seshadri,"Panchayati Raj in Andhra Pradesh." Local Govt. institutions in rural India,p.226
OFFICIAL AND NON-OFFICIAL RELATIONS

As already mentioned, according to the various evaluation of Panchayati Raj administration, the problem of relationship between the officials and non-officials is a serious one. It is an important problem of "role equilibrium". "The temptation of role transgression in both the civil servants and non-official institutional leaders is particularly irresistible in the initial stages of the life of decentralised democracy. The result is usually tension, conflict and clash between the officials and non-officials, specially at the Zila Parishad and Samiti levels". ¹

The implementation of the principles of democratic decentralisation had two immediate effects:

For the first time it brought together below the state level two divergent sets of people - elected representatives of people and the public servants - in an active working association of unprecedented magnitude and scope. The areas of differentiation are many and varied training and educational background, illiteracy/high education, social background-rural/urban, low caste/high

¹ Iqbal Narain, "Panchayati Raj, Planning and democracy."
caste; economic and occupational background—agriculturists/political careerists, white collar salaried class, politico-historical background—the ruled/rulers, with their dedication and training in typical British colonial administrative pattern, its essential feature being to keep a distance from the people.

Secondly the democratic decentralisation has raised the expectations of people of a radical change in the role, attitude and behaviour of the civil servants.

One of the important and difficult tasks faced by both the officials and non-officials is to maintain good working relationship and to create a mutual sense of regard and understanding between the two. The importance of this mutual trust, and understanding was well emphasised in the report of the Committee on Democratic Decentralisation set up by the government of Maharashtra. The report says that "we cannot, however, overemphasise that the success of decentralisation will depend essentially on a mutual sense of regard and understanding between the administrative machinery, and their respective local bodies."² Previously the administrative machinery

1. Background paper prepared by Dr. V. R. Gaikward, Deputy Director of Sociology, NICD.
2. See Naik Committee Report, 1961, Maharashtra.
played a dominant role in forming and executing the policies. Now the functions are passed on to the elected representatives of the people. This is wrongly interpreted by some quarters as a process of wrestling power and authority. While the officials have the right to advise on policy, they have to understand it clearly that the final decisions in the matters of policy rest with the elected representatives. The later, on the other hand, should recognise the officer's right to advise on policy and regard them as collaborators to secure the desired objectives, as Professor Laski has stressed "the whole difference between efficient and inefficient administration lies in the creative use of officials by elected representatives."

Due to wide spread of education, absence of caste like social system, less rural-urban bias and less economic disparities and combination of experienced and enlightened public and the professional managerial class, the gulf between the official and the elected representatives of the local self-government bodies is not so divergent and varied in the developed and progressive countries of the west as it is in India.
The general attitude of the officials towards the elected representatives is that of contempt and resentment; contempt because of a sense of superiority, which in turn is the result of higher education, better standard of living urban background, higher social status and position, power and authority and special privileges enjoyed so far; feeling of resentment towards the emerging local leadership because of its efforts for more powers, fear of loss of power, prestige and privileges enjoyed so far.

In the countryside an ambitious and dynamic leadership is emerging fast which is also power-oriented, and the officials have a general lack of faith in the capacities of these leaders. To these leaders district is a small replica of the state. They want the prestige, status and powers as enjoyed by the ministers which is a natural instinct, but creates a number of problems in the day to day administration. They are not satisfied with the formation of policies but also want a hand in its execution.

On the part of the officials even today there is a sizable section of them that see a challenge in democratic decentralisation to their position of power.
and status, and there are no appreciable visible changes in their attitude, outlook and working method.

Under the patronage and constant pressure of politicians the elected representatives have developed a habit of interference in the legitimate duties of the officials, having a deep demoralising effect. It makes it difficult to attract the attention of capable officers for Panchayati Raj bodies. Even the capable officers are hesitant to show drive and initiative because of the fear of politicians, having bad effects on administration.

According to Sadiq Ali Committee Report the main source of misunderstanding and strained relations are lack of past conventions, an emphasis on exercise of power and discretion and external interference. Therefore the Committee recommended that the role of the two functionaries should be clearly defined.

In this regard, the Isvaran Committee has very specifically defined the roles of officials and non-officials of Village Panchayat, Samiti and

1. Study Team on Panchayati Raj, Report, Sadiq Ali Chairman, Rajasthan, 1964
2. Study group on Panchayati Raj administration, Nodal rules of Business, V. Isvaran, Chairman, New Delhi, 1961
The Ministry of Community & Development, and Cooperation.
and Zila Parishad. According to this committee, the Panchayat secretary and village-level officials should make available to the Panchayat whatever information it needs. The Block Development Officer should attend all the meetings of the Samiti or its standing committees. The Block Development Officer should record the minutes of the proceedings. Other Samiti-level officials should attend the meetings if they are needed by the Samiti. At the Zila Parishad the other district or divisional officers of departments connected with the work of Zila Parishad shall, if asked, attend the meetings of the Zila Parishad or its committees.

Although it is very important to have a clear distinction between the functions of the elected representatives and the officials of Panchayati Raj, it is very difficult to enforce it through Acts or Rules. "Development administration is one of those few sophisticated silhouettes of administrative concepts whose broad shadow outlines are widely recognised though its inner details admit of no ready and precise identification." ¹

¹ Quoted by A.Krishnaswamy Aiyar, "Relationship between officials and elected representatives in P.R.Institutions, Local Government institutions in Rural India," NICD, Hyderabad, p.273
Because the relationship between the two functionaries is primarily personal, their roles being complementary and supplementary to one another, therefore, what is required is a temperamental adjustment which, of course, is a long and slow process. It should be basically understood by both that their spheres of activity are well defined. One is primarily concerned with the formulation of policies, other has the responsibility of its implementation. Any temptation of 'role-transgression' and 'role-aggrandisement' will jeopardise the success of decentralisation as a medium of both development and democracy.

In the new situation the bureaucracy has to understand that the main characteristics of administration under the British period cannot fit into the present development-oriented administration, and therefore it must change. "Development of the people can be of three types - economic, social and political, and in all these, the officials (administrators) have to involve themselves."¹

They should be fully conscious of their new role.

In the words of Ashok Mehta, under the existing socio-political conditions of India the Civil service has to play an increasingly important role during the next two decades, not only in planning and implementation of development programmes, but also in the process of transformation and modernisation of Indian society. Because of their educational background and experience, according to late Jawaharlal Nehru, one of the basic functions of administration should be to direct democracy in the right direction. In the present Indian context the officials cannot remain isolated and have to march along the path of development side by side with the people. The non-officials think that the officials have no role to play, while the officials feel that they have to play the second fiddle. In the initial phase of development, it has got to be a guided democracy. The administrator has to play his part as guide. This involves attitude orientation and cultivation of job skills - the primary responsibility of training. Attitude orientation is equally important in case of elected representatives of Panchayati Raj institutions. They have to change the approach and outlook towards the officials - their partners in the responsibility of modernising the country.
They have to tell the civil servants what the public wants - how much and at what cost. They have to appreciate that there is already a significant departure in the outlook of the officials from their conservative approach and that they are responsive to new demands. The elected representatives should also consider Panchayati Raj as a new avenue of service to the people rather than an opportunity to exercise authority. Here again training has to play an important part towards attitude-orientation.

Efficiency of administration not only demands fixation of responsibility in case of officials but also an effective control and proper supervision of the non-officials. To make it sure that politics does not demoralise the officials, it is essential that the non-officials should be made responsible for the malpractices and abuse of power. Broadly speaking under the existing acts the most powerful weapon of state control is the power of cancelling or suspending the resolutions and administrative powers to remove the office bearers of Panchayati Raj bodies. The principal controlling authorities of the Panchayat employees in
different states are the state government's Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner or the Collector and Sub-Divisional Officer. The Acts of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Haryana and West Bengal empower the state governments to remove the office bearers of Zila Parishad, whenever necessary. In Gujarat the power is vested in the Development Commissioner, while the Acts of Tamil Nadu, Mysore, Rajasthan and M.P. have no such provision.

Similarly the power of removal of the Panchayat Samitis office-bearers rests with the State Government except (1) in case of Uttar Pradesh where the Commissioner is empowered to do so, (2) Gujarat, where the District Panchayat Council exercises this power, and (3) Tamil Nadu, where the Panchayat Union has this power.

In U.P. according to article 95(1) of Panchayati Raj Act the office bearers of Gaon Panchayat, Nyaya Panchayat, Land Management Committee as well as joint committee may be suspended or removed from their offices because of their constant absence or in case of
the misuse of their office. Government has delegated this right to S.D.O.'s on the condition that an appeal may lie to the district officer against his decision. In case of dismissal order by the district officer the final appeal may go to the Divisional Commissioner.

S.D.O.'s usually are not in a position to dispose off quickly all such cases, and make on the spot inspection. As a result suspended office bearers remain suspended for years, that adversely affects the working of Panchayati Raj institutions. Because of the constant changes in the dates of the cases the persons concerned have to appear frequently before the S.D.O. which is a sheer waste of money and a heavy burden on them. Following figures show the unnecessary delay in deciding such cases causing a loss of trouble to these personnel. In June 1969, 308 such cases were under consideration of S.D.O. Out of these cases 3 cases of 1962, 8 cases of 1963, 21 cases of 1964, 33 cases of 1965, 31 cases of 1966, 81 cases of 1967, 132 cases of 1968 and 79 cases of 1969 remained undecided.¹

The Administrative Reforms Commission has made the following recommendation in case of the

¹. By the Kind Courtesy of Panchayati Raj Officer. Aligarh
removal of Panchayati Raj Office bearers.

"A district tribunal consisting of the Collector and a subordinate judge should hold enquiries in cases where removal of members of Panchayati Raj bodies is involved. Final orders regarding the removal of members and office bearers should be passed only by the State Government after considering the report of the tribunal."¹

The nature and extent of supervision and control by the State Government should be considered in the light of the fact that the main objective of supervision and control is to train and educate the non-official of P.R., to enable them to assume more responsibilities pertaining to development administration. In this relation Haripad R. Subramania Iyer says that "The terms supervision and control and hierarchical organisation are synonymous, but local self government and supervision and control are contradictory. Instead of supervision and control over the activities of Panchayati Raj bodies and the personnel, there must be an agency to guide, assist, encourage, stimulate suggest, educate and train the non-officials of Panchayati Raj institutions." Therefore, he suggests that there is need for a separate Panchayati Raj development board for looking after development and growth of Panchayati Raj Institutions in the State.² In this connection the Seminar³ on problems of Panchayati Raj has recommended the formation of a statutory board in each state, composed of senior officials and non-officials to watch, review and control the various aspects of Panchayati Raj bodies. The Seminar also recommended the creation of separate Panchayati Raj Cadres for different services, as solution of the complex problem of official and non-officials relations.

¹. See Report of the Administration Reforms Commission, on State Administration, New Delhi 1971, p.57
². Haripad R. Subramania Iyer, KUD AVI, February 1, 1974, p.3
³. Seminar held under the auspices of N.I.C.D. Hyderabad 1969
STAFFING PATTERN AND RECRUITMENT

The success of any programmes has to be judged from the point of view of its administrative structure and the capacity to handle the various organisational matters smoothly. The staffing pattern and their recruitment, therefore form an important aspect of Panchayati Raj. For the officials at the three tiers of Panchayati Raj administration, different states have different types of staffing pattern, depending up on the overall structure and organisation of these bodies in each state.

Village Panchayat:

Though the responsibilities entrusted to Panchayats are numerous, there is not enough provision of staff attached to it in most of the states. In Maharashtra and Gujarat, the village TALATI is appointed as TALATI-cum-Secretary. In other states the Panchayats have independent whole-time or part-time Secretaries, working under the administrative control of the Sarpanch. He is the chief and principal officer in the staff. The educational standard is usually low except in U.P., Andhra Pradesh, Madras, Assam, Bihar where matriculation is the prescribed qualification.
In some states V.L.Ws. have to do the work of Secretary. Some committees have also favoured the system. But it is not a satisfactory arrangement. The close contact between the two is highly desirable but if the two posts are combined; (i) it is likely that village level worker will lose his character as an extension worker and will be reduced to an office clerk, (ii) Panchayats will be interested more in administrative functions rather than development work, (iii) there is a danger that the village level worker may get involved in local politics and group factions.  

In some states Panchayats are responsible for the collection of land revenue also. To facilitate the collection and economise the expenses the Patwari is made the Secretary of the Panchayat. The Sadiq Ali team has strongly recommended the system. His main function now is to keep village records, collect land revenue and maintain statistics. He has now very few regulatory functions to discharge. If Patwari is appointed as Secretary to keep duplicate statistical records of the Panchayats, all problems relating to disputes about grazing areas and coordination with revenue agency will be easily solved.  

But that system too, is not free from faults. Patwari has to maintain not only land records but also to collect land revenue. Recently in some states he has also been empowered to collect Panchayat taxes. Because of too much responsibilities he will not be able to do justice to either work. Moreover this system will introduce dual control over the Patwari. As a Patwari, he will be required to work under the control of revenue department and as Secretary under the Panchayat.

2. Report of Sadiq Ali Team, p. 69
3. Panchayati Raj in India, Rajeshwar Dayal, Metropolitan, N, Delhi
"The Secretary of the Panchayat is its kingpin and the backbone of its numerous activities. Part time secretaries do not owe their full allegiance to the Panchayats. They do not even put their hearts into the work.\(^1\)

As the Secretary assists Panchayats in writing decisions, keeping minutes, preparing budget estimates, preparing reports, looking after Panchayat servants and doing the other works namely preparing notices, receiving dues, helping in the organisation of Gram Sabha meetings etc., it is necessary that each Panchayat has its own full time Secretary. In case of very small Panchayats where a full time Secretary is not required, the services of a Secretary may be shared between two or more neighbouring panchayats. He should be a well qualified and properly trained person with chances of promotion to the higher posts. The service conditions should also be well defined and there should also be a security of service. Dual control over the Panchayat Secretaries by the Collector and the Panchayats should also be avoided by making them responsible only to the Panchayats.

Village Level Workers

The village level worker who is thought to be a kingpin of the development programme under Community Development and Panchayati Raj both is the weakest link in the chain of functionaries. Previously supposed to be a multipurpose man he is described now as a cent percent agricultural man, with his multipurpose, obligations and wide jurisdiction continued. Many informal roles are assigned to him, he is the only contact man at the village level for all sorts of developmental and other work, but for which he is not mentally equipped and has no proper educational background and adequate training.

\(^{+}\)As a result of recent agitation in U.P. the service of Panchayat Secretary has been given the status of a Govt. service.

1. In the 12th Officers Conference held at Jaipur on September 19, 1971 it was expressed that the workload on Patwaris is the main cause of this state of affairs.
He has limited chances of promotion, yet being a developmental functionary, he is expected to bear a missionary zeal in his outlook and work, without proper material incentive for it. The contribution of V.L.W. towards the rural development depends upon the way, the villagers recognise the status of the V.L.W. According to "a role analysis of the village level worker" his role vis-a-vis the people of the upper socio-economic group is not that of a leader, but of a key communicator who provides all the information sought by them, of the activities of the B.D.O. and the Panchayat Samiti. His status makes him subservient to the wishes of the elite of the village and he is a source of help to them to achieve their ends. The upper middle and middle socio-economic groups; the owner cultivators and big landlords are greatest beneficiaries of the V.L.W.s' activities in case of supply of fertilisers, seeds and improved implements. The lower middle socio-economic group - petty land owners, artisans and other occupational caste groups - is the one that does not benefit at all from the V.L.W., that is why the group does not recognise his services in reconstructing the village.

To the lower socio-economic group of the village which consists of mostly scheduled castes V.L.W. is an adviser and guide. Again the beneficiaries in this group are the elected members of the Panchayat who have good relations with the Sarpanch of the Panchayat.

On the whole in terms of the four categories of people - the rich, the poor, the agriculturist and the non-agriculturists, the V.L.W.'s preference is to work more willingly with the rich and agriculturists and less willingly with the poor and non-agriculturists.

The role of V.L.W. being mainly of initiator, communicator and moderator, is very challenging and he can achieve the rewarding results by developing his personality, understanding of the community and avoiding affiliation with rival factions in the rural community.

"With the increasing complexities of the new agricultural technology and the rising demand for greater expertise, the time has come to sharpen the role of the V.L.W. more than is evident in the oft-repeated
statement that he should devote all his time to agriculture. His work is indeed that of a salesman than that of a service agent. The salesmen job is to know the buyer, to convey in simple terms the essential details as given by experts above him, and above all, to sell the idea while a service agent is expected to be trouble shooter and must accordingly be equipped with greater knowledge and expertise in the subject matter.\(^1\)

Therefore higher educational standard, adequate training and proper material incentives can be suggested if the V.L.W. is to make a real contribution towards the rural development.

Panchayati Samiti

The staffing pattern at the Samiti level is more or less the same in all the states, with minor variations. A uniform staffing pattern had been adopted for the blocks in the country as a whole under the Community Development Programme. In consultation with

\(^1\) Kukshetra, October 1, 1971, p.7.

*See Appendix H.*
the Panchayat Samitis, the staff functioning at the block level became their staff. Generally Block Development Officer serves as the Chief Executive Officers of the Panchayat Samitis, under their Presidents. The staff consists of the following cadres, (a) the state cadre generally consisting of the Block Development Officer, Medical Officer and the various Extension Officers (b) the district cadre, consisting of generally the employees connected with Health, Development and welfare departments; and (c) the block cadre consisting of class IV employees and others in that category. A uniform staffing pattern at the block level has little merits. The Sadiq Ali team has suggested that the Panchayat Samitis should be grouped in three categories for staffing purposes: (i) on the basis of area and population (ii) potentialities of agriculture, irrigation and power development and (iii) nature and scope of other developmental activities; and that staff strength should depend upon the volume of work.

Block Development Officer has an important position in the functioning of Panchayat Samiti. He is

the head of the Samiti staff and is responsible for implementing the resolutions of the Samiti and its Committees. To start with, the B.D.Os were recruited mainly for their capacity to organise and enthuse the masses. For this purpose they were either personnel drawn from administrative ranks or were social workers, known for their organisational and administrative skill. This phase of Community Development saw multipurpose activities in the block. But the B.D.O. has been a controversial figure since the inception of Panchayati Raj. The Madhya Pradesh has even abolished the post of Block Development on the 1st of January 1966, but here a clarification is necessary that M.P. is one of the few states which have not yet introduced Panchayati Raj System in full. In Rajasthan the Samitis were made very powerful and generally the Deputy Collectors were appointed as Block Development Officers. However, it was found that officials and non-officials could not get along very well and the post of Block Development Officer was down-graded. After 1962 with the main emphasis on agricultural development Agricultural Extension Officers were appointed on the plea that Block Development Officer's work mainly consists of agricultural activities. The lack of knowledge about other fields as well as lack of interest
In other activities led to gradual withdrawal of funds and man power from activities in all fields except agriculture. The important point to note here is that even the agricultural work had a setback due to the fact that agricultural prosperity is linked with the development of many other activities. The Agricultural Extension Officer was dragged in several administrative problems and his duties faded in the background. With allocations for scheme её programme drying up and no funds coming forth for social welfare or educational programmes, block agencies started functioning as only agricultural extension agency. Whatever may be the priorities which guide the Government, Community Development agency in neither suited nor should offer itself for working as mere agricultural extension service.

The Community Development organisation should claim, and it will be a very valid claim, that the work of agricultural extension on its own cannot stand. It has to be supported by other programmes, failing which the work of agricultural extension will also suffer.
For this purpose it is necessary that the personnel to be recruited as Block Development Officer's must undergo a change. They may be suitably assisted to carry on the work of agricultural extension and essentially they should be organisers, capable of carrying on multipurpose functions.

The non-R.A.S. Vikas Adhikari (B.D.O.) could not create a team spirit in the staff working under him. The reasons were equality in status with his team of extension officers and in some Samitis being even junior in service than some of extension officers working in the same block; because of little or no experience and knowledge of administrative work, and narrow specialisation, as well as inability to provide leadership to the extension officers.

The Chief Executive Officer of an institution which is responsible for the local administration and development of the block and who is empowered to handle considerable amount of money should be an officer of a sufficiently high status and authority.

*Non-R.A.S. Vikas Adhikari means the extension officers appointed as Vikas Adhikari.*

1 This was the experience of Rajasthan. The study was conducted by D.S. Chaudhri.
It is necessary that the Panchayat Samitis get the service of an officer commanding authority for implementation of its decisions.¹

Therefore it is necessary that Vikas Adhikari should not be promoted from the lower ranks and should be drawn from the State services to facilitate better coordination of the activities of the Panchayat Samitis with other departments, in cooperation with other agencies.

After the establishment of Panchayati Raj institutions and the transfer of some of the activities of technical departments to them, has developed the problem of coordination and collaboration between one technical department and the other technical departments on one hand and the technical departments and the development departments on the other. A sort of "hands off" psychology on the part of technical departments often results in apathy towards the Panchayati Raj Sector and lack of technical guidance to them. There are also complaints that the advice of the technical departments is not always

welcomed and needed to. Their control over the extension officers has also weakened as the administrative control has passed on to Block Development Officer¹ and political control to the non-officials. A pattern of workable liaison between the technical departments and non-official agencies at the block level has yet to be evolved.

The main complaint of Block Development Officer, is of the 'politicalization' of extension services. The establishment of Panchayati Raj has caused the conflict of loyalties. The solution lies in fixing up the clear cut line of command and responsibility by the Panchayati Raj Acts. The administration at the block level should be organised on the basis of the principle of unity of command. Duplication of command and interferences with the regular chain of hierarchy is to be avoided as far as possible. All communications, whether formal or informal, to any one at the Samiti level should be routed through the Vikas Adhikari, who is completely in control of the Samiti staff. He himself has to work under the complete subordination of Samiti President, who in turn should be held responsible for the proper utilisation of power as

¹ The Rajasthan Government has granted more powers to district level officer who can now inflict minor punishments on E.O.S. up to two grade increments and transfer them within the district, with the consent of the Collector. The results are yet to be studied.
well as for the implementation of the development programmes. This will cause the emergence of a bond of interdependence between the President and the Vikas Adhikari, the former acting as the political head, and the latter as the chief administrative head of his team with the result that -

1) Line of command will be clearly understood by the employees.

2) Fixation of responsibility will become easier, leading towards efficient performance, thus accelerating the tempo of developmental activities.

3) There will also emerge an effective system of supervision and control over the employees.

And finally the respective roles of officials and non-officials will clearly be demarcated.

The quantum of circulars and reports, in relation to state level supervision and control, makes the block level officials the desk workers than extension agents. Therefore, the development of a healthy, balanced, rationalised yet effective pattern of supervision and control without undue interference with the extension obligations of the block functionaries is essential.
The Panchayati Raj institutions are also threatened by the political interference with the pattern of administrative supervision and control. It is in this context that Sadiq Ali Committee\(^1\) has recommended the institution of an independent administrative tribunal to deal with such types of cases.

Thus the success of community development programme is dependent on the persons working in the field. The role of Samiti working as an agency which may bring about development of rural areas by coordinating different units will be impossible to achieve without making a change in personnel. With the passage of time there is also a need of thorough revision of the methods of extension and the degree of emphasis on various methods. Persons engaged in an organisation may be so busy in accomplishing the results that they are not conscious of the trends of growth.*

\(^1\) Sadiq Ali Study Team, Rajasthan, 1964

* See Appendix for trends of growth.
Zila Parishads

With the transfer of the institutions of Ex-District Boards, their staff has also been transferred to Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads. The personnel of Zila Parishads consist of government and non-government service, the former covering those transferred from government departments and the latter comprising those previously belonging to the district board service.

The state cadre staff of Zila Parishad consists of (1) Secretary, Zila Parishad (2) Deputy Secretary, Zila Parishad, Assistant Engineer (Planning), (3) Local Engineer; (5) Head Clerk; (6) Draftsman; and (7) Local Development Work Supervisor. The second category that is the district cadres, includes the clerical staff, teachers (junior and senior) medical staff, and other service staff.

The position of the Secretary of Zila Parishad is not uniform in all the states. He ranks equally with the Collector in Gujarat, of the rank of a Senior Deputy Collector in Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Bihar. In other states he is of the rank of a Deputy Collector.
The Administrative Reforms Commission has suggested "that a senior officer, designated as district development officer, should be appointed as the Chief Executive Officer of the Zila Parishad. In selecting him, his suitability in the context of the developmental functions devolved upon the Zila Parishad should be the sole criteria and the selection should neither be confined, nor denied to any particular service." Same is the opinion of most of the Committees that the Chief Executive Officer of Zila Parishad should be a Senior Indian Administrative Serviceman, with complete administrative control over all the district level officers related with the various developmental programmes. He in turn should be responsible to the Zila Parishad. In case the required number of personnel is not available, senior members from Provincial Civil Service may be deputed. In this connection clear definition of the relationship between the collector and other district level officers is also highly desirable.

The system of writing the confidential reports of Panchayati Raj staff differ from state to state. With the exception of Andhra Pradesh, the confidential report on the working of the Executive Officer of the Panchayat Samiti is initiated by the Collector/Dy. Commissioner/District Agriculture Officer or any other officer prescribed, by the State Government under the rules. In Andhra Pradesh, the President of the Panchayat Samiti initiates annually the confidential report of the Executive Officer. In Madras, Mysore, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, the President of the Panchayat Samiti makes observations annually on the working of the Executive Officer which are taken into account by the officer who initiates the confidential report of this functionary. The power of inflicting punishments on the Executive Officer of the Panchayat Samiti has been vested in the State Government or in the officer working under them, except in Punjab where the Panchayat Samiti is empowered to ensure or withhold increment (without cumulative effect) of the staff at their disposal.

The confidential report on the working of the Chief Executive Officer of the Zila Parishad is written by the officer prescribed by the State Government in all the States where the Zila Parishads have been
constituted, except in Andhra Pradesh, where the Chairman of the Zila Parishad initiates these reports annually. In Orissa and Rajasthan the officer initiating the report takes into account the observations of the Chairman of Zila Parishad, the punishment in case of default on the Chief Executive Officer of Zila Parishad can be inflicted by the State Government.

Recruitment to Panchayati Raj service can be made directly by promoting and obtaining officers on a temporary basis from the State Services. In many of the States in which Panchayati Raj is under implementation, separate block and district cadres have been created to staff the Panchayati Raj bodies and detailed procedures have been prescribed for their recruitment etc. The recruitment to the posts included in the Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishad services in Rajasthan is made by State level Selection Commission consisting of two members appointed by the State Government and the Parmukh of the district concerned. While the Commission prepares the merit list for each category of posts, the actual appointments are made by the District Establishment Committee consisting of a member of the Commission, the Parmukh and the Collector. In Gujarat, for certain classes of posts included in the Panchayat Service, recruitment
is made by the State Panchayat Service Selection Board and for other by the District Panchayat Service Selection Committee. In Maharashtra, for the Technical Services, the selection is made by a Divisional Selection Board, while for the non-technical services, District Selection Board choose the candidates. In the other States, like Andhra Pradesh, the selection is done by a District-level Committee/Board.

Opinion varies in regard to bringing the employees of Panchayati Raj bodies under one cadre. Bassappa¹ and Hardyal Singh Committee² are not, for instance, in favour of creating a separate Panchayati Raj cadre. But they recommended that the employees of Panchayati Raj bodies should be considered as government servants and be entitled to all the privileges of the state government employees. Sadiq Ali³, Diwaker⁴ and Parikh Committees⁵ on the other hand recommended the formation of a Panchayati Raj cadre in the states, covering the officers of district block and village Panchayats.

3. Study Team on Panchayati Raj, Rajasthan 1964
4. Study Team on position of Gram Sabha in Panchayati Raj movement New Delhi 1963
But they are also of the opinion that the service conditions of employees under Panchayati Raj and other state services should be the same with open avenues of promotion from Panchayati Raj cadres to the state cadres. Some of these committees have also recommended the requisite machinery to complete such recruitment. Parikh Committee, for instance, has recommended the establishment of states as well as District Selection Boards, while the Sadiq Ali Committee prefers only the later to recruit for posts at all the levels. The Bassappa Committee not in favour of a separate Panchayati Raj cadre, however, makes an exception in case of primary school teachers. These teachers in the Committee view should be recruited through a selection committee, consisting of district collector as Chairman, Chairman of Education Committee of Zila Parishad and District Education Officer as members.

The Administrative Reforms Commission has made the following recommendation in this connection:

(1) All officers of classes I and II may continue to be drawn from state governments on deputation basis.
(2) Panchayat Service should be limited to class III (Extension), class III (Ministerial) and class IV services. The officers of these services should, however, be eligible for promotion to class II and III posts respectively.

(3) Posts in class III may be also filled by persons belonging to the state service sent on deputation. If such persons are not available personnel may be recruited specially for panchayati Raj bodies. Recruitment to Panchayat Service Class III (Extension) should be entrusted to the state level selection board, while recruitment to class III (Ministerial) service may be handed over to a district selection board. The composition of these selection boards may be decided upon by the State Governments.¹

It becomes clear from the above recommendations that the service conditions of the employees service Panchayati Raj service and other state government under should be the same, with all the possibilities of promotion. The employees of Panchayati Raj bodies should be entitled to all such privileges as are accruing to state government employees. That will attract the attention of persons of high calibre and improve the efficiency as well as morale of the Panchayatii Raj Service.

The Commission has also recommended that "the district level officers in charge of development departments should be transferred to the jurisdiction and charge of the Zila Parishad. This will ensure single line administrative control and solve the problem of coordination and cooperation between Panchayati Raj institutions and development departments.

Though the idea of deputation has found favour of the Administrative Reforms Commission but it creates the problem of executive development; officers on deputation may not have any emotional attachment to the problems of the Panchayati Raj and therefore may not take active interests in promoting its interests. It would be better if Panchayati Raj enjoys freedom in personnel administration.

While recruiting the personnel of Panchayati Raj administration proper attention should be given to see that the persons have a rural background and sufficient understanding of rural problems.
Integrity, impartiality and objectivity are the three cardinal qualities which the staff under Panchayati Raj must possess and cultivate. The political and other pressures exerted by Panchayati Raj bodies or any influential section thereof must be avoided at all cost. It is, therefore, reasonable that matters of recruitment, promotion and disciplinary control of staff should be handled by an independent board or commission.¹

Fixation of responsibility of Panchayati Raj employees is also necessary. In this regard it would be helpful if the targets are fixed wherever the work done so warrants. Preparation of job charts and manuals in every department connected with development work is recommended by the Vellodi Committee.² The Sadiq Ali Committee goes to the extent of making the officers personally responsible to make the development schemes a success. This can only be possible if state governments give a fair opportunity to P.R. bodies to draw up and execute local development schemes providing the broad guidelines to them. Officials can then be held directly accountable for the non-performance of any particular task.

¹. Indian Journal of Public Administration Vol. VII No.4 October December 1962, page 523
If Whiteley Councils are appointed in all the departments it will provide a common forum where the Panchayati Raj employees may discuss matters of common interest with the government and people's representatives, thereby generating harmonious relations between the staff, the government and people's representatives.

TRAINING

Training has been recognised as an important tool for personnel development in order to cope with the growing complexities of modern organisations dealing with multifarious human activities. The initiators of community development were fully conscious of this importance. The policy statement on Community Development emphasises raising extension services to higher levels of skills and knowledge.

The main object of training should not only be to prepare one for doing one's job well, but also shouldering higher responsibilities and meeting new complex challenges in future.
An important conclusion of a research study conducted by the Indian Institute\(^1\) of Public Administration is that "the civil service has inadequately adapted to meet the new tasks of developmental administration". It adds however, "that at least in the developmental sectors the civil service was highly change-oriented and less rule-oriented. In other words a certain degree of adaptation appears to have already taken place. If this adaptation has taken place without a conscious effort on the part of the Government then it is conceivable that a greater degree of adaptation could be brought about through a deliberate effort or programme.

The late Prime Minister, Jawaharlal Nehru was of the firm view that it is the community development movement, which aims at changing the whole texture of our society, of our thinking and of our actions. If it ever fails in achieving its objectives, it will not be for lack of money but for lack of trained personnel. After the introduction of Panchayati Raj in India training has assumed greater importance.

\(^{1}\) See Local Government Institutions in rural India, p.204-205, N.L.C.I., Hyderabad.

Note: This study referred above covers 911 Civil servants of I, II & III class serving in the government agencies in the areas of agriculture and Industry.
OBJECTIVES:

Training is necessary (a) to ensure that both officials and non-officials get a common understanding of philosophy, objectives and methods of C.D. programmes; (b) to ensure that both officials and non-officials acquire knowledge of methods of working with the people; (c) the officials in particular learn techniques and skills to enable them to impart useful knowledge and information to people during the course of extension work and (d) both officials and non-officials develop an understanding of each others role so as to establish a harmonious working relationship between themselves.

In his inaugural address delivered at the conference on training Y.B. Chavan emphasised that, apart from imparting job skills, training of public personnel in the Indian setting, is to inculcate the right attitudes among public employees with special reference to our welfare state, functioning through a constitutional and democratic process. Today public servants are the instruments of welfare and change, and they have to be responsive to the public. In fact the word, 'training' should denote the wide concept of training and education both.

1. Local Government Institutions in Rural India, p.207, N.I.C.C. Hyderabad.
The draft Fourth Five Year Plan emphasises to review closely the arrangements for imparting training. Under the chapter "Other programmes" it states that in respect of training for management, administration and planning, the programmes will fall broadly into three groups, namely (1) management, planning and development programmes; (b) area development planning and administrations; and (c) methods and techniques for economic planning.¹ The Union department of Community Development has decided to continue during the Fourth Five Year's Plan the schemes for training associate Women Workers and boys and girls and for orientation of school teachers in Community Development. Training for boys will be organised at Gram Sevak, Training Centres and for girls at the Gram Savika Training Centres. The training programme will also be located in agricultural and veterinary colleges and young farmers training centres. The aim of the orientation programme for school teachers is to bring about a closer association between the schools and the community and also to enable the teachers to serve as channels of communication of new knowledge to the pupils and through them to the parents.

¹ See Fourth Five Year Plan.
Orientation Training

The orientation and Study centres and Tribal orientation and Study centres have been set up for the purpose of training and orientation of various functionaries in the field of Community Development. Institutional training centres were established by Community Projects administration and later by the Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation. The control of Orientation and Study Centres and Tribal Orientation and Study Centres was transferred to the respective state governments in 1967.

Orientation training is a difficult form of training, as it aims at influencing people's attitude and to change them; that is why it requires a lot of patience and effort. Orientation course is a multi-purpose course both in content and composition of participants and flexible enough to suit the requirements of both the officials as well as non-officials. The present general courses have elements of orientation, as well as study and refresher courses, focussing special attention on essential aspects of community development and their
working through Panchayati Raj institutions and Sahkari Samaj Programme, which should be understood by officials and non-officials alike. It also aims to foster habits of critical thinking, logical exposition and purposeful action.

The orientation training programme, according to Devendra Singh Shaktewat, should be built upon: (1) narration of field problems; (2) exchange of experience through case studies; (3) drawing up job, field and problem oriented programme; and (4) making available latest information through publication, new scientific innovations, technical know-how, new trends and thinking with special reference to content, teaching methods and personnel management. The orientation training of non-officials should aim to help in adoption of new ideas and techniques through whom by example other could be inspired to follow.

Training of grass roots leadership, should occupy an important place in all the training programmes for strengthening and making the Panchayati Raj System viable to deliver the goods.

1. Principal, Tribal Orientation and study centre, Udaipur "Training and Orientation of Officials and Elected Representative". Local Govt. Institutions in India, p.206, N.I.C.
Gone are the days when development was considered to be something automatic or rather a natural process. In the context of planned development whether social, political or economic, the twin concepts of "political penetration" and "political socialisation" are of great relevance. The former demands the capacity of the political system to communicate its goal as declared by the rural elite, through effective channels of communication (two way process) to every nook and corner of territorial boundaries. This increases the awareness of the people. The later covers the devices by which people are politically oriented and identify themselves with the political system.

For 'political penetration' the local government system requires installation of an effective means of communication, demands and support coming as 'inputs' and going out as 'outputs'. For this audio-visual means, public relations, publicity through the press, etc. are of utmost importance.

For 'effective socialisation' of people the need of training cannot be over emphasised. The emerging
leadership requires the training in the art of running the grass roots institutions, which is not merely learning about the functioning of these institutions, but also a fair knowledge about the functioning of political system as a whole and the interactions between the sub-systems.¹

Therefore an effective training programme for the training of grass-roots leadership should not only cover the knowledge of budgeting, financing, management, administration and public relations etc. but they should also know the processes of modern politics and standardised procedures. The rural leadership has to learn functioning side by side with the urban leadership keeping in view the basic values of the political system as a whole.

Democratic decentralisation has opened a channel between local and state levels and between the state and central levels. Rural leadership is to be made conscious that these are the channel of advance for the grass-roots. The results of many studies as mentioned earlier reveal that the presidents of Panchayati Raj particularly of the middle tier are proving potential MLAs.

There is need to look into the functioning of the various training centres for non-officials and officials and the results obtained, in the light of the above mentioned objectives.

To run the training centres properly Sadiq Ali Committee\(^1\) recommended, cooperation of agricultural research stations and other research institutions run by the government as well as by the voluntary agencies. In this regard, Ramchandran Committee\(^2\) suggested formation of an executive committee at state level to facilitate supervision and guidance of Panchayati Raj training centres and a managing committee for each of these centres. It also emphasised that the training centres must have a regular system of contact with the field problems.

Training of the officials should include among other things, Panchayati Raj and Community Development and special emphasis on official and non-official relationship. Training of VLW and Social education officer should include in the programme first aid, elementary survey and measures of soil conservation.

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1. Study Team on P.R. Rajasthan, 1964
2. Evaluation Committee on P.R. Training centres New Delhi 1964
With changes in the administrative pattern extension officers of agriculture and animal husbandry are appointed as Vikas Adhikari. This has increased emphasis on certain aspects of the programme, leaving in the background certain other important aspects, e.g., finance, management, human psychology and administrative aspects; training programmes should pay due attention to these important aspects.

There is need of closer and continuous contact between the officials and non-officials in the field and the training staff. The training staff should attend Panchayat meetings, to be conversant with the latest; the staff should also participate in the appropriate meetings, seminars and conferences convened by the different departments. Similarly the field workers should be involved in the various activities of the training centres, such as seminars, camps and conferences.

Recently the training of extension officers (industrial) is drawing the attention of policy makers. Under the new guidelines given by the Planning Commission for the implementation of the rural industries projects
programme, a greater emphasis is to be laid on planning, programming, coordination and effective extension work at the field level.

There are three groups of officers in the project agency for whom the training programmes are to be devised. The first category is of the Project Officers. They have to coordinate the different sections of the economy for an integrated industrial development, and act as the leaders of the extension personnel. Being the senior and experienced officer a period of about three weeks in a "training workshop" with special emphasis on programming the industrial development plan for their respective areas, keeping in view the broader perspective of development activities in other sectors of economy, may be sufficient. This will require on the part of participants considerable amount of preparatory work, the collection of required related data etc.

A short, four week programme can well serve the training needs of the planning-cum-survey officers and technical officers, composing the second group of project agency. Their training would require, training in the techniques of making feasible studies on the demand of resources in their respective areas, surveyed by them.
They may be asked to bring the survey reports and discuss the rational of various industries proposed by them. In addition they should be provided with the basic understanding and knowledge of extension techniques, entrepreneurs behaviour, communication and publicity techniques.

The third group of project agency consists of the Economic Investigators and Technical Assistants. For them a 12 week training programme, including not only field visits to selected industries and acquaintance with practical methodology and techniques of survey, but also conducting the surveys of resources for specific industries, may serve the purpose.

In order to make the training programme really effective, it is essential that apart from imparting a minimum of training inputs to all levels of extension personnel, there should be a regular follow up programme of refresher courses, to review the actual application of various skills acquired earlier, and the desirability to adopt new elements and techniques properly discussed and analysed.
In Service Training

Earlier training should be supplemented by in-service training to achieve the desired objectives, and to further enrich the training of the trainees by mutual exchange of experience and knowledge and to make them acquainted with the up-to-date research, evaluation findings and latest changes introduced in the programme. It should aim to build up faith, inspire confidence and has to be more responsive and receptive.

In the words of Douglas Ensminger¹ "If India is to continue to strengthen her community development programme, she must in future, not only broaden, deepen and lengthen the period of training required to provide fresh staff for replacements but must also systematise her in-service training."

It will be desirable to organise regular quarterly study - circles at the Zila Parishad and Samiti levels in addition to the general staff meetings. In these study circles, the subject matter specialist should present paper on the specific aspects of his programme, based on
manuals, new publications and latest research findings. Annual Seminars of field workers both officials and non-officials should be organised in which persons from various Universities, training centres and research institutes may be invited. Good Libraries should also be built up at Parishad and Samiti levels. Study tours both within the state as well as outside the state to various progressive farmers research institutes and farms project will also prove helpful. State level conferences will bridge the gap between the field executives and policy makers.

There should be a regular follow up programme of refresher courses as well as supporting actions which would encourage the trainees to use their acquired skills in a systematic manner.

**Evaluation:**

Evaluation which has been an indispensable part of the training programme, is mainly confined to the assessment of trainer's performance and to training programme during the period of training. It would become
more purposeful if in addition there is an attempt to measure the impact of training on human behaviour and interaction. The teaching staff should be asked to keep the record of class room and field work and discuss it at staff meeting. According to Sadiq Ali report the basic weakness of the training programme today is that the trainee does not take training to be an opportunity. This apathy is both on the part of officials as well as non-officials. Trainees also fail to correlate the importance of training programme with their performance in the field.

The form and content of training should also be made sufficiently attractive and interesting. Emphasis has to be laid on attitude building and development and extension approach rather than theoretical discussions.

Quality of training is directly determined by the quality of coaching staff. They should posses adequate field experience of their subjects and a faith in the programme. They should be the persons who can inspire confidence in the trainees.
In view of the fact that training functions have been decentralised and the responsibility now rests with the states, the consultative council of Community Development has emphasised on the one hand the need for adequate financial provisions in the state plans and budget, and on the other the desirability of ensuring that the training effort is in harmony with the specific job requirements of the various functionaries taking due note of the local conditions and requirements. The council also emphasised the need of continuing the Central government playing on effective role in advising and coordinating the country-wide training effort of block extension personnel.

For an effective training programme it is necessary that it should be planned not just for the need of tomorrow but even for those of dayafter.
FINANCES

Village Panchayats

For any economic, social or cultural activity financial support is a must. Panchayats being agency for rural administration and economic prosperity should have strong financial base. With the introduction of Panchayati Raj, village Panchayats are required to perform not only municipal functions, but also developmental functions, such as promotion of agriculture and village industries. Thus they can carry their functions effectively if they have at their disposal sources of income which are sufficiently 'elastic'. In order to meet the financial requirements the Mehta Team suggested a large number of sources of income for Panchayats. The Government of United Provinces, appointed a Committee known as "Kher Committee" in 1939, in order to strengthen the financial position of Panchayats and other local bodies. It recommended that all public property within the jurisdiction of a Gaon Panchayat or Town Area should be vested in that body. It was based on the analogy of the Section 116 of Municipalities Act, with regard to the funds of these bodies. The committee unanimously agreed that the Government and District Board should be obliged to make
fixed contributions to these bodies, the former out of its land revenue and the latter from cess income relating to Panchayats or Town Area, as the case may be. The other obligatory contribution, provided for, was the compulsory labour by all male adults in the case of Gaon Panchayats. The other taxes proposed were optional. The list of optional taxes referred particularly to the taxes on professions, trades, callings and employment. This tax was mainly intended for non-agriculturists and it was recommended that every Gaon Panchayat and Town Area committee would be advised to levy it. The U.P. Village Panchayat Act 1947 is mainly based on the report and recommendations of the Kher Committee. The Act vested in the Gaon Sabha all the public property situated within the jurisdiction of a Gaon Sabha, which is required to direct, manage and control it. A long enumerative list has been provided for the fund of Panchayats, but no fixed contribution

1. The Report of the Kher Committee, Government of UP, 1939, Chapter IV p.17
2. UP Panchayat Raj Act, 1947, op. cit. Section 34.

* According to article 28 of the Panchayati Raj Act the land management Committee looks after the public property of the Gaon Sabha, as a sub-committee of Panchayat, as provided by the Zamindari Abolition and Land Reform Acts in the state. But the Panchayats have no proper control over the Committee. Because the Committee acts according to the provisions of Zamindari abolition Act and administrative control over the Committee is exercised by the revenue department of the Government. This creates the problem of dual control within in the same field. Village Panchayats are elected by the entire adult population of the village, and have every right to manage the public property of the village by themselves.
is made to them either by the Government from their revenue or by the District Boards from their cess income. No obligatory provision for the compulsory labour is made in the present Act (1947). Panchayats are nevertheless vested with discretionary power to levy taxes and fees for which the maximum rates have been prescribed in the Act.

Gaon Sabhas have been levying the taxes on the land revenue at the rate of 6 paisa per Rupee. Previously they also enjoyed the right of taxation over trade, calling as well as professions. According to Kshettra Samiti and Zila Parishad Act the right was taken away from them. In 1955 they were also deprived of the right of house tax. Mines and Mineral Act has taken all the income of Panchayats received from river, sand, CHOONA, KANKAR, AGARPORA and alike other items. As a result there has been a constant decline in their income. During the last three years their average income has been Rs.464.78 in the year 1967-68, Rs.388.88 in the year 1968-69, and Rs.379.18 in the year 1969-70. During 1964-65 there were more than 32000 Panchayats in the Uttar Pradesh with their annual income less than 100 Rupees. Thus they have casually been doing the work with the support of their manpower.
To improve the financial position of village panchayats it is important to amend article 37 of the Panchayati Raj Act. It is proposed that they should have the power to levy 25 paisa per Rupee on land revenue, and to levy house tax up to the maximum limit of Rs.50/-. Half of the income received from court fee of Nyaya Panchayats and Nyaya Panchayat fines have to be deposited with the Government treasury. It causes great trouble, while the amount deposited is not significant. Therefore, it is proposed that Panchayats should have complete control over the money received from Court fee and Panchayat fines, after incurring required expenditure. The income from the sale of the nomination papers at the time of general elections of Panchayat should also be given to Panchayats after deducting election expenditure. The Uttar Pradesh government like other states should also give 25 percent of its own income to Gaon Sabhas, as grant in aid.

The income of Panchayats varies from State to State and from Panchayat to Panchayat within the same State. The average income of Panchayats in U.P. and Bihar is around 25 paise per capita while the same in Gujarat is between Rs.3/- and Rs. 4/- per capita.
From an analysis based on the data of 42 Panchayats of various income levels visited by the Study Team on Panchayati Raj Finances in the various States, the per capita income of an average Panchayat is Rs. 11 in 1961-62 distributed as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of sources</th>
<th>Per capita income in Rs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self raised sources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxes, fees and fines</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income from property</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Grants</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But this picture is not representative for the country as a whole. In U.P. and Bihar where more than 40 percent of the country’s Panchayats are located the average income is less than Rs.0.50 per cent per capita. Such Panchayats would be found in a large number in most of the States. It can, therefore, be concluded that not less than 60 per cent of the Panchayats
of the country have a per capita income below Rs.0.50.¹ In this way the financial position of a large number of panchayats is quite unsatisfactory and their income may not exceed one rupee per capita,² though their functions are many and their tasks formidable.

The following constitute the finances of Panchayati Raj* local resources which consists of taxes, fees, fines and other revenues.

TAXES: These include house tax, land cess, sanitary cess, lighting rate, vehicle tax, pilgrim tax, grazing tax, octroi, labour tax, water tax, tax on commercial crops, marriage tax and tax on trade and callings. In some States certain taxes are obligatory while in others they are optional.

The ratio of tax receipts to the total income is less than 20 per cent. It means that

¹ Quoted from "Panchayati Raj in India; Rajeshwar Dayal, R.B.S., Metropolitan, Delhi-6."
² Jain, S.C."Community and Panchayat Raj in India, p.182.
³ Venkataraman, K., Local Finance in Perspective, p.53.
Panchayats depend to a great extent upon non-tax revenue and grants from the Government and that efforts at mobilisation of resources by local taxation are inadequate and unsatisfactory. A study of income and expenditure of village panchayats in Gujarat by M.J. Pandit reveals that the average tax revenue per panchayat is Rs.146/-, whereas the average income from all sources per panchayat is Rs.1,599/-. Of the total revenue per capita tax revenue comes to 10 paise only.¹

The existing taxes are not being realized properly. According to one estimate, the actual realisation of taxes is less than 50 per cent of the dues. Taxation is an under-utilised source. If proper steps are taken, the income from this source might be doubled.

FEES AND FINES: The panchayats may receive entire proceeds of share of fees and fines from case work, registration of animals and cattle ponds.

ASSIGNED REVENUES: Land revenue is levied by State Governments and in most of the States Panchayati Raj

bodies receive a share. The share of panchayats in Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh is a per capita assistance at 20 paise and 25 paise per head of population respectively. Panchayati Raj are allowed to levy cesses on land revenue for such purposes as road formation, education, etc.

**NON-TAX LOCAL RESOURCES :** These are derived from the management of common land, disposal of panchayat property, fruit trees, fisheries, panchayat tanks and sale of abadi land. The survey of the Study Team on Panchayati Raj Finances reveals that the non-tax revenue forms 28 per cent of the total income of panchayats from all sources.

Because tax sources are a few/number, non-tax revenue assumes substantial importance in local finance. Panchayats have been given the charge of government lands and tanks available in the villages. It is quite likely that well thought out utilisation of the lands wherever available will considerably augment the resources of the panchayats. Fruit and fuel plantations can be raised in such lands and the panchayats will derive considerable income from such plantations.
Panchayats also derive a considerable amount of their non-tax revenue from the disposal of panchayat property and the sale of abadi land. "Non-tax revenue forms 25 per cent of the total income from all sources. Most of this is realised from the sale of residential plots, i.e. 20 per cent of the total income from all sources. This is an easily available source of income. Hence it has been freely tapped by panchayats." 

OTHER REVENUES: These consist of income from agency functions, donations and other types of voluntary contributions.

GOVERNMENT AND SAMITI GRANTS

Panchayats also get grants from the Government and the Samiti. These may be matching grants, adhoc lump sum grants or per capita grants. Revenue grants are equal to all the local sources.

EXPENDITURE PATTERN OF PANCHAYATS

The expenditure pattern of panchayats is different in details but the pattern on the whole is the same. The administrative expenditure exhausts its funds. Although it varies from state to state and
panchayat to panchayat within the state but it has been noted that all panchayats with the exception of a few here and there are financially weak.

PANCHAYATS SAMITIS

The Samitis get finance from Government either directly or through Zila Parishad. In some states Community Development funds can also be transferred to Panchayat Samitis. These Samitis (except Andhra Pradesh and Orissa) have got the powers to levy tax on certain items such as house tax, tax on supply of water, conservancy, lighting tax, tax on fisheries, cultivable land, irrigation tax, cycle registration tax, education cess, duty on immoveable property, fair tax, entertainment tax etc. In Gujarat the taxes levied by Gram Panchayat can also be levied by the Samiti. The Acts of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Punjab, Mysore, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal empower the Samitis to receive a part of the land revenue, besides the usual grant under Community Development programmes.

ZILA PARISHAD

The financial resources of Zila Parishad mostly consist of the funds received from the State
Government in the form of grants. The State
government also gives share of land and other cesses
and taxes assigned to Zila Parishad. If there are
some other specific schemes the funds are also provided
to Zila Parishad. In some states the Zila Parishads
are empowered to levy certain taxes or to enhance,
subject to certain limits, the taxes already being
levied by the Panchayat Samitis or Panchayats.

Broadly the sources of income of Zila Parishad are:
(1) grants (2) taxes and fees, (3) loans, (4) funds of
the plan schemes transferred to Zila Parishad and
(5) Income from property.

It has generally been noticed that the
above mentioned sources of income of different bodies
of Panchayati Raj provide inadequate finance to meet
out their expenditure. In fact it is a crucial matter.
Hence the Central Government appointed various committees,
namely, Santhanam Committee, Ram Krishnayya Committee and
Khanna Committee to study the Problem of Panchayati Raj
finances etc. These Committees differ in their details
regarding raising of finances through various sources.¹

¹. See Local Government institutions in Rural India,

². In this connection the recommendations made by the
are worth considering. For details see the next
chapter.
Likewise the Committees/Commissions appointed by the State Governments have thrown light on this aspect. For example, the U.P. Government has appointed a committee to specifically deal with this problem. The Administrative Reorganisation and Economy Committee Report of Kerala (1967) is of the opinion that if we want to make Panchayati Raj bodies effective units of local self-government, we ought to make an attempt to adequately build up their resources. Until such time that the finances of Panchayati Raj bodies become sound, Hardyal Singh Committee recommended the transfer to Panchayati Raj bodies only such schemes for which either necessary funds are assigned to them or they are themselves able to meet the expenditure from their own resources.

The various committees have recommended various new items for levying taxes and there is complete unanimity in their recommendations regarding the delegation of suitable powers to Panchayati Raj bodies to levy taxes. However, Santhanam and Hardyal Committees have classified the taxes into compulsory and optional. The House Tax, Profession tax and vehicle tax have been listed as compulsory by the Santhanam Committee while Hardyal Committee has categorised house tax, tax on transfer of immoveable property and buffaloes tax as compulsory.

1. Study Team on Panchayat Raj Resources Report, Kailash Prakash (Chairman) 1965, Panchayati Raj Department, UP Lucknow.
In case of optional taxes the two committees have listed more or less the same items. Other Committees also agree on these taxes, viz; pilgrim tax, marriage and birth tax, octroi, tax on registration of cattles etc. Some committees have also recommended the creation and enlargement of community assets by Panchayati Raj bodies to enhance their economic condition. This may be done if these bodies own shops, markets, trees, ponds, tanks, forests etc.

In fact the Panchayati Raj bodies have to develop their financial resources according to local conditions but in any case their commitments should not exceed their resources. The government should help the Panchayati Raj bodies in enhancing their financial resources. When necessary, the grants should be provided. In case of non-availability of funds from other sources or emergency they should secure loan from the public and the government. The idea of establishment of a corporation as recommended by Naik and Santhanam Committees is also worth considering and should be adopted by different states according to their own requirements. Moreover as recommended by Administrative Reforms Commission "An advisory committee of officials and non-officials may be set up by each state government for advising on the principles which should govern the grants of assistance to Panchayati Raj institutions."  

1. Report, Administrative Reforms Commission on State administration—New Delhi pp.267+IV
UNIT FOR PLANNING

The present practice:

Planning by Panchayati Raj institutions relates mainly to programmes which aim at meeting local needs, in which decisions regarding location and size of activity have to be taken on local considerations and in which success depends primarily upon the initiative and cooperation of the local people. Agricultural and associated fields of animal husbandry, co-operation, minor irrigation, primary and secondary education, sanitation, water supply and basic medical care, and local communications are important fields of local planning. On the other hand large industries, power, transport or irrigation projects, and advanced education or health service facilities are outside the field of local planning. The distinction between these two spheres of planning and the fact that the Panchayati Raj Institutions are concerned primarily with planning of local development programmes is fairly well understood.
But even within the area of local planning the present practice is that priorities for different development programmes and schemes, and the pattern of each scheme-content, staff, finance, institutional arrangements, etc are worked out in great detail at the State (or even national) level and decision-making at local levels is concerned largely with selecting locations and beneficiaries. The Panchayat Raj institutions, like their predecessors, officials of the community development blocks or other development departments have functioned primarily as allocating or distributing agencies deciding where a primary school or a primary health centre should be located or who should get a taccavi loan, how many should be the number of schools and health centres; the details of staff, equipment, buildings for these, and the amount of taccavi loan to be sanctioned in their areas, had been decided at the state level.

The tendency towards planning of programmes at state or central hands has been encouraged by the fact that in much of the rural development activity during the last year the object has been to strengthen
the infrastructure by providing elementary services and facilities, like primary schools, primary health centres, drinking water, wells and approach roads, cooperative credit societies and a basic agency for agricultural extension.

But now as a result of the development which has taken place during the period, the situation is changing fast. As the need for elementary facilities have been met, emphasis in rural development programmes is shifting to provide more advance facilities like secondary schools, cooperative marketing, and processing societies and workshops for the repair and servicing of agricultural implements. Planning for these requires much greater attention to local conditions and it is not possible to apply a uniform pattern to all the areas.

A important consideration in determining the structure of government units is the area they are to serve and the functions they are to perform. The area appropriate to a function is determined partly by financial, but essentially by technical and other considerations.
The optimum size of a local authority for the performance of different functions is not the same and the range of size for the performance of a particular function may vary very widely. As local authorities rendering a wide variety of services to their citizens, the optimum size of the authority has to be determined on the basis of a balancing of the advantages and the disadvantages of a particular size of or most of the major services which the authority has to undertake from the technical and other points of view. As the standard of services it renders will depend also on its own resources, these should be taken into account. The prevalence of a community sense, geography, history, demographic character and potential for development, infrastructure and administrative convenience are other considerations in determining the area of local authorities.

It seems that in the reorganisation of our Panchayati Raj bodies these considerations have not had much influence. Rather the main consideration in determining the area of village panchayats has been the sense of community which is valid one. In case
of block it is a fact that these were the units carved out for Community Development Projects and National Extension Service with an intention to have an area that was easily accessible to its inhabitants and to whom it was easy for the administration, but certainly it was not the most important consideration, for determining the area of the principal authority, in local government. The block was an artificial unit without any sense of community. For a function like planning also the blocks is unsuited and also for executing any large public works and running services like health centres and hospitals. According to Prof. Iqbal Narain the system "appears more conducive to the cause of democracy than to development in its economic sense, because it brings the seat of power and nucleus of participation nearer to the people, though it is not a viable unit in terms of planning and for reasons of non-availability of technical know-how and expertise".  

4. Mehta Committee favoured the block as the main unit of decentralisation because (a) it offers an area large enough for functions which the village panchayat can not perform and yet small enough to attract the interests and service of the residents (2) some of the blocks were already functioning as the developmental units and equipped for this purpose with adequate personnel in different fields.

1. Iqbal Narain, Panchayati Raj, Planning and democracy, p.xxi.
By making the block the principal area, the devolution of larger powers by the State Government on the local authority has been prevented. The ability of the local authority to attract men of talents to its service has also been reduced. Its small size militates against its being an efficient instrument for providing essential services to the public and the growth of leadership that is able to look beyond the village. This is surely placing too large a burden on local authorities of the size of Panchayats and the Block Samitis and too much to expect them to undertake functions like production planning in agriculture and the like.

Though the functions listed in the Panchayati Raj Acts are extensive, the extent of decentralisation effected is limited except in Maharashtra and Gujarat. This is in part due to smallness of the units chosen to be the vehicles of development in all states excepting Maharashtra and Gujarat. Local authorities are subjected to a greater degree of supervision, direction and control than in the past.
The higher local authorities have to approve the budgets of those below them and the government's control through its inspecting agencies and the Collector are retained and even increased.

Local planning even where it is feasible can hardly bear anything more than the statement of the priorities and preferences among a number of alternatives as seen by the local people. To except local authorities like Panchayats and Samitis making five year plans and annual plans in regard to matters other than the provisions of infrastructure needed by the society is to except the impossible. Planning from below has a meaning only in the sense that local needs as expressed by local representatives and interests should be taking into account in drafting plans to the regional and state levels. Channels should exist for such communication of local needs and priorities from the smallest local authority to the planning authority in the State. The functions assigned to local authorities by the legislation could well have been restricted to well defined areas within the capacity of these bodies to undertake. The legislation could well have limited itself to a general clause empowering local authorities to undertake any public works or services of local importance,
The long list of functions give an altogether incorrect view of the responsibilities which the local authorities are actually in a position to undertake.

That is why it was suggested by Naik Committee that the "district body is the best operative unit of local administration as it alone will be capable of providing the requisite resources, necessary administrative and technical personnel and equipment required for a properly coordinated development of the district. In view of this we conclude that, if decentralisation is to be real and effective it would be imperative to establish a strong executive body at the district level."

The efficiency of local services and the maintenance of high standards of performance depends on area resources, the number of quality of the local civil services and their motivation as well as on the leadership provided by the elected chairman and members of the local authority. It cannot be said that our new local authorities have been provided with the best staff or equipment any more than the old. Nor are the other

conditions for efficient administration as, for example, reasonable status, salaries and career prospects for the staff, a single line of control, freedom from political interference etc. to be found in all local authorities.

The development of schemes for evolving a rational pattern of land use, soil conservation, minor and medium irrigation, rural electrifications, transport and social services requires formulation of programmes for the whole area. If the over all development of the given area is to be brought about in an integrated way, it is essential to think in terms of developing centres which would be semi-urban in character and which would serve as nuclei around which various developments in that area revolve. It requires new kind of leadership - political, administrative and technical. That is possible only if the area is not too tiny.

In terms of major functions of Panchayati Raj bodies the balance of advantage would seem to lie with an area far larger than the present block or even taluk, but one that is smaller than the existing revenue district. The size has to be pragmatically determined,
taking a multi-dimensional concept of the area as a physical place, as a problem, as an interorganisational field and as a Community of participation. The ideology of Growth centres " is a pragmatic step in the right direction.

The District Planning Agency

In order to ensure that the district planning agency operates effectively it will be necessary to ensure :-

(i) Pooling together of knowledge about the natural and human resources in its area and collection of basic data regarding the social and economic conditions and study of development trend in it, trying to fill in the gaps in information wherever these are found to impede the formulation of development programmes.

(ii) Working out the development plans for the district on the basis of this knowledge and in the light of national and state plans.
(iii) Continuous appraisal and evaluation of the working of the development plans and suggesting corrective actions to the appropriate executive bodies.

Apart from the other administrative, technical staff and the members of academic institutions in the district, it would probably be necessary to have planning officers specially trained for this work, and having the experience of development administration. It may be necessary to provide for a statistician, an agro-economist and an expert in town and country planning. It is important that this core of staff should be specially selected for their competence and the training. Their period of service should also be sufficiently long, so that the team is able to concentrate on the work assigned in a particular district.

For organisational coordination it will also be advisable to have a District Planning Council consisting of the representatives of the Zila Parishads, Panchayat Samities, Municipal institutions, the District Cooperative Banks etc., to assist these devoted and experienced district officers.

The two day All India Seminar on the development of backward districts has recommended to set up district development boards or corporate bodies. Planning Minister Mr. D.P.Dhar has announced in the Seminar that the Planning Commission would prepare a draft of a "specialised agency" for conceiving a time bound programme for the development of the backward regions.¹

¹ The Hindustan Times - August 27, 1972.
CONCLUSION

Inspite of many of its short-comings Panchayati Raj has much merit in it and has come to stay in India. It presents a new trend in rural administration and has evolved much popular enthusiasm and idealism. No doubt, if democracy is to have any significance it must be brought closer to the people as Panchayati Raj has intended to do. "Organised development depends on the acceptance of change and this can only be obtained if the people participate in the decision which lead to change and Panchayati Raj can be the agency for this".1

On the basis of the experience of more than one decade it is justified to conclude that while outwardly the appearance of India's 550 thousand villages may not appear visibly changed, there has been significant and lasting change in the people, in their attitudes, relations, expectation and readiness to accept new methods and ways of looking at their problems. While people continue to live physically in villages their world of thinking and experience has greatly expanded.

While there are great variations within and between villages in the acceptance of improved agriculture technology, one will find in each and every one of them that some improved agricultural practices have been introduced and are being successfully carried out. The trend from traditional towards a modernising agriculture in rural India is clearly in the process. While there are great variations throughout India in the effectiveness of the cooperatives in servicing all who need credit, great progress has been made in changing the cooperatives from its narrow village self-sufficiency orientation to making it a viable institution oriented towards development. ¹

The programme of Community Development is playing a vital role in the development of village people as human beings and has been capable of contributing to the solution of India's complex rural problems. Today there are some fifty thousand village level extension workers supported by some twenty thousand block and district extension staff. The recruitment,

training and placing of this staff in the Community Development structure is a major administrative achievement. Through the various development schemes Indian villages are able to get during the past two decades, schools, roads, wells and primary health centres. Now the greatest need of the time is to educate the village people for effective use of these new additions; equally important is the necessity of equipping the village schools to serve the educational needs of the villages.

With the new superior agricultural technology the readiness of cultivators to take up new practices that prove profitable and within its capabilities India can now look forward with confidence to achieve self-sufficiency for its people by the end of seventies. But modernisation of agriculture has to be accompanied with developing alternative economic opportunities for the present disadvantaged groups to be gainfully employed.

With the devolution of economic power to the Panchayati Raj institutions the villagers are right in
realizing that they being the elector of Panchayati Raj functionaries have a right to watch and criticize their functioning. Therefore these institutions are closely watched and are subjected to severe and continuous criticism; as such they are in need of proper guidance, advice and assistance, so that they could shoulder the enormous responsibilities and are successful in revolutionising the Indian rural community. There is no doubt that the Panchayati Raj institutions alone can be the agencies to revolutionise the rural society by mobilising and by channelising in the right direction the abundant energy and enthusiasm in the rural areas. The system has however its own weaknesses, like politicisation of village politics and concentration of economic and political powers in the hands of the most affluent section of the rural community and is still to come of ago, but the difficulties and weakness that have come to our notice can got rectified on a pragmatic basis. In the words of Douglas Ensinger "the creation of Panchayati Raj was a major achievement of the past two decades. The challenge of the servonties should be to perfect it as a basic institution of, for the people and by the people in all of India's villages." \(^1\)

1. *Indian Express*-April 19, 1971.
In what manner, one might speculate, should such a perfection be made, so as to make the Panchayati Raj more effective and lasting instrument of rural development? Many, including the Servodaya leader Jayaprakash Narain, have suggested that politics must be taken out of Panchayati Raj. But the last few years' experience of most of the states, which have introduced Panchayati Raj, clearly show that political parties have been actively participating in the activities of Panchayati Raj institutions. Consequently many observers have taken the position that such a step is not feasible. It is a reasonable deduction that as a result of the voluntary ban by political parties on their taking part in Panchayati Raj elections, the individual has/become a centre of power. It is only a properly organised party system which promotes discipline and coordination between the State and the Panchayati Raj. That is why, as mentioned earlier, Weiner argues "where there is power there must be politics - a law as fundamental in political science as supply and demand is in Economics."

1. Local Self Institutions in Rural India, N.I.C.D., Hyderabad p.86.
About the crucial problem of politics in Panchayats, the general agreement on the result of the different study teams' recommendations and observations made by the different seminars on the subject, has been, that by and large the 'politicization' of local government bodies is a natural sequel to the system of direct elections to the village level body. But the "political socialisation" is a desirable contribution of 'politicisation' leading towards national integration.

Politics in Panchayats cannot be avoided. On the other hand an active involvement of political parties at the lower levels will result in the polarization of political forces at all the levels: national, regional and local. The evils of factionalism and intrusion of caste, sectional and money influences in Panchayati Raj politics (which are also experienced at the national level) can greatly be reduced by the constitutions of Gram Sabhas in all Panchayati villages backed by statutory recognition. Rise in the percentage of literacy and development of civic and political consciousness will also help to reduce factional and feudal in the villages and its effects on elections. To reduce the number of elections at a very low level, it may be suggested to have the Gram Panchayats constituted of much bigger population than merely two to five thousand people per Panchayat.
The All India Seminar on problems of Panchayati Raj organised under the auspices of Panchayat Raj Department of U.P. and Public Administration Department of Lucknow University on the 16th and 17th March, 1977 was also of the opinion that political parties have come to stay and the Panchayati Raj cannot become non-political. It is the essence of democracy that the political parties should continue to play a vital role in the development of these institutions. Therefore, from a practical point of view the problem is how to manage and channelise the political differences. The Seminar has made the following recommendations in this connection.

(i) Every political party should establish an institutional base at the local level and should consider local self-government units as partners in the constant endeavour to build a new India.

(ii) The political leadership should spring from the grass roots and work its way upward.

The All India Seminar on Problems of Panchayati Raj, March, 1977, Lucknow.
To overcome or to counter the vicissitudes of political changes at the state level the Seminar has recommended, the "establishment of a statutory Panchayati Raj Board in each State, composed of senior officials and non-officials to watch, review, and control the various aspects of Panchayati Raj bodies, particularly in view of the fact that Panchayati Raj has come to stay for all time to come.

The rural leadership which emerged in the wake of Panchayati Raj was more traditional than modern, more used to the age-old language of hierarchy than the modern language of politics which mean the withering away of what the sociologist would call "social pathologies" - caste, religions, ethnic, language and communal groupings, yet the process of adaptation was set in motion. With the passage of time, the interaction between these modern institutions and environmental settings is becoming more and more apparent, particularly in the areas with fast changing socio-economic conditions. It is difficult to say how long this interaction will continue and when it will acquire a sufficient level of 'adaptation' and 'harmonisation'. But one thing is certain that the process has no end and the interaction between the system and its environment is to continue till the life of the system continues.
Fourteen years after the introduction of Panchayati Raj the question of proper relationship between the official and non-official functionaries has not been settled. But at the same time with the administration of Community Development getting linked up with the local government system, "the attitude and approach of a feudalist, patronising, condescending bureaucracy has been softened and metamorphosed. It has now become a developmental, change promo, integrative, extension service whose ethics and approach to work with people have been distinctly oriented by impulses of service and help for enabling masses to derive benefits from to work effort of technical and general administrators - the instruments of change and action."¹

A study of coordination in agriculture development programme carried out in one district, each of Punjab, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh by Prof. Donald C. Pels has shown very good horizontal coordination in which non-officials too have participated. About extension work the author says, "The problem of making a concentrated uniform approach to an area, to a group or to the individual is acute; and although departments may not realise this

at first, they will ultimately have to train their extension officers to approach the people and provide means to ensure that the extension officers of different agencies speak with one voice."1 But Block speaks with one voice and it is these officers who have brought about green revolution in India.

It is important for the development of greater cooperation that emphasis should be placed on the selection of suitable personnel, particularly the key personnel of Panchayati Raj System—such as the Chairman of Zila Parishad, Panchayat Samiti President and the Sarpanch and the members of these bodies. They should be the persons having the spirit of service, capable of working through those institutions for the good of the public. But mere good intentions will not do. Problems of rural development are complex and require to be tackled with competence and determination. So they should be the persons who have demonstrated competence and determination in their chosen fields.

1. For details see A. P. Barmahan and Donal C. Pels, "Administrating Agricultural Development." I.P.A. New Delhi
It is equally true of the officials of these institutions. Those allotted to Panchayati Raj institutions should definitely possess certain traits, a greater eagerness to learn and a willingness to adjust. Such type of selection as suggested by Ram K. Vepa,¹ should not be difficult to made on a scientific basis with a variety of emotional and aptitude tests plus additional monetary incentives to the personnel so selected, so that their services might be available to Panchayati Raj for a length of time.

Creation of separate Panchayati Raj cadres for different services is another obvious desirable solution, for example, engineering, education, social welfare, industrial administration etc. If a separate Panchayati Raj service is established its personnel may be selected and trained in a particular manner. Recruitment to the class I and II services may be made through the Union Public Service Commission, while the other posts can be filled through a state level body specially created for the purpose, preferably a Panchayati Raj Service Commission.

¹ Ram K. Vepa, "Has Panchayati Raj any future", Local Self Institutions in Rural India, N.I.C.D. Hyderabad, p. 253
As regards personnel administration the Panchayati Raj is in no better position than the other local bodies. Though Panchayati Raj can recruit low level officials it largely depends on deputation from the State Government to man their higher posts. This creates the problem of executive development. Since the officers on deputation may not have any emotional attachment to the problems of Panchayati Raj and look to their parent departments for future prospects, they may not take active interest in promoting its interests. Therefore, as far as possible, the system of deputation should be avoided and the Panchayati Raj should enjoy maximum freedom in personnel administration. Service conditions of Panchayati Raj employees should also be improved, with better chances of promotion reasonable status and transfer from one service to the other. Even in case of a separate Panchayati Raj cadre, the service conditions should not be different from State Services.

An important challenging problem of Panchayati Raj is the problem of "attitude orientation - a two-way process, involving, giving up an attitude and imbibing a new one. A tough resistance to the process of attitude -

*The idea of deputation finds the favour of Administration Reform Commission. See the Report of the Commission, 1969, pp.267-1IV.*
orientation is provided by cultural moorings of a functionary, the yoke of tradition, grip of professional attitude and negative environmental pressures that makes essential the training of both the elected heads and officials, initially and at periodic intervals. Training programmes for the non-officials conducted in the past have been poor in quality. A much more systematic orientation programme is required, to equip those persons with right type of attitude (in case of officials) and the right type of knowledge (in case of non-officials) which is a must for Panchayati Raj success. The study of the developmental techniques being practised in other countries - a knowledge of budgeting, management, personnel administration will be of utmost use for the non-officials. Concerted efforts are required for 'political penetration' and 'Socialisation' in relation to the training of these non-officials. Because ultimately it is the non-officials who should take over the entire responsibility of rural democracy and development. The new concept of administration envisages joint and coordinated responsibility with a vertical line of technical control and horizontal line of administrative control with over all supervision of non-officials. To ensure the accountability of these non-

1. Panchayati Raj, Planning and Democracy, by K.V.Mathur and Iqbal Harinop.
officials in turn, it may be worthwhile to have a Panchayati Raj Tribunal consisting of retired high Court Judges, to hear the cases of malpractices and abuse of power against them.

From an administrative point of view a streamlining of the system is very essential in order to balance power and responsibility. The present system of power with the Samiti President and responsibility of the Block Development Officer, who is supposed to head the team of officials has to be modified to maintain this balance. The status of Block Staff has also to be carefully examined. A Block Office in a Samiti is a unique place of work where seven or eight different department officials sit together and function under the coordination of the Block Development Officer, who himself has no parent department. The entire concept of a Block office is team work and not hierarchical control. Unfortunately the system of team work has not worked well. Every department, whether it is concerned with the supply of seed and manure, advance of credit, running of village panchayats or any other matter has sought to blame the Block Development Officer for everything, though the Block Development Officer himself has no direct control over the subject matter specialists. However, when he does some good work, the higher officials, being nearer to the seats of administration, seek to take away the credit from him.
The Block Development Officer is supposed to be responsible for development of agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation, social education, Youth development, flood and draught relief, social welfare, minor irrigation, communication etc., and is also supposed to operate government funds, taluka board funds, and panchayat funds. Yet his position is lower than that of the Assistant Director of Agriculture whose responsibility is loss.

It is therefore clear that the status of Block Development Officer should be raised and he must have some kind of single line administrative control over those who work under his supervision and whose work he is supposed to coordinate. Moreover the Block Development Officer and other extension staff should also have career opportunities.

An important factor for the success of Panchayati Raj is the degree of recognition given to the institution and its office bearers so that energetic and progressive people may come forward for the service of rural people.

* This applies with equal relevance to the administrative officer of Zila Parishads also. In this connection Maharashtra pattern is one of the possible solution and this was the main consideration when Administrative Reforms Commission recommended the transfer of the district level officers in charge of development departments, to the jurisdiction and charge of Zila Parishad, India, Report of the Administrative Reforms Commission on State Administration, New Delhi, Govt. of India, 1969, pp. 267-IV.
There has been a vital change in the role of Block Development Officer since the inception of Community/ Development programme and Panchayati Raj System. To start with, the Block Development Officers were recruited mainly to organise and enthuse the rural masses. This phase witnessed the multi-purpose activity in the blocks. The cooperatives were organised, industries were encouraged and social education programmes were taken up on a large scale.

After 1962 there was a change in the ranks of Block Development Officers. Persons with specialised knowledge of agriculture were recruited as Block Development Officer in place of the persons with organisational capacity. This phase led to a change in the working of Blocks functioning merely as agricultural extension agencies. Community Development programme being a multi-dimensional extension, should also have capabilities to carry out multi-purpose functions, as the work of the agricultural extension cannot stand on its own and has to be supported by other programmes.

A developing economy is always programme ridden thus the problem of priorities vs aims and objectives has to be resolved. At present the so-called green revolution has created an illusion in mind. Everybody seems to run
after it. If one succeeds in showing any good relationship between input and output i.e., an increase in production, he is provided with any amount of funds. The result is that social welfare and other amenities are entirely neglected. In a backward country like India priorities can never be permanent. They have to be changed from time to time according to needs while the basic objectives remain the same. Decentralisation, rural development, development of rural leadership, education of village administrators, population control, solution of problems created by social and economic changes and a constant fight against social evils like caste system, untouchability, child marriage, dowry system and problems related to remarriage of widows, may be enumerated as some of these basic objectives.

Panchayati Raj movement should fit in with the present village conditions, fast changing due to development of technology, education and communication as well as green revolution sweeping across the country.

With the Indian agriculture undergoing transformation of an unprecedented magnitude, imparting new dimensions to the socio-economic growth of rural communities, the Community Development programmes require a thorough revision. One major object at present is to sustain the Green Revolution and to overcome certain administrative bottlenecks and a few stumbling blocks in the way of agricultural extension programmes. Lack of demonstration on
cultivators field, inadequacy of credit and of supply of implements suited to local conditions, failure of the existing training centres and workshop wings to impart the right type of training and service and absence of maintenance and repair facilities may be enumerated as the basic problems faced today. The case for a structural reform of rural education is also overwhelming. To obtain the fullest genetic potential for yield and quality of the new strains by the use of new agricultural technology; an integrated application of intellect, physical inputs and management talent as required at the grass-roots level. What is most important is to make the rural education more relevant to the daily life, environment and the economic needs of the farming community. Universities and major agricultural research institutes should provide the technical leadership and organise orientation and on the spot guidance courses for the teachers, as suggested by Dr. Swaminathan. He also rightly suggests the closer rapport between the teachers connected with rural education and the extension officers. For the residue of adult illiterates, he advocates a 'cafeteria approach', to disseminate technical skills connected with all aspects of agriculture.

But at the same time we have to take appropriate measures to make it sure that the fruits of progress are equitably shared. If the current agricultural prosperity by passes the multitude of small farmers, the results will be hazardous. Union and State Governments must take concrete steps and orient their various agricultural development schemes to benefit the small farmers. Most

important of all, research should be small farmer oriented. The farm techniques evolved through research and experimentation should be examined in the light of their suitability for the small farmer.

Proper attention has to be paid to land reforms in different parts of the country; modernisation of production, regulation of tenancy and wages, abolition of unjust labour contracts and proper enforcement of legal provisions favouring the weaker section. A realistic agricultural taxation policy, taxing at least agricultural incomes at progressive rates can go a long way in removing rural inequalities and providing sufficient finances for rural development. In this connection the recommendations made by the latest Interim Report of the National Commission on Agriculture should be seriously considered and properly implemented*. The Panchayats can be geared into action to help the government for the success of these programmes.

*In the Interim Report the Commission on Agriculture has recommended "the new pyramid of Institutions for the provision of integrated assistance for the weaker sections of the rural population not only for farming but also for ancillary activities and occupations like those of artisans and craftsmen. At the lowest level, there are to be Farmers' Service Societies whose active membership will be confined to the poorer sections of the rural population to whom credit and other facilities will be routed through these societies. At the district level, there will be a union of these societies (along with functional district organisations for specific commodities) and these will be pyramidal linked to the "lead bank" in each district which will have the overall responsibility for integrating farm credit with supply of inputs and services. Linkages with other parallel channels of credi...contd..
An intensive programme for employment has to be vigorously followed, the concept of unemployment clearly formulated; and yard-sticks to measure unemployment and under-employment in rural areas properly defined. So that the local self-governments may effectively work in this direction.

It is also necessary to devote more attention and energy to non-agricultural sectors possessing higher potentialities in providing higher employment and larger income. Any realistic programme for rural development has to provide for a closely inter-meshing promotion of both agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. Therefore important mechanical, educational and organisational problems related with the development of agro-industries have to be properly tackled.

This requires integration between agriculture and agro-industries on the one hand and agriculture based industries on the other. Central or State level Agro-Industries Corporations will not help in promoting an orderly and integrated development of agriculture and allied industries. Only a district level body endowed with large powers, resources and the needed personnel, can do this efficiently.

...and agricultural developmental agencies are also to be forged. Even more ambitiously, an agricultural development bank on the lines of the Industrial Development Bank is also envisaged. Obviously these new institutions that seek to operate on new criteria of lending and service will have to have a properly trained staff for which also adequate arrangements have to be made. Wisely, the Commission has recommended a proper phasing of this programme.
In other words the focus of attention of Community Development Programmes should now be on social change as well as to take democracy to its logical conclusion - economic democracy.

The Fourth Plan has realised this and even speaks of possible schemes as minor irrigation programmes, small farmers development programmes, sponsoring of certain rural industries programmes etc. Panchayati Raj being common to all these programmes has to play the most crucial role, not only in the successful implementation of them, but also by promoting development consciousness among the rural masses and by giving them a sense of joint partnership with the centre in the common endeavour of nation building. As a matter of fact the existence of Panchayati Raj institutions itself depends on the reconstruction of the present rural economic institutions. Community Development and Panchayati Raj, imbued with fresh inspiration, direction and purposiveness can help, in the realisation of this national objective.

Economic freedom and rise in educational level gradually changing the attitude of the low caste people. They are becoming conscious of their worth and have started behaving like free citizens of a democratic country. It is also creditable on the part of the younger members of the upper castes that a large proportion of them tolerates this change - the non-observance of the traditional norms of behaviour by the low castes. Abolition of zaminadari and distribution of land among the cultivators
have considerably improved their economic status and there is also considerable occupational mobility. They have started realising the value of education and its role for upward social mobility. Introduction of Panchayati Raj has made the lower castes conscious of their power of vote and their bargaining capacity with the upper castes.

At the same time about the overall impact of Panchayati Raj it is an indisputable fact that the social and economic benefits have flown to the more affluent sections of rural communities with the result that political power has also drifted to this group, leaving in the background the weaker and unprivileged sections of the rural population. Nevertheless the process of change has begun, though it is painfully slow.

Sociological studies\(^1\) of Indian villages reveal the adaptability sensitiveness of different classes. For example the higher caste people are more prone to change. Similarly the higher the income and the status of a set of people, the greater is the tendency to change. The implications are obvious; the benefits of the efforts to

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bring about change are going to the privileged sections. Therefore, to accelerate the process of change the district plans have to lay special emphasis on the various programmes for the uplift of the weaker sections of rural society. The factors which maximize the motivation of the individuals - education, opportunity, outside contact, communication and administrative support towards change, must be activitized, intensified and directed particularly towards the deprived sections, so that they can play their full role in the life of community. More studies on dynamic changes are required in this field to extract the best out of our total efforts for social and economic change in the rural areas.

In short the focus is to be shifted from political happenings to social change, though in a country like India, where society is largely static and tradition ridden, it becomes visible only slowly, particularly when democratic methods are adopted in enlisting people’s participation for the acceptance of new ideas, which threaten insecurity of the unfamiliar.

It is also necessary that the weaker sections, should have more effective representation on village panchayats than at present on the basis of their proportion

+ Under a new scheme to uplift backward areas in the states, Uttar Pradesh during the independence Jayanti Year is going to open 110 Primary Schools, 190 Junior High Schools, in the two backward areas. A Degree College will be established in Varanasi District. A multipurpose irrigation project will be launched in Tahri-Garival which is one of the economically poorest areas of the State. Hindustan Times, September 9, 1972.
in the population. It is also suggested that a reasonable percentage of the loanable funds of village cooperatives should be earmarked for the assistance of small artisans, sub-marginal and landless labourers; the lower rate of interests being subsidised by the state government.

India also needs the vast amount of human resources to be utilised to the best of our advantage. A revision of Community Development programme needs to pay special attention to the rural youth, who are not only to provide rural leadership but have to play a significant role in rural development in general and agricultural production in particular. At present we have amongst us as many as 66.3 million rural youth against 14.6 million urban ones. These young men can serve as effective transmitters of new ideas, thus acting as agents of social change. The young men who are already involved in programmes which expose them to the findings of science and technology can spread knowledge about improved seeds, proper use of commercial fertilisers, artificial insemination, prevention of illness etc. They can be particularly trained in techniques of conducting scientific demonstration of various agricultural
practices suited to local and regional needs.
The rural youth can effectively promote cooperation by their active participation in group projects. Therefore training of rural youth requires special attention and the various schemes for their education, physical development and cultural activities, should properly be drawn under the guidance of panchayati Raj institutions. Our manpower when used in promoting economic growth can prove to be a tremendous asset. Women welfare and their education, nutrition and family planning also need the special attention of Community Development Programme. Progress in regard to family planning has not been adequate both in financial and physical terms. The publicity programme no doubt led to a mass awareness of family planning but the actual use of birth control methods is not spreading as fast as expected and desired. A development programme cannot afford to neglect it, if the man is to come into more stable balance with his environment and the tragic "Population Crash Curve"¹ is to be avoided.

A recent trend in the community development programme is the ideology of "growth centres". The growth

¹ For detail of population crash curve see Span, December, 1971, p. 14.
Centres programme can remove an important lacuna - the gap between the community development and area development. Because Pilot Research Projects in Growth Centres are to be based on local resources, conditions and needs, therefore the schemes require a certain degree of flexibility. But at the same time the area development schemes are to be an integrated whole, embracing the work of all the developmental agencies and are to be linked with larger plans for economic development in rural areas.

Keeping in view these basic considerations, instead of block as the main unit of planning, the district level body is generally accepted as the most appropriate body in many states. It is not only a viable unit economically, but other technical and administrative considerations also put a heavy weight in its favour. But even the district plans should be in full conformity with the broad objectives of national plans; as one of the objectives of Community Development is to improve the role playing capacity of the "Small Community" in relation to the "National Community."

Due to the advent of large scale planning on one hand and Panchayati Raj on the other, all national,
regional and local agencies are coming closer to one another and there is a growing consultation both vertical and horizontal between agencies discharging related functions. This process of coordination will further be accelerated with the ideology of "Growth Centres".

How the summing up of the revision of Community Development programme may be on the following lines:

1) It should undertake the responsibility of assisting the small and marginal farmers;

2) It should become an agency for guaranteeing employment for the wage seeking farm labour;

3) It should take within its fold the town and develop a hierarchy of growth centres;

4) It should integrate with the area or the district in which located, for the purpose of planning;

5) It should strengthen the block organisation with the needed number of agricultural specialists, engineering staff, agro-service staff, social education staff and;

6) It should activise the youth and women's organisations for accelerating social change.¹

But the process of development is an endless process and "economic growth is the basis for development in under-developed countries. It is a pre-condition to their development, it is essential not to equate the base with the edifice, not the pre-condition with the finality.

Development is Man-Man who is the beginning, the end, the objective and finality of all development. That is UNESCO's doctrine of development". "The concept of development should include economic and social factors, as well as the moral, cultural values on which depend the full development of the human personality and the dignity of men in the society".

From this socio-economic approach, there emerges the doctrine of development as people. "Not only is the Man at the origin of development, not only is he its instrument and beneficiary, but above all he must be regarded as its justification and end."¹

If the basic aims and objectives of Community Development are linked with the aims and objectives of Panchayati Raj, then "the course of Panchayati Raj in future would be to devote their attention constantly to the

execution of these objectives, through Community Development methods, which are both people oriented and government oriented.

These aims and objectives of democracy and development need proper publicity. To reach the people and influence their motivation requires wider dissemination of information. The Indian farmer will remain prisoner of status quo unless his whole attitude is reoriented. He is to be told what is going on, what changes are taking place, which of these changes are good, which are bad, what is the true dimension of the problems of the population growth, of unemployment, of malnutrition, of intergroup tensions and conflicts, how far we are succeeding in solving these problems; where we are failing and why.

The media of radio and T.V. should be fully utilised for popularisation of rural institutions and the various developmental implements and equipment. Moreover, publicity should be effective. Much of publicity and reporting that is going on at present is narrow, dull and deficient, both in energy and insight.

An overall impact of the various development programmes has been a tendency towards growing centralisation. Thus while analysing the centralist trends of Community Development P.R. Dubhashi observes "In an exclusive sphere of state activity the Union government has effectively stepped in as a partner and that too as a senior partner, not by invoking any extraordinary clause of the constitution but through normal processes of administration". But at the same time it is also to be admitted that the trend is unavoidable in the initial phases of development, as the basic idea during this phase is to strengthen infrastructure by providing elementary services and facilities. It was not possible to set up a uniform administrative machinery of a welfare state in action, extending right up to the village level without the central interference. But now as a result of the development which has taken place during the last two decades, the situation is fast changing. Now the emphasis in rural development programme is shifting to provide more advance facilities. Planning for this requires greater attention to local conditions, making it impossible to apply a uniform pattern to all the areas. Hence the need of decentralisation has assumed greater importance.

Here it requires a change in the attitude of the State Government. Since from the very beginning Panchayati Raj has been linked with the Community Development programme, the relationship between the two has created a misunderstanding about the real role of Panchayati Raj bodies and they have been treated as the developmental agencies instead of the units of self-government. It is a pity that the emphasis on development has resulted in a comparative neglect of development of democracy. The role of Panchayati Raj in sustaining and strengthening democracy has not been properly recognised by the policy makers, legislators, administrators and planners. As a result the Panchayati Raj at present is neither a decentralisation, nor delegation of power and authority. The State Governments have generally overlooked the important factor that the predominant feature of Indian Community Development programme is the complete integration between the Community Development and the local-self government, which means that the entire rural development and welfare programmes along with the administrative and technical personnel and resources should be transferred to the three tiers of Panchayati Raj, which is possible only when there
is a division of powers and functions, duties, responsibilities and finance between the state and the three tiers of Panchayati Raj. But at present the state governments reserve all the initiative to themselves and like to utilise Panchayati Raj as an agency for development and not as a unit of self-government. It is generally felt that the state governments are reluctant to entrust Panchayati Raj institutions with more powers and resources. The main reason seems to be the apprehension that political power at the local level would constitute danger to the political leadership at the State level.

This is the reason why the State governments, while fighting for more powers and resources from the Union Government, adopt the attitude of apathy when local self government institutions raise the problem of more local autonomy. The reflection is a lack of faith in the village folk as well as in the programme itself. It would be relevant to quote here an example from Uttar Pradesh. In most of the states, Panchayats have a tenure of 3 years while in U.P. the tenure is five years. It indicates that revitalisation of these institutions is essential after
every three to five years period. But after a lapse of more than a decade, Uttar Pradesh has the Panchayat elections recently in May-June 1972. There may be a number of reasons for it but it indicates non-serious attitude of the government towards them. The same is the case with blocks and Zila Parishads. Khetra Samitis do not enjoy real powers and funds corresponding to their duties and functions.

There should be proper and growing measure of decentralisation and delegation of authority. Half-hearted devolution of power would never produce the desired results as Surjit Kohlu has said “There can be no half-way house in this vital matter. Either we trust the people or we do not. Trusting them partly takes you nowhere, because it does not give them real responsibility and they do not develop properly”.

If only the State Governments, provide a fair opportunity to Panchayati Raj bodies to draw up and execute local development schemes, after providing necessary guidelines to them, it may be reasonably assumed that they will give a good account of themselves. That may also resolve the problem of unhelpful and uncooperative attitude of officials towards the non-officials.

1. In all 7,35,574 members and office bearers were elected by about four crores electors covering the entire rural area.
While the states should retain their power of supervision, direction and control of Panchayati Raj bodies, the latter should enjoy maximum autonomy in their own sphere, i.e. developmental and welfare functions, local socio-economic planning, with main emphasis on agriculture, small industries, family planning etc.

This is possible if the Panchayati Raj institutions are the creation of Indian constitution, having specific and autonomous powers like the central and State governments in a federal system and their relationship with the State government is that of equal partnership and mutual inter-dependence.

Another important issue which also requires special attention for revitalising the Panchayati Raj movement is that the scope of the activities of Panchayati Raj institutions has to be redefined with greater precision than at present. According to the recommendations of the Administrative Reform Commission". "The district administration should be divided into two sectors - one concerned with regulatory functions and the other with developmental functions. The District Collector should be the head of the former and the Panchayati Raj
administration should have the responsibility for the later. For better coordination between the two sectors the Commission suggested frequent meetings between the Collector and the President of Zila Parishad. The establishment of Zila Development board in Andhra Pradesh is an attempt to secure such type of coordination between the two sectors.

While the Panchayats have to concern themselves with the basic amenities, the Semitics may concentrate exclusively on agricultural production, with Zila Parisands, who at present do not have adequate work except in Maharashtra and Gujarat shouldering the responsibility of all the welfare programmes, education and rural industries etc. The Panchayati Raj institutions have to demonstrate their ability to take up popular decisions, e.g. mobilising additional resources for developmental purposes. In all two cases the performance require a periodical and critical evaluation. Many ills of Panchayati Raj are the result of lack of coordination and integration between various functionaries, institutions and their officials as well as other workers. A high level study team should be set up to study the various knots, bolts and any other hinderances in this connection.

1. Administrative Reforms Commission, Report on State administration in India, New Delhi, Govt. of India, 1969 PP.267 -IV.
It is suggested that the state level Directorates of Panchayat may be converted into the Directorates of Panchayati Raj. In this way all the three tiers will be controlled by the same authority and it would certainly result in their better and harmonious working.

From the point of view of coordination, planning, precise definition of activities and distinction between developmental and non-developmental administration, the Maharashtra pattern of Panchayati Raj is drawing the attention of a number of states. Recent recommendation of abolishing Panchayat Samiti in Punjab indicates the trend of a two tier system with strong apex body.

While accepting the usefulness of the Panchayati Raj system it was rightly suggested at the Chief Minister's Conference that the system should have some built-in flexibility to permit states to have two or three tiers Panchayati set up according to their needs.

In order to make the Panchayati Raj system more effective for the realisation of broad national objectives and to deal with the common problems of rural uplift, it would be highly desirable to have a uniform

administrative pattern, allowing flexibility only in the matters of structural details. The broad features of developmental administration may be: exclusion of MPs and MLAs from it, district as the main unit for planning, execution* and coordination purposes; maximum devolution of power and financial resources at this level and senior I.A.S. Officer (subject to the final authority of Zila Parishad) acting as its Chief Executive Officer, with a complete administrative control over all the district level officers, related with the various development programmes. The lower levels specially the village Panchayats may continue to enjoy maximum freedom in the day to day administration of their allotted fields of activities. Strengthening of village Panchayats is most important, because they are the representative institutions nearest to the people. People’s reaction to the Panchayati Raj is largely determined by the performance of the Panchayats and their performance has also a vital bearing on the functioning of the higher tiers of Panchayat Raj.

*Zila Parishad should be the main executive body of the Panchayati Raj administration in the district, with the Samiti and Gram Panchayat functioning at the Block and village level. Subject to this the State Governments may undertake the distribution of executive functions and powers at the district, Samiti and the village levels to suit their particular requirements. Report of the Administrative Reforms Commission. Government of India, New Delhi, 1969 pp. 267 + IV.
Last but not the least is the question of the finances of Panchayati Raj bodies which are far from being satisfactory. It is an accepted principle that the financial resources of any administrative unit should correspond to its responsibilities.

Demand for rural credit, due to new phenomenal developments in agriculture, is going up and the supply is markedly lagging behind. To cope with the situation the Venkatappaiah Committee has recommended in the context of Fourth Plan in general and agriculture in particular, the reorganisation of rural credit in the Reserve Bank, the setting up of Small Farmer's Development Agency, the creation of Rural Electrification Corporation, the formulation of a more active and much bigger role for the Agricultural Refinance Corporation and other financing agencies.

In addition to these recommendations the Committee has emphasised the need to encourage the rural people to invest their savings in cooperative institutions, commercial banks and Rural Electrification Corporation. It recommended also the intensive propaganda and to provide incentives to inculcate the saving habit among the rural people.

1. See All India Rural Credit Review Committee (1969) Report B. Venkatappaiah, Reserve Bank of India, Bombay.
After carefully watching the so far untapped source the Committee comes to the conclusion that sufficient money is floating in the rural sector, but there is some short coming on the part of the institutions which tap this easy source of fund. In order to save the operational cost of this work and not to confuse the rural investor, who is yet to develop banking habit, it would be worthwhile if post offices, whose number may be suitably increased, are made fully responsible for collecting rural savings, offering attractive terms and giving wide publicity to it.

There is no doubt that the Panchayati Raj bodies should mobilise the financial resources to the maximum possible extent, but when their responsibilities exceed their resources, their reimbursement through grants in aid by the State Government, through devolution of a proportion of the income from specified state taxes and through authorisation to borrow and raise loans for approved schemes, also become necessary.

The National Seminar on Panchayati Raj held in Hyderabad from October 13, to October 15, 1969 under the auspices of NICD recorded the view that incentives
should be provided to Panchayati Raj bodies to levy taxes and to collect them in full. Incentive for the effective tax collection should be in the form of providing assistance from the equalisation funds. The Seminar also recommended the transfer of the land revenue to them and to permit them (as it is already permitted in some states), the right of assessment of a surcharge on cess levy on land revenue collected up to a minimum point. State Government should also provide matching grants for the collection as in Maharashtra. Prizes may also be awarded for the best performance in this regard.

The crucial problem of resources can be resolved through the appointment of a statutory Panchayati Raj Finance Commissions by the State Governments. The responsibility of these Commissions may be to recommend:

1) The priorities in obligatory taxes to be levied and collected by Panchayati Raj bodies
2) The principles on which grants in aid should be made by the State Government to them; and the taxes collected by the former can be distributed between the two units
3) Determination of the shares of different Panchayati Raj institutions.
Setting up of such commission was also recommended by the Panchayati Raj Finance Enquiry Committee. In place of Finance Commissions, the Administrative Reforms Commission has recommended the setting up of an Advisory Committee consisting of officials and non-officials by each state government for advising on the principles which should govern the grants of assistance to Panchayati Raj institutions.¹

Simultaneously, setting up of a committee on the lines of the Public Accounts Committee at the district level will properly ensure the accountability of Panchayati Raj bodies and will lay down the manner in which they spend the tax resources, grants in aid and other funds which accrue to them.

Though the general impact of Panchayati Raj is healthy and in the right direction, what has alerted all the concerned is that the consequences of Panchayati Raj are not positive. Not only the development is uneven in relation to the various communities but it is also uneven in relation to the different areas. As a consequence of Panchayati Raj people have become fully

¹ India Report of the Administrative Reform Commission on State Administration, New Delhi, Government of India.
conscious of their rights rather than of their responsibilities. But the overall picture is not so glossy provided false hopes are not raised. What is urgently needed is a change from political happenings to social happenings, unless the social change takes place in the desired direction, all efforts to derive benefits accruing from industrialisation and high production would continue to flow unevenly as hitherto. The tempo of social change can only be accelerated, if accompanied by economic revolution. The latter is tied up with the former; economic transformation of society presupposes suitable changes in people's social behaviour, which may render the social structure sufficiently strong and viable so as to absorb the benefits resulting from the economic change. The present system dominated by those very interests, whom it was supposed to liquidate cannot sustain itself. Therefore, to sustain the present political democracy; economic growth and changing the social structure so as to make the society more receptive to socio-economic benefits should be our twin targets. At the same time one has to keep in mind that the economic and social revolution is a slow process and quite unspectacular in a democratic but tradition ridden society. Only continuous, intelligent and planned hard work for several decades will enable us to build up the countryside through Panchayati Raj institutions. Let us
work hard for growth with social justice, with
faith in the people; let us improve the administrative
machinery of these institutions and let us strengthen
them organisationally and financially. The emphasis
should be on programmes and projects and not on
poles and privileges. Despite poor performance in
the past there is no cause for disappointment, on
the basis of what we have achieved we can look to the
future with optimism and confidence.
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>State Government</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
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INDIA


INDIA


INDIA


Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development & Panchayat Raj

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<tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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APPENDIX A

Progress in Establishing Panchayats from 1930-41

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>No. of Panchayats</th>
<th>Population affected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1930-31</td>
<td>4,765</td>
<td>11,593,145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-32</td>
<td>4,626</td>
<td>9,571,888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932-33</td>
<td>4,487</td>
<td>9,088,647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933-34</td>
<td>4,176</td>
<td>8,711,202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934-35</td>
<td>4,161</td>
<td>9,684,394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(and 155 villages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935-36</td>
<td>4,127</td>
<td>9,238,885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(and 181 villages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936-37</td>
<td>4,272</td>
<td>9,087,453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(and 493 villages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1937-38</td>
<td>4,180</td>
<td>8,927,796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(and 498 villages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1938-39</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939-40</td>
<td>4,809</td>
<td>9,880,844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(and 976 villages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940-41</td>
<td>4,733</td>
<td>9,795,853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(and 718 villages)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# APPENDIX - B

## Powers and Functions of Panchayati Raj Institutions in different States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Main powers and functions of Panchayats</th>
<th>Panchayat Samitis</th>
<th>Zila Parishads</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>Construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, drains etc. sanitation &amp; conservancy, water supply, promotion of agriculture, Coop., cottage industries etc.</td>
<td>Administration of the block, execution of all programmes under G.D.; approve Panchayat budget; management of elementary schools; promotion of agriculture, cottage industries etc.</td>
<td>Approve budgets of Panchayat Samitis and distribute funds among Panchayati samitis or Blocks; coordinate plan &amp; supervise activities of the Samiti; advise govt. on development activities etc establish and maintain secondary, vocational and industrial schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Assam</td>
<td>Sanitation and conservancy, construction &amp; maintenance of roads &amp; drains etc., maternity &amp; child welfare, promotion of agriculture, cooperation &amp; cottage industries</td>
<td>(Anchalik Panchayat) execution of all development works, maintenance of hospitals and dispensaries, general supervision of Gaon Panchayats, approval of Panchayat budgets.</td>
<td>(Mokkuma Parishad) Approve budgets of Anchalik Panchayats, coordinate &amp; supervise works of Anchalik Panchayats, advise govt. on development schemes and distribution of funds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Bihar</td>
<td>Development of agriculture, maintenance of village roads &amp; streets, water supply, medical relief, rural development etc.</td>
<td>C.D. Programme, Planning and execution of all programmes concerning agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, coop., education &amp; social education, Public health and rural sanitation, cottage industries, inter-village communications, collection of statics, and any other programme for economic and social welfare of the</td>
<td>Prepare plans for Zila Parishad, scrutinize &amp; approve samiti budgets, distribute funds allotted by Central or State govt. among SAMITIS Blocks, coordinate, consolidate, generally supervise works and plans of Panchayats and Samitis, advise Govt. on development activities, establish, establish,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bihar ..cont.

people and any other powers & functions entrusted to it by govt.

4. Gujarat

Planned improvement (Taluka Panchayat) of Agriculture, securing minimum standard of cultivation, establishment and management of model agriculture farm, promotion of dairy farming, improvement of cattle and cattle breeding, sanitation & conservancy, water supply, public health, maternity and child welfare, public hospitals and dispensaries, construction & maintenance of public roads, drains, bridge, etc. establishment & control of markets, cattle pounds, houses for conservancy staff & village functionaries, primary education, repairs and maintenance of School buildings, child welfare activities recruitment, training & management of Panchayat Staff registration of births deaths & marriages, family planning and promotion of cooperative farming, collection of land revenue if empowered by government etc.

Planning for agricultural improvement in the taluka, use of land and water resources and propagation of improved agricultural methods and maintenance of irrigation works in the taluka, maintenance of seed multiplication farms, maintenance & supervision of dispensaries and Primary Health Centres, Family Planning, construction and maintenance of village ring roads, establishment and maintenance of primary schools enforcing law relating to compulsory primary education, maintaining information centres; training Gram Sevaks, Gram Sevikas and Gram Lakshmi, planning for increased production, providing for implementation of developmental programmes, establish and maintain production and training Centres, imparting the skill of artisans, development of wool industry.

(Gdistt.Panchayat) Establishment of dispensaries & primary Health centres, construction & maintenance of roads and buildings, undertaking educational activities entrusted to it recognising private educational institutions; recommending course of study & selection of text books; inspection of primary schools & conduct of their examinations, organising camps, conferences for Panchayat personnel; coordination & publication of statistical and other information relating to Panchayats, periodical supervision & evaluation of projects and programmes entrusted to different Panchayats; coordination of developmental plans; inspection, regulation and control of Taluka Panchayats; cooperation & distribution of work among the different Panchayat bodies; distribution of improved seeds; insecticides equipment, etc. establishing & aiding
5. Jammu & Kashmir

Construction & (Block Panchayat
maintenance of Board)
roads, bunds, bridge to advise on
etc., elementary development of the
education, Block.
sanitation &
conservancy,
promotion of
agriculture and
village industries.

6. Kerala

Construction,
maintenance of
public roads, drains,
streets, wells, tanks,
petty irrigation
works etc.
registration of births
and deaths, maintenance
of burning & burial
grounds; control of
Cattle Pounds;
sanitation, preventive
and remedial measures
connected with epidemics
promotion of agriculture,
animal husbandry, education
and culture, social welfare
family planning, public
works, village industries,
and any other functions
such as collection of
land revenue, maintenance
of survey and village
records, control of
primary schools, medical
maternity and child
welfare centres,
execution of C.D. work
that Government may
transfer.

secondary, technical
and industrial schools,
social welfare activi-
ties; relief in times
of scarcity, provision
for irrigation etc.
7. Madhya Pradesh

Sanitation & conservancy, promotion of agriculture, cooperative cottage industries, etc.; minor irrigation works, water supply, organising collective farming and credit societies and other municipal and civic functions.

(Janapada Panchayat) Execution of C.D. Programmes, maintenance of primary and basic schools, promotion of agriculture, fisheries, cooperative cottage industries, etc.; supervision and assistance to Panchayats, social education; cooperation; woman & child welfare, collection of statistics, primary health centres, maternity centres, etc.

(Zila Panchayat) Supervise, guide and coordinate activities of Gram and Janapada Panchayats; advise Government on development matters; arrange distribution of buldozers, tractors etc. to Gram and Janapada Panchayats; distribute funds given by Government among Janapada Panchayats.

8. Madras

(Village/Town Panchayat) Construction, maintenance of village roads, drains etc. sanitation and conservancy, water supply, etc.

(Panchayat Union Council) Construction, maintenance of public roads, etc.; establishment of dispensaries, maternity and child welfare centres, promotion of agriculture and cottage industries, elementary education of execution of developmental schemes.

Advertise Government on development schemes, classify markets, roads, etc. as village and panchayat union markets, roads, etc.

9. Maharashtra

Sanitation and Health public works, Education and Culture, Self-Defence and Village defence, Administration, Welfare of people, Agriculture, preservation of Forests, Breeding and protecting Cattle, Village Industries and Collection of land revenue.

Prepare over-all plan of works and development schemes to be undertaken in the block for being considered by the Zila Parishad in preparing its plans, prepare a plan of works and development schemes to be undertaken from Block grants; sanction, execute, supervise and administer any works.

Establish, manage and give grants to agricultural schools distribution of fertilizers, etc.; improvement of live-stock and veterinary aid; Educational development of backward classes including grant of scholarships, maintenance of hostels, etc.
or schemes from Blocks grants, execute, supervise and administer works and development schemes of Zila Parishads; perform such functions of the Zila Parishad as are delegated to it; forward every quarter a summary of the proceedings of its meetings to the Zila Parishads; exercise general supervision and control over B.D.O. etc., undertake such activities in fields like agriculture, development, primary education, health and sanitation, etc. as its funds may permit.

economic development and programmes for welfare of backward classes; establishment, maintenance and inspection of primary, basic and secondary schools, dispensaries and hospitals, primary health centres and maternity and child welfare centres; construction and maintenance of roads, parks, lights, railways and tramways and telephone lines; water supply and drainage; minor irrigation works; promotion of local industries and local arts; promotion and execution of cooperatives; rural broadcasting, CD and local development works; social education; rural housing, village uplift, maintenance of poor houses, etc.

10. Mysore

Construction and maintenance of village roads, bridges, etc., sanitation and conservancy; promotion of cottage industries, cooperation, promotion and development of economic conditions with specific reference to agriculture, etc.

(Taluk Development Board)

Construction and maintenance of public roads, minor irrigation works, promotion of agriculture and cooperation, etc., supervise and assist panchayats.

(Distt. Development Council) Approve budgets of Taluk Boards, Co-ordinate and supervise work of Taluk Boards.
11. Orissa

Obligatory Functions:

Sanitation and Conservancy, construction and maintenance of public streets, wells, drainage etc., primary schools, medical precaution and control of epidemic, maintenance of statistical records, supervision and maintenance of village and field boundary walls and soil conservation work. Preparation and execution of plans to advance agricultural condition.

Planning and execution and supervision of development works, primary education, sanctioning of panchayat budgets, etc. such other functions as may be assigned by the Government.

Approve budget of Samitis and supervise the activities to the extent prescribed, distribute funds allotted by Central or State Government among samitis, coordinate and consolidate Block Plans, advise Government on development matters etc.

Discretionary Functions:

Improvement of animal husbandry, assisting and advising agriculturist in obtaining government and Cooperative loans. Development of Cooperative institutions.

Advance, supervise and coordinate functions of Samitis, approve Samiti budgets, advise Government on social education, etc., development supervise and assist panchayats.

12. Punjab

Sanitation and conservancy maintenance of roads, bridges etc., maternity and child welfare centres, promotion of agriculture, pisciculture, supply of water, organising voluntary force, etc.

Execution of C.D. programme, promotion of agriculture, cooperative cottage industries, fisheries, animal husbandry, health and sanitation, social education, etc., development activities, perform such other functions as Government may entrust, etc.
13. Rajasthan
Sanitation and conservancy, promotion of agriculture and cottage industries, maternity and child welfare, water supply, minor irrigation works, establishment of akharas, clubs, libraries, reading rooms, etc., watch and ward, taking of census; propagation of family planning; promotion of cooperative farming; rendering of postal services on behalf of the Government; securing life and general insurance business, etc.

Execution of development programmes, promotion of agriculture, cooperative cottage industries, etc., primary education, animal husbandry, sanction of panchayat budgets.

Coordinate and supervise activities of Panchayat Samitis; examine Panchayat Samiti budgets; distribute Government grants among Samitis; advise Government on matters relating to Panchayats and Panchayat Samitis etc.

14. Uttar Pradesh
Sanitation & Conservancy, construction and maintenance of public streets, wells, tanks, etc., establishing primary schools, maternity and child welfare, etc.

(Kshetra Samiti)
Establishment and maintenance of primary health centres, maternity and child welfare clinics, dispensaries, veterinary hospitals, primary schools, drainage works, minor irrigation works, etc., water supply, preparation of plans for the khand and review of plans prepared by Gaon Sabhas, development of agriculture, animal husbandry, coop., cottage industries, etc., approval of Panchayat budgets and general supervision of Panchayats.

Classification of fairs festivals, roads, etc., general supervision of Gaon Panchayats and Kshetra Samitis; construction and maintenance of public roads, bridges, human and veterinary hospitals, schools above primary stage and up to junior High Schools, libraries, etc., water supply, preparation of district plans and review and coordination of Kshetra Samitis Plans; distribution of ad-hoc grants allotted by Govt. or other bodies.
15. West Bengal
(Gram Panchayats)
Sanitation and conservancy; construction & maintenance of public streets; supply of water; vaccination and inoculation, primary education, irrigation, grow-more food campaign, promotion of village plantations, bringing waste land under cultivation (Anchal Panchayats) Imposition, assessment and collection of taxes, maintenance and control of defadars and chowkidars and proper constitution and administration of the Nyaya Panchayats.

(Anchalik Parishad)
Development of Agriculture, livestock, cottage industries, cooperatives, rural credit, water supply, irrigation, communication, primary education, social welfare etc.
Adoption of measures for relief of distress and coordination of development plans of Anchal Panchayats.

Development of agriculture, livestock, industries, cooperatives, rural credit water supply, irrigation, public health, establishment of hospitals and dispensaries, communications, primary and adult education and social welfare. Adoption of measures for relief of distress making grants-in-aid to schools, libraries, etc. acquisition and maintenance of village 'huts' and markets, coordination of the plans of Anchalik Parishads and sanctioning their budgets.

16. Delhi
Promotion of agriculture, animal husbandry, coop. farming, cottage industries, fisheries, forests etc. acting as agent for development programmes.

Advise the Administration (and the corporation if it so decides) on development schemes; preparation and execution of development plans, approval of Panchayat budgets, coordination of plans covering more than one Panchayat; sanction and disbursement of such loans and grants as may be placed at the disposal of the Samitis, any other function which may be assigned by the Administration or corporation.
17. Himachal Pradesh
Construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, wells etc. maintenance of primary schools, maternity and child welfare, promotion of agriculture, industries etc. (Tehsil Panchayat)
Holding of Panchayat conferences, arranging for adult education, establishment and maintenance of libraries and reading rooms, organisation of training centres for Panches etc.
Coordinate the work of Tehsil Panchayats. Advise Administration on development schemes.

18. Tripura and Manipur
U.P.P.R. Act 1947 has been extended to these territories.

19. Andaman & Nicobar Islands.
Sanitation & conservation & child welfare construction of roads, bridges, drains, markets, akharas, libraries, recreation centres, etc. watch & ward; collection of land revenue, preparation of development plans opening of fair price shops, spread, supervision and improvement of education; promotion of agricultural production and cooperative farming, minor irrigation works etc.

20. Goa, Daman and Diu
Construction, repair and maintenance of roads, drains, bridges etc., sanitation and public health, planning and development, registration of births, deaths and marriages, social welfare education, culture, supply of water for domestic use, economic well-being maintenance and construction of public latrines, minor irrigation, promotion of coop. farming, construction of low rent houses to families, establishment of parks, clubs, akharas etc.
### APPENDIX C

#### I. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

#### 5. Trend of stage-wise distribution of Blocks: All India

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>P.E.</th>
<th>State I</th>
<th>Stage II</th>
<th>Post Stage II</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. At end of First Plan (1956-56)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12075</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. At end of Second Plan (1960-61)</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>2256</td>
<td>679</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. During Third Plan 1961-62</td>
<td>682 3/4</td>
<td>2425 1/4</td>
<td>1068 1/4</td>
<td>94 1/4</td>
<td>4271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>2590</td>
<td>1413</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>519</td>
<td>2732 1/4</td>
<td>1780</td>
<td>844 1/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>2764 1/4</td>
<td>1522 1/4</td>
<td>524</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1965-66</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2515</td>
<td>2167 1/4</td>
<td>769 1/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 1966-67</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td>2220 1/4</td>
<td>1190 1/4</td>
<td>5285</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. 1967-68</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1717 1/4</td>
<td>2207</td>
<td>435 1/4</td>
<td>5285</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. 1968-69</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>2496 1/4</td>
<td>3271 1/4</td>
<td>5285</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. 1969-70</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2382</td>
<td>2556</td>
<td>5285</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. 1970-71</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2326</td>
<td>2239</td>
<td>5285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. 1971-72</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1732</td>
<td>3479</td>
<td>5285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. 1972-73</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1081</td>
<td>4224</td>
<td>5285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. 1973-74</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>4855</td>
<td>5285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. 1974-75</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5240</td>
<td>5285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. 1975-76</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5921</td>
<td>5285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. 1976-77</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5285</td>
<td>5285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. 1977-78 (April)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The whole country has been delimited into 5265 Blocks. The Blocks in Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Utter Pradesh have since been redefined. In Andhra Pradesh 445 Blocks have been redefined into 221 Blocks, 418 Blocks in Madhya Pradesh have been redefined into 218 Blocks and in Utter Pradesh 899 Blocks have been redefined into 678 Blocks.

**SOURCE:** Highlights of the Programmes Community Development Special Programmes Foundation Raj, Administrative Intelligence Unit Department of Community Development Ministry of heed, Agriculture, Community Development & Cooperation, Feb. 1970.
## APPENDIX D

### COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Cumulative physical achievements for some important items of activity since inception of the programme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Cumulative achievement till 31.5.69</th>
<th>Av. achievement per block per year</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. AGRICULTURAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Improved seeds distributed</td>
<td>Quintals</td>
<td>40886700</td>
<td>1279</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Chemical fertilizers distributed</td>
<td></td>
<td>21465700</td>
<td>665</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Chemical pesticides distributed</td>
<td></td>
<td>2125786</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Improved implements distributed</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>7420256</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Agricultural demonstrations held</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>1731100</td>
<td>470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Compost pits dug</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>6221320</td>
<td>1369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. MINOR IRRIGATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Net additional area likely to be irrigated through minor irrigation works</td>
<td>Hect.</td>
<td>993500</td>
<td>233</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>III. ANIMAL HUSBANDRY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Improved animals supplied</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>352905</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Improved birds supplied</td>
<td></td>
<td>1063145</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cows ashayaks camps organised</td>
<td></td>
<td>5634200</td>
<td>965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Animals artificially inseminated</td>
<td></td>
<td>930786</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IV. SOCIAL EDUCATION</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Adult literacy centres started</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>988305</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adult male literate</td>
<td></td>
<td>14537347</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Gram ashayaks camps organised</td>
<td></td>
<td>223000</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Members trained</td>
<td></td>
<td>845701</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>V. VILLAGE &amp; SMALL INDUSTRIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Value of improved tools and appliances distributed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Blacksmith</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>4980443</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Carpenter</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>525701</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>VI. HEALTH &amp; RURAL SANITATION</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Rural latrines constructed</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>1367350</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Fossa drains constructed</td>
<td>Meters</td>
<td>3246628</td>
<td>1002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Village lanes paved</td>
<td>sq.meters</td>
<td>2170235</td>
<td>586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Well sunk constructed</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>522936</td>
<td>66</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Drinking water wells constructed</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>508454</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Draining water wells renovated</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>662582</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>VII. COMMUNICATIONS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. New kacha roads constructed</td>
<td>Kms.</td>
<td>435758</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Existing kacha roads improved</td>
<td></td>
<td>690250</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Culverts constructed</td>
<td>Nos.</td>
<td>2221</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The figures for March 69 have been repeated for March 69 quarter for Kensa.*

1. Highlights of the Programme Administrative Intelligence Unit, Deptt.
# Appendix E

## Community Development Programmes

People's contribution according to States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>55</td>
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<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gujarat (Maharashtra)</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>24</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
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<td>Kerala</td>
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<td>140</td>
<td>145</td>
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<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>717</td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td>Nagaland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>106</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Orissa</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana (Punjab)</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>809</td>
<td>968</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rajasthan (Jaisalmer)</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>1663</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal (Kolkata)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andaman &amp; Nicobar Islands</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tripura</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>Mizoram</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>52</td>
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<td>N.A.</td>
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<td>46</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Manipur (NEFA)</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
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<td>Pondicherry</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>All India</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>7280</td>
<td>4881</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>193</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*The information is for the period April to December, 1968.*
1952 - Creation of the Community Projects Administration in March.
First Conference of Development Commissioners on Community Development in May.
The First Orientation and Training Course for Project Executive Officers.
Launching of the Community Development Programme on October 2.

1953 - Starting of the first batch of training centre for Social Education Organisers at Nilokheri, Hyderabad, Ghandigram, Shantiniketan and Allahabad in April.
Inauguration of National Extension Service in October.

1954 - Starting of the first three training centres for Block Development Officers in April.

1955 - Conversion of the first batch of NES Blocks into C.D.Blocks in April.

1956 - Starting of 26 Pilot Projects for Village Industries in April.
Creation of Ministry of Community Development in September.
1957 - Starting of 42 Special Multipurpose Tribal Projects.
Starting of coordinated programme of social welfare for women and children in April.
Constitution of the Informal Consultative Committee of Members of Parliament in May.
Submission of report of the Team for the study of Community Projects and National Extension, Service (Balwant Rai Mehta Committee) in December.

1958 - Transfer of the subject of village panchayats to the Ministry of Community Development in March. Revision in the Community Development Programme—abolition of the distinction between NES and C.D. and introduction of Stage I and Stage II in April. Establishment of the National Institute on Community Development at Mussoorie in May.

Approval of the National Development Council for staggering of the CD programme into Third Plan. Delegation of authority to Panchayats and other village institutions for executing local works out of the schematic budget.
Fixation of norms of performance for taking up new areas under the CD programme.
Transfer of work relating to cooperation from the Food and Agriculture Ministry to the Ministry of Community Development and the creation of the Ministry of CD and Co-operation.

1959 - Submission of report by the UN Evaluation Mission on Community Development in India.

Introduction of Panchayati Raj in Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh and Madras.

1960 - Introduction of Panchayati Raj in Assam and Mysore.


1962 - Introduction of Panchayati Raj in Maharashtra.

Applied Nutrition Programme undertaken with assistance from U.N.I.C.E.F.

1963 - Introduction of Panchayati Raj in West Bengal and two districts of Bihar.

Rural Works Programme transferred to Department of Community Development from Planning Commission.
1965 - Inter-state Conference on Rural Manpower programme held in April.
National Institute of Community Development converted into a registered society under the Societies Registration Act, with effect from 1.11.1965.
Introduction of Panchayati Raj in one more district of Bihar.

1966 - Merger of Ministry of C.D. & Cooperation with the Ministry of Food and Agriculture.

1967 - Central Institute of Panchayati Raj closed on 1st April.

1968 - Scheme of Lock Karya Kshetra transferred to Department of Community Development from Planning Commission.

The Study Team on involvement of C.D. Agency and P.R. Institutions in the implementation of basic land reform measures submitted its report in December.

Wells Construction Programme discontinued as Central Scheme and transferred to State Sector v.e.f. April 1.
1969 - From April 1 C.D. Programme has been considered a State Plan Scheme for which Central Assistance to State Governments will be made available in the form of Block grants and Block loans.

Rural Manpower Programme discontinued as Central Scheme and transferred to State Sector w.e.f. April 1.

The scheme of Pilot Research Projects in Growth Centres started.


First observance of Community Development Week (2nd to 8th October).

1971 - Implementation of Crash Scheme for Rural Employment.
Panchayats and agricultural development in U.P.

For the development of agriculture panchayats are playing most significant role in the state and are constantly trying new scientific methods, instruments and seeds etc. etc. They are particularly playing important role in the field of minor irrigation, inspite of their limited financial resources. During the previous years they cleared and deepened 46,854 old tanks, and constructed 1007 new tanks.

During the financial year 1969-70 they worked for the installation of 30469 tube wells, 155 hand pumps, 291 tanks and 181 wells for irrigation purposes, while in 1968-69 they made arrangements for 130 hand pumps, 77306 tube wells, 245 tanks as well as 513 wells, that helped agricultural development.

During the financial year 1968-69 Panchayats started a scheme for the destruction of "Hayna"; (JALMUKHT) to clear the tanks. It has not only helped irrigation but 37,558 tonnes manure was also prepared by its waste. This programme is also expected to promote fisheries in the State.¹

¹. Figures by the kind courtesy of Panchayat Raj Office, Aligarh.
The HYV programme was introduced in U.P. in 35 districts in the Kharif and in the 27 districts in the Rabi in 1966-67. In 1967-68, the programme was extended to 48 of the 54 districts in the State. Wheat is the most important crop of U.P. which accounted for about 40% of the area under Rabi foodgrains in 1965-66.

The HYV programme has already completed three years of its operation in the State. It has achieved considerable success in terms of coverage of cultivators as well as area under Mexican wheat. Qualitatively, however, the programme had achieved only limited success. The yields obtained are still not to the desired level, the various cultivation practices followed and the doses of fertilizers and irrigation for high yielding show a considerable deviation from the recommended practices and doses.

Therefore it is necessary that besides supplying inputs, the extension agency should step up efforts to improve the qualitative content of the programme.

An ambitious programme to raise farm output has been launched in the state so as to exceed (1969) year's estimated production of 63 lakh tonnes.

The State produced 34 lakh tonnes of rice in 1970-71. In view of the successful procurement drive, the FCI has revised its target from 6.5 lakh tonnes to 9.5 lakh tonnes. The procurement the year (1971) has significantly gone up as compared to year 1969 when only 3 lakh tonnes of wheat was procured against a target of 5 lakh tonnes.

During the year 1971 an area of 10,56,800 hectares was proposed to be brought under exotic and hybrid varities,
13,36,500 hectares under improved varieties and 4,40,000 hectares under local varieties. Dwarf varieties of paddy, IR-8, IR-49, Padma, Java, Jamuna, Sabarmati, etc. were to be sown in 10 lakh hectares. The target of cultivation of hybrid and composite maize, Ganga-2, Ganga-3, Ganga-5, Kisan, Vikram, Jawahar, etc. was fixed at 16,000 hectares. Hybrid jowar CSH-1 and hybrid bajra HV-4 were to be sown in 8000 hectares and 40,000 hectares, respectively.

The target for other improved varieties of paddy, such as NSI-200, NSI-98, China-4, etc. had been set at 7,56,000 hectares and for maize Type 41, Jaunpur, etc. at 5,80,500 hectares. Local varieties of jowar, bajra and improved maize were to be sown in 2,00,000 hectares and 40,000 hectares respectively.

1919 year's target for coverage under exotic and hybrid varieties was 8.48 lakh hectares, under improved varieties 13.72 lakh hectares, and under local varieties 4.45 lakh hectares. Thus, while the coverage under the exotic and hybrid varieties during the 1971 year by about 12 lakh hectares, the coverage under improved and local varieties has slightly decreased.

Industrial Development in Uttar Pradesh

In order to make Panchayats economically more effective, and to provide full employment and partial employment to the able bodied persons of villages in U.P. it has been decided under article 30 of the Panchayati Raj Act, to establish at least one Panchayat industry in every district of the state. For these Panchayat industries finances are provided by Gaon Sabhas as share holders as well as loan from the Govt. First in 1960, 5 Gaon Sabhas of Chinhat organised themselves into a society and started a Panchayat industry in Chinhat. With the encouraging results of this experiment other ten industries were established in 8 Commissionaries of U.P. Later on Panchayat Ra' Department decided to establish at least one industry in each district. Accordingly 67 panchayat industries are working in the 48 districts of the State. At present 2699 Gaon Sabhas are involved in the work.

Panchayat industries centre are producing generally agricultural instruments and other things to meet the rural requirements. They have earned Rs.5 lakhs as profit during last years.

The remarkable progress recorded by other States, has made the people realise that 'industrialise or perish' should be the motto under the present dispensation. Naturally, therefore, there is a swing towards industrialisation although U.P. remains a primarily agricultural state.

The State has never been as determined and better equipped, mentally and materially, for a big leap forward in the industrial sphere as it is today. The State can be said to be in the intermediate stage of development, so far as the industrial activity is concerned. Despite the fact that it occupies the fifth place in the country in the matter of industrialisation, the industries are mainly confined to a few areas in the State, covering hardly 18 districts out of total of 54. The remaining 36 district have little or no industrial and have, therefore, been declared industrially backward.

So far as these 36 districts are concerned special concessions and facilities have been announced which have made them very attractive and lucrative from industrial point of view. The extra concessions and incentives have been extended both by the national and State financing institutions and other promotional organisations.

INHERENT ADVANTAGES:

Uttar Pradesh has, apart from the announced concessions and incentives, many inherent advantages,
promising bright future for the enterprises set up here. Firstly, it has a vast consumers market of its own. With the 'green revolution' coming into full swing, the purchasing capacity of the agriculturists constituting the three-fourth of the State's total population of about 90 million, is rapidly improving. This phenomenon is leading to a big spirit in the sale of consumers articles. Again the fast increasing demand for various in-puts for improved agriculture is creating a fertile ground for putting up a large number of agro-based industries, both for leading the agriculture and processing its produce.

DEARTH OF LAND:

Secondly, there is no dearth of land in the State. As a matter of fact, several of the backward districts have found very safe for industrial growth from the defence angle as those are quite distant from the borders.

Thirdly, labour is fairly cheap and co-operative as compared to many other states.

Even the technical personnel, right from craftsmen to Engineers, is available in abundance. Second to none in skill, these trained men are also less expensive.

Fourthly, the State has a vast network of rail and roadways. All the district headquarters are connected by good roads, and, barring a few by railways also. The State's principal cities are connected by
Though the State is deficient in minerals like iron, ore and good quality coals, it has rich deposits of several important minerals, like lime-stone, dolomite, magnesite, copper, silica and bauxite etc.

And Above all, a congenial climate for industrial growth is presently pervading the entire State which was so far lacking.

In its keenness to stimulate the growth of industries, the State Government and its various promotional industrial organizations have offered a number of concessions and incentives for putting up industrial enterprises. As stated earlier, these concessions are all the more attractive in the case of 36 industrially backward districts.

To check growing concentration of industries at a few places in the State and to end the regional disparities, the Government have recently decided to set up four new huge industrial complexes on the pattern of Ghaziabad and Kanpur.

The most significant among these will be established between Mathura and Agra which will be about 169 kilometers from Delhi. Equipped with full infrastructure and facilities this local point will be connected by these systems of railways - Central, Western and Northern - and is at the junction of two most important national highways - Delhi - Bombay and Delhi - Calcutta. It is also connected by airlines and attempts are being made to declare Agra an international airport. Agra has about 300 iron foundries and an
equal number of small engineering units which can also help for the development of this area.

The other three growth centres are proposed to be located at Naini (Allahabad), Bareilly and Gorakhpur.

A major concession to new industrial units is the exemption of their products from sales tax for a period of three years from the commencement of production.

The few materials of certain types of industries and new units are exempted from sales tax for a definite period.

The new units are also not required to pay toll tax on their building materials and machinery. This concession, however, expired on March 31, 1972.

FINANCIAL AID

Industrial loans ranging from Rs. 25,000 to Rs. 20 lakhs are easily available from the U.P. Financial Corporation at most competitive rate of interest. The U.P. Small Industrial Corporation offers indigenous machines on hire-purchase basis up to a value of Rs. 55 lakhs per party on very liberal terms and conditions.

The Directorate of Industries has a special cell of technical advisers in various fields of industrial production. Technical advice on various industrial problems are readily available from this cell.

The U.P. Small Industries Corporation has developed a special consultancy cell for electronic industries. The industries Directorate has also compiled feasibility reports of a large number of industries which can be readily taken up by the entrepreneurs.
A chain of common service facility centres in respect of over a dozen type of industries are functioning throughout the State, offering service of costly machines and equipment to small industrialists on nominal charge.

A comprehensive techno-economic survey of all the districts has been stated a fresh to explore their industrial potential. Such a survey of the hill districts has been completed. This will provide a ready study of the scope of particular industries in various districts for the benefit of new industrialists.

New industrial units with a firm power demand of over 100 KVA will be allowed a rebate of 15 per cent in power charges for period of three years. The electro-chemical and metallurgical industries will be further granted a concession of 0.5 paisa per unit. The small scale units are given a rebate of 9 paisa per unit and such units get the power bill after deducting the rebate amount.

The allocations of the 400 MGW Atomic Power Station to this State will go a long way in easing the power position. The larger scale units are given a price preference up to five per cent, in comparison to industrial units existing outside the State.

The U.P. Export Corporation offers technical guidance, export information, financial assistance, packing samples and storage facilities at posts of exporters. It acts as an export agency to exporters of the small scale and cottage sector. It conducts market survey in foreign countries and assesses the scope of exports for the benefit of exporters.
At last but not least important factor promising prompt implementation of industrial projects is the constitution by the State Government of a high power advisory committee at State level to tackle their problems expeditiously. Some leading and progressive industrialists have been included in the committee. Another committee under the chairmanship of the Chief Secretary ensure quick disposal of industrialists matters in various departments of the State Government.

+ N.C. Ghosh: The Economic Times, August 15, 1972, p X.
Other Significant achievements of Panchayats

During their working period of 17 years Panchayats have constructed 14973 Panchayat Ghar and established 22176 libraries. 13248 Kilometers Pakka road were constructed to improve village transport. For the purpose of drainage 52,093 culverts were made. To make arrangements for the pure drinking water is one of the primary responsibilities of village Panchayats. Panchayats have arranged for 2,07,528 hand pumps, 1,43,878 Pakka wells and 2,98,124 Katcha wells. At the same time to solve the problem of drinking water Panchayats repaired 2,45,853 and cleaned 2,13,466 wells.

During the year 1969-70 these Panchayats constructed 2,358 wells for drinking water, 1953 hand pumps, 177 Panchayat Ghar, 999 school buildings and 236 Girl's school buildings.

Nyaya Panchayats:

Panchayats are play a very important role in maintaining peaceful social life in villages. Nyaya Panchayats have contributed a lot in this direction. During the financial year 1969-70, 46,704 cases have been under their consideration. They decided 40,732 cases. At least half of these cases that is 22,565 were decided by mutual agreement between the parties. The fines received in these cases have increased the income of Panchayats. It was used for developmental purposes. The progress rate of deciding the cases by Nyaya Panchayats according to the available statistic has been 74% in 1963-64, 88% in 1965-66 and 87% in 1969-70.
### Appendix J.

**PANCHAYTI RAJ**

**Coverage of Village Panchayats: State-wise**

(as on 31st March, 1969)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>No. of Panchayats</th>
<th>No. of villages</th>
<th>Total population of villages of rural age no. of population of villages covered +</th>
<th>Percentage of rural age no. of population covered +</th>
<th>Percentage of Village Panchayats of rural area covered +</th>
<th>Average size of Panchayat in terms of population</th>
<th>Average size of Panchayat in terms of area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>15,290</td>
<td>27,064</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1,94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Assam (Plains)</td>
<td>2,570</td>
<td>17,717</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Bihar</td>
<td>10,838</td>
<td>67,655</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Gujarat</td>
<td>11,884</td>
<td>18,272</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Haryana</td>
<td>1,595</td>
<td>6,609</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>6,539</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Kerala</td>
<td>932</td>
<td>1,635</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>15.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>12,809</td>
<td>70,414</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Madras</td>
<td>12,386</td>
<td>14,128</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Maharashtra</td>
<td>22,017</td>
<td>35,492</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Mysore</td>
<td>7,150</td>
<td>25,880</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Orissa</td>
<td>2,350</td>
<td>46,166</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>6.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Punjab</td>
<td>7,834</td>
<td>11,933</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Rajasthan</td>
<td>7,381</td>
<td>32,241</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>22,292</td>
<td>1,12,067</td>
<td>643</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. West Bengal</td>
<td>19,662</td>
<td>38,510</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>98*</td>
<td>98*</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. A &amp; N Islands</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Delhi</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Goa, Daman &amp; Diu</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>1,695</td>
<td>14,329</td>
<td>26 **</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Manipur</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>1,325</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Tripura</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>4,685</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ALL INDIA:** 2,406,030 593,778 3502.9 98 98 2.61.63

+ According to 1961 census.

* Coalfields and tea estates remain yet to be covered.

** Estimates figures based on 1961 census.

**Note:** Information as on 31st March 1968 for Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir, Madras, Maharashtra, Mysore, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Delhi, Goa, Daman & Diu, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur and Tripura.

**Source:** Highlights of the Programme, Administrative Intelligence Unit, Deptt of Community Development, Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development & Cooperation Govt. of India, Feb. 1970 page 75.
### Appendix K

**PANCHAYTI RAJ**

**Coverage of Panchayats: All India**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. No. of Panchayats ('000)</td>
<td></td>
<td>194</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. No. of villages covered ('000)</td>
<td></td>
<td>482</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Percentage of villages covered</td>
<td></td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>94.3</td>
<td>96.3</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Average no. of villages per panchayat</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Rural population covered (according to 1961 census) (crores)</td>
<td></td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Percentage of rural population covered</td>
<td></td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>96.9</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>98.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Average population per panchayat (according to 1961 census)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1675</td>
<td>1655</td>
<td>1654</td>
<td>1613</td>
<td>1646</td>
<td>1646</td>
<td>1638</td>
<td>1637</td>
<td>1637</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Provisional.

**Source:** Highlights of the Programme, Administrative Intelligence Unit, Deptt. of Community Development Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development & Cooperation Govt. of India, February, 1977 page 74.
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## COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME
**Staffing Pattern in Blocks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of staff</th>
<th>No. of posts provided per</th>
<th>Additional posts provided per Block</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C.D.Block</td>
<td>IADP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Block Development Officer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. E.O. (Agri.)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. E.O. (A.H.)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. E.O. (Cooperation)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. E.O. (Panchayats)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. E.O. (=Rural Industries)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Overseer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Social Education Organiser</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Mukhya Sevika</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Gram Sevak</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Gram Sevika</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Progress Assistant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Accountant-cum-Store-Keeper</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Senior Clerk</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Cashier</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Typist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Class IV Servants</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Stockmen (Veterinary)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Messengers (-do-)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Medical Officer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Compounder</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Sanitary Inspector</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Lady Health Visitor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Midwives</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Sweepers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contd.2./
Note:-

( i ) During the pre-extension stage, the staff comprises of one B.D.O., one Extension Officer (Agriculture) and Five Gram Sewaks.

(ii) There is no provision for pay and allowances of the medical and health staff as well as veterinary staff in the Stage II budget. The expenditure on account of pay and allowance of such staff will, on expiry of stage I, be met from departmental budget of the State Govt.

(iii) Extension Officer for Fisheries and Horticulture may also be appointed where necessary, without exceeding the pooled provision for expenditure on Block personnel for the State as a whole.

(iv) Under Panchayti Raj, the staff under various development departments as also under previously existing Local Self Government Institutions, if any, at the Block level and below, will be directly functioning under the Block administration.

(v) In view of financial difficulties, some States have carried out modification in the staffing pattern, either by retrenching certain posts or by combining the functions of more than one post.

SOURCE:-- Highlights of the Programme Community Development Special Programmes Panchayti Raj, Administrative Intelligence Unit Department of Community Development Ministry of Food, Agriculture Community Development & Co-operation Feb., 1970.

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