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DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION-I

Unit Structure

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

The district administration has its own origin from the Muslim revenue system established by Sher Shah Suri 1529 – 45. He divided his empire into 47 divisions or Sarkar, which was subdivided into 113, 000 parganas. He established office of revenue at Sarkar and parganas. In the board sense, deputy commissioner was a descendant of fozdar of Mughal administration. The Mughal Empire was divided into province that is subaas and district Sarkar. The provinces were headed by governor who was responsible for law and order and revenue collection. The district was subdivided into parganas; which was headed by shiqandar who was responsible for law and order and General administration. The Mughal had no functionary at the village level, but mukaddam used to perform revenue function. He used to collect revenue. Patawary was an accountant, who uses to keep account of crop areas, the crops sown and revenue demanded. In the Mughal system there was separation of judicial and revenue collection functions. The British largely adopted the administration of Mughal, in the north of sub-continent.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

Semester III there are Part-I and II related to all eight chapters. In the chapter-1 we are going to deals with a number of aspects related to the district administration. In Lessons 3 to 8 we are going to study the course content related to rural administration. The specific objectives of the

present lesson are as follows:

1) To understand the concepts of the‘night-watchman state’ andits manifestation described as Law and Order Administration or Revenue Administration.
2) To understand the concepts of ‘welfare state’ and its manifestation, described as Development Administration.
3) To understand the concept of district administration, which is broadly divided into the revenue administration and development administration?
4) To learnt about the territorial administration in India prior to the advent at the British rule.
5) To learn about the evolution, i.e. the origin, and development of the district administration during the British rule.

1.3 KEY CONCEPTS

I) Night Watch-man State:

The 19th century liberals believed that the state that administers least is the best state. Accordingly the functions of the state are limited to defense, maintaining law and order and administration of justice. The colonial state that existed in India limited the scope of its activities to the bare minimum activities, in addition to protecting the interests of the British Empire.

II) Law and Order:

In a colonial state the scope of activities of administration was limited to collection of revenue, maintaining law and order, and administration of justice. The district administration undertook these activities, in addition to very few developmental activities, during the British period. Owing to the scope of its activities being limited to the traditional activities, it is described as the law and order or revenue administration, headed by the District Collector. The district administration continues to perform these activities in the post-independent period.

III) Welfare state:

The 19th century socialists advocated expansion of the activities of the state. They expected the state to promote welfare of the people by undertaking activities such as education, health, employment generation and social security. The state that cares for the well-being of the people and undertakes welfare activities is described as a welfare state The Indian state has assumed the responsibility of the welfare of the people in general and promoting rural development in particular therefore, the present Indian state is a welfare state.

1.4 DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION

District administration is the administrative machinery working at a

territorial administrative unit described as district. The geographical area of the state of Maharashtra has been divided into thirty five districts and the administrative machinery of each of this administrative unit, i.e. a district is the district administration.

What is District Administration?

The District Administration is the territorial unit of public administration where the activities associated with public administration take place. Accordingly to the Chamber's Twentieth Century Dictionary. District is a sub-division of a division. It is a portion of territory Defined for political, judicial, educational, (and) / or any other purposes. To further simplify in administrative sense district is a territory marked off for special administrative purpose.

Broadly speaking, the district is an area defined by the nature preferences of neighboring social groups to make their collective life meaningful to one another, and brought under a common administration. Its boundaries are settled by the extent of their effective intercourse and by practical considerations to enhance administrative convenience. The dissimilarities in the size of districts both in area and population are largely attributable to the natural preferences and to the extent of the effort at obtaining local finality. A district can be created by the arbitrary exorcise o political will as has been done in almost every state in India. The territorial structure of administration in India is too ancient, being largely an adoption of the Mauryan and neither the long line of her conquerors nor her own genius has shown any originality or innovative zeal to change it. The Mauryans almost 2500 years ago created for the administration of their vijita (empire) territorial system consisting of the grama (revenue village) sthana (a group of villages — revenue circle — or in some cases a small taluk), the vishya (talukortahsi). ahara (district), the pradesha (division) and the Janapada (province). Today district the basic unit of the Indian administration.

On the other hand, the term 'administration' is desired form the Latin Words 'ad' and 'ministrate'; which mean to care for or look after, or to manage affairs.

According to L.D. While, the art of administration is the direction, co-operation and control of many persons to achieve some purpose or objective, E.N. Gladden says. Administrationmeans to care or to look after people to manage affairs 1a determined action taken in pursuit of conscious purpose., Prof. John A. Vieg views administration as the systematized ordering of affairs and the calculated use of resources, aimed al making those things happen which we want to happen and simultaneously preventing developments that fall to square with our intentions" Pfiffner defines administration "as the Organization and direction of human and material resources to achieve desired ends. Nigro says, 'The core of administration is the basic service which is performed for the public such as the police and the protection, public works,

education, sanitation, social security, agricultural research, national defense and others. Herbert A. Simon view, "It is the activities of group co-operating to accomplish common goals. In the opinion of Luther Gulick Administration has to do with getting things do, with accomplishment of defined objectives.

Thus, administrative is the management or proper ordering, of the collective activities of a group of people which is directed towards the attainment of the consciously land down objectives. It is an effort "to direct, guide and integrate associated1 human striving towards some specific ends."

District administration is the management of the governmental activities within a district. The governmental activities include implementation of Laws arid policies, programmes and policies. For this purpose the government confers a number of powers are the functionaries at the district level. The efforts of the district administration are directed towards the realization of the goal that the state has set before itself. District administration is manifestation of the government.

India is a country of vast area, having tremendous populations with diverse and different cultures and climatic conditions, etc. ft is both impracticable and inadvisable to conduct the administration of the whole country from a single center or state. To administer the country effectively, it is divided into districts and each state is divided into districts and each district is subdivided into Taluka or Tehsils. However, district has become a strategic center of administration before and after independence. Thus, India is currently divided in about 450 districts.

It is the most important administrative division our federal democratic set up where it is expected to play a responsible and beneficial role. The district administration: is no longer the custodian of law an order and administration of justice alone but it is also expected of it that it should strive for the development of the district and create situation where people have a feeling that they are living in a welfare state. S. S. Khera has explained the purpose, position and the role of the district administration very aptly in succinct words when he says that district administration Is "the total management of public affairs within this unit.

The tact of the matter is that the activities and role of the distinct administration cover a wide and varied range. It is through the district administration that the policies and programmes of economic development and social change in the rural areas are to be implemented. During successive Five-Year Plans, programme of rural development like community development, co-operation, intensive agricultural development, command area development, small farmer, marginal farmer, agricultural labour development programme, drought prone area programme, development of women and children of rural area and employment programmes have been introduced. Moreover to give effect

to the concept of decentralized planning district administration is expected to formulate district development plans linked up with state and national plans. Apart from development functions, the district administration has to face new challenges and new tasks of land reforms, dealing with natural calamities such as drought, flood and fire, public distribution system, and various types of welfare programmes, especially for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

District administration has become the most powerful institution it is the only media which has brought the totality of governmental machinery nearer and closed to the people at the local level at their doorstep. Thus district administration has become the primary unit of the Indian administration and that the success and failure of the Indian state is linked up with the performance of the district administration.

1.5 EVOLUTION OF DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION

In spite of the fact that the system of territorial Administration goes back to the Mauryan period and that the subsequent rulers from the Guptas to the Mughals and the Marathas had their held units, the contemporary district administration emerged during the British rule in India. At the end of the British rule, the undivided India comprised of eleven provinces, divided into 250 districts. The British in the early part of their rife considered large districts were not only economic from the administrative point of view but also conducive to the consolidation of their empire through centralization of power However, towards the end of their regime as communication and other facilities improved, they were convinced that the district being the main field of government operations, should be of a compact size The average area of a district was 11474 sq. kms., and the average population was 9,31,030.

The East India Company's administration of three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bangal was looked after by its 'inerenants' and other officials. The Company's march from a trading company into territorial power started with the Battle of Plasey (1757) and the Battle of Buxar (1764). The Company became a territorial power with the grant of the Diwani rights of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa by the Mughal Emperror Shah Alam II in 1765, by signing the Treaty of Aflahabad in 1765. Thus it came to have control over the revenue of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. The work of administration was theoretically in the hands of the Nawabs but actually it was in the hands of two deputy Nawabs, Muhammad Raza Khan for Eengal and ShitabRal for Bihar who were Bengal, Bihar appointed by the Nawab on the advice of the officials of the Company. The Company collected revenue and paid fixed annual sums of 32 rupees for the expenses of the Nizamat. The Company performed revenue functions but the work of administration was not assumed by it. This system of dividing the functions of government has been called the Rural Government.

1.5.1 The System of Rural Government:

There were several reasons for adopting the system of Rural Government. Firstly, the Directors of the company feared that the assumptions of responsibility would consume profits. Secondly, the company did not have sufficient number of administrators for Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. Thirdly, foreign powers could be told that company was not extending territories and thus their jealousy was not likely to be roused. In other words, it was a screen concealing the political revolution in Bengal.

The system of Rural Government proved most defective in many ways. Firstly, power was divorced from responsibility. Nawabwas responsible for administration but he had no real power. The deputy Nawabs carried on the administration but in practice theywere under the control of the Company. The Company controlled the revenues as well as the army. The Nawab had responsibility without power. Under these circumstances the administration began to grow bad. The zamindars, the officials and the Company's servants tyrannized the people. According to Dr. NandlalChatterjee, the system exhibited the adroitness of an astuteschemer rather than the foresight of a responsible administrator. In 1769-70 there wassevere famine in Bengal and about one-third population died. The Company remained a passive spectator and did nothing to ameliorate condition of the starving masses. Rather its employees used the occasion make profits. The second defect was that the Company itself did not gain much. The Company had acquired the right of collecting revenue but its financial position had become very bad. The revenue was collected through the native agents and the Directors felt that a good deal of it was misappropriated by the native agent. The English supervisors were appointed in 1769 but this aim did not improve matters. The Cultivators Paid beyond their capacity but the Company did not grow rich. Thus the system of Rural Government was a total failure. In the words of Kaye,' the Rural administration made confusion worse confounded and corruption more corrupt'' In the words of Prof. Ramsay Muir,' Rural system of Government was a complete failure from outset. In the first place the abuses of private trade reached a greater height than ever. In the second place, the demands of for increase of revenue led to gross oppression of the peasantry.

Warren Hastings the Governor General of Bengal, dispensed with the 'Rural Government' in 1772 and divided the provinces of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa into 4 divisions, each consisting of six districts. Hastings appointed the English District Collectors for revenue collection and revenue administration. They were assisted by the native officers. The right of revenue collection was given to the highest bidders for live years. The system of bidding was made an annual affair in 1777. A Board of Revenue was established at Calcutta to supervise the whole revenue organization. For assisting the Board of Revenue local officers also appointed. Three provinces wore divided into six divisions and cab division was provided with a council of 5 members this was done to check the corruption. The member of the Revenue Board was paid salary of Rs 3000 per month.

1.5.2. EMERGENCE OF DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION:

The system of Rural Government proved disastrous for the Company because the servants of the Company were carrying on private trade on a large scale, it resulted in the neglect of Company's work. The employees of the Company were ordered not to carry on private trade. Clive was of the view felt that the salaries of the servants of the Company were low. He wrote to the Directors of the Company to increase their salaries but they did not agree. He began to giant monopoly of salt trade and began to distribute its profits among the senior officers of the Company in a graduated scale. In spite of these measures, the Company continued to incur huge losses. It was compelled to approach the British Government for financial assistance. The British Parliament enacted he Regulating Act in 1773 and abolished the rural system of government. The office of the Governor was created. Each of the presidencies was to be divided into a number of districts. The district administration was entrusted to English collectors. In addition, in every district civil and criminal courts were established. The responsibility of administration of justice was entrusted to the covenanted servants of the company. The collector was the principal officer of revenue administration. This system was extended to Bombay and Madras Presidencies subsequently.

1.5.3 SUBSEQUENT DEVELOPMENT:

After taking over the responsibility of revenue and judicial administration, it was feet necessary to assume the task of maintaining law and order. The collector was assigned magisterial powers and the newly created police force was placed under his control. Towards the end of the 18th century, administration of prisons was placed under the control of the collector It became necessary to look after the hygiene and health of the prisons. The superintendent of the-prisons was assigned functions related with the public health. The frequency of epidemics necessitated creation of public Health Department. The public works Department was established to construct and maintain roads an public buildings. Gradually the district administration assumed the responsibilities of education, agriculture, irrigation and famine relief.

Towards the end of the 19m century, the famous Resolution of Lord Rippon in 1882 proposed introduction of local a self-government and to transform the district administration into a local democracy The Resolution envisaged a three-tier system of local government, viz. the village council, the taluka board and district board. It was introduced in many provinces and functioned with a great measure of success.

The Twentieth century witnessed the emergence of the mass nationalist movement. Trio Non-cooperation movement, the Civil Disobedience movement put great strain on the district administration. I.e. maintenance of law and order and putting down the peaceful resistance became the top priorities of the district administration. As a result the magisterial role of the collector became more important and entrusted other responsibilities to the. District level functionaries. Towards the end of the British rule, the

district administration had become one of the four pillars of the edifice of the British Empire.

In conclusion, it may be said that British administration in India was meant to serve colonial interests even when it meant better justice, more security, appointment of Indians at very low levels and also humanitarian measures. Europeanization of Services in the higher positions was the watchword of British administration. A very prompt collection of revenue required a well-paid and efficient bureaucracy and a hierarchy of Courts. Cost-efficiency impelled the employment of Indians in large numbers at lower levels.

The district administration itself underwent two important phases of changes under Cornwallis and Bentinck. The Cornwallis Code established a system which came to be called the steel frame of British administration in India. The Collector who was the King pin of d district administration was no more to perform judicial and magisterial power which were now to be exercised by district judges. The Munsiffs and the Registrars at the Zilaeven tried cases upto Rs. 50 and Rs. 200 respectively. The Zamindars were not to be responsible for keeping peace in their areas. They had to disband their police forces. A number of Police circles called Thanes were established under Daroghas in every district which were placed under the supervision of the Magistrate. In short, district administration was controlled by two European officers: one designated as Collector of Revenue and the other as a Judge and Magistrate. The Indians were not appointed in these positions. Even the District Superintendent of Police later was always an Englishman.

In the Second phase, William Bentinck departed from the system of Cornwallis. Now the administration came to rest on Commissioners heading a division comprising many districts. The posts of Superintendents of Police were abolished. The Divisional Commissioner had under him such district officers as Collectors, magistrates and judges. Bentinck gave the charge of sub-divisions to Indians who functioned as Joint Magistrates.

1.6 PRINCIPLES OF DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION

- **Openness and transparency**: Transparency is a key element of public trust and confidence. A commitment to transparency demonstrates to the community that an agency and its officials have nothing to hide. There are a variety of ways to show this commitment: Conscientious observance of transparency laws.
- **Democratic accountability:** Political accountability is when a politician makes choices on behalf of the people and the people have the ability to reward or sanction the politician. In representative democracies citizens delegate power to elected officials through periodic elections in order to represent or act in their interest.

- **Implementing desired outcomes effectively and efficiently**: The purpose of local government is to provide an organized system where councils exercise their power and responsibilities to work together for peace, order and good governance of their municipal districts. Effective local governments provide overall quality of life for the people who reside in their communities.
- **Being aware of community views:** Active community participation in project planning and implementation may improve project design through the use of local knowledge; increase project acceptability; produce a more equitable distribution of benefits; promote local resource mobilization; community views help ensure project sustainability.
- **Taking the long-term view**: Development of strategic long –term vision that defines desired sustainable development outcomes, to enhance coherence across the government. Long term view regarding policies will be more viable as for as different circumstances are concern
- **Recognising diversity**: It means understanding dimensions of race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, socio-economic status, age, physical abilities, religious beliefs, political beliefs, or other ideologies of society to maintain basic principles of the constitutional framework.
- **Providing opportunities to contribute to decision-making:** The main aim of public participation is to encourage the public to have meaningful input into the decision-making process. Public participation thus provides the opportunity for communication between agencies making decisions and the public. ... Public participation can be time-consuming and sometimes expensive.
- **Working collaboratively with other authorities**: Local government leaders are working across public, private and administrative boundaries for the simple reason that by doing so they can amplify their influence over economic development and get more from their assets with partners than they can alone.
- **Taking a sustainable approach**: Local governments have significant power and influence to determine whether policies and programs under their authority create sustainable or unsustainable conditions. For example, local governments largely have control over land use and development. Through land use regulations and building codes, municipal and county governments can promote and shape new development that is sustainable: development that is compact, conserving land and reducing the need for auto travel; powered by renewable energy, energy and water-efficient and affordable to people from all walks of life. Or, local governments can perpetuate unsustainable development that gobbles up open space and farmland, forcing more people to make more auto trips that worsen traffic, increase air pollution and increase use of fossil fuels.

1.7 NATURE OF THE DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION

District administration is the basic unit of the Indian administration for more than 200 years and occupied pivotal position in the Indian administration. It Is viewed by the public administration scientists as a 'line agency' as well as the 'Field organization' of the Govemment of India and the State Govemment as the laws enacted by the Union Parliament and the State Legislature, the policies and programmes of the Union and the State Government are implemented by the administrative machinery at the district level. On the other hand, the economist views the district administration as an agency of planning and development at the grass roots level. The political scientists look at the district from the power perspective and likes of Prof. V.M. Sirsikar regard it as the center of rural political and economic power and a mechanism for the recruitment and training of the second line of leadership.

The above mentioned the view points are partial description of the district and the district administration. In fact, the district administration, in a wider sense, is an administrative entity, development agency as well as the area of politics in the rural area.

1.7.1. DISTRICT AS A LINE AGENCY:

The line agencies are those which are concerned with the provision of services for the people or regulating their conduct in particular fields. These agencies are organized on the basis or major substantive purposes. They are concerned with the primary objects for which the government exists. .From top to bottom a single 'line' of authority runs downwards. The activities of 'line* agencies are primary, i.e. those which they perform in order to accomplish the purpose for which they exist. The hall marks of district as a Line agency are as follows.

1) The line agencies are primary agencies which exist in order the purpose for which they exist. The district administrations accomplish the objectives of state policy by their implementation.

2) The task of line agencies is to run the services. The district administration provides a number of services to people r the district.

3) The line agencies come in direct contact with the people. The district administration provides the services to the people and is in direct contact with the people.

4) The line agencies issue order down the line. The district administration issues order and supervises working of the administrative machinery. At the taluka and village level.

5) District administration serves the line agency to all departments of the government of India and the state government. Each of these departments has its district office under the control of district officer. The district collector home the principal officer, coordinates functioning of all these district offices.

1.7.2 District Administration as the Field Organization:

New Delhi is the capital of India from which the country is supposed to be governed or administered. In fact Delhi is the Head Quarter, the nerve center from which instructions are Issued and carried out by the administrative machinery spread over more than four thousand districts in India. 7bus, "actual" administration is carried out throughout the length and breadth by thousands of administrative agencies set up by the decision-makers who frame the policies, issue orders and instructions supervise and direct working of the "agents". The structure of the Indian administration is multi-level and the district administration is the basic unit of this structure and is, therefore, the field organization of the Government of India and the Government of Maharashtra.

The Head Quarter is the central or supervising office, which is usually situated in the National or State Capital. The Second Pay Commission thus elaborated that "Head Quarter Organization of the Government of India comprises of a number of Ministries and Departments." which together constitute the Central Secretariat. However, the term "Head Quarter" is used in the different context. Thus the State Governments are the intermediate tier in the context of All India administration if, the State Secretariat is the Head Quarter in the context of State administration. Similarly, the district collectorate is the intermediate structure in the state Registration: but Head Quarter in the context of district administration. In any case the agency which performs the functions of direction, supervision and control in a given administrative set up could be regarded as the Head Quarter.

In contrast, the agencies which receive and carry out instructions which is subjected to supervision, direction and control, is regarded as a field agency. The field district administration performs these functions in India for more than 200 years.

The organization of field agencies is either territorial or functional. Willoughby describes them as unitary and multiple, in the territorial or unitary form, the central authority creates area agencies and entrust them all activities pertaining to that area. The officer in-charge of territorial unit is the overseer of all specialized units within his area. Thus District Collector is head of the district

Administration and coordinates the activities of the various departments within the district and is in fact and is in fact the Principle officer' of the government within the district. The heads of the specialized Departments say public health or education or public works are subordinate official in relation to the district collector. In a rigid unitary pattern, which does not exist in India? All communication from and to field agencies are routed through the Principal Officer.

In the functional or multiple forms, the different departments have their own field establishments at the district headquarters and main direct

contact with them. District Collector is the coordinating authority in the area. However, each function is treated as an independent activity and as such there is multiplicity of as agencies in the district.

The line of authority runs directly from the Head Quarter to field agency Thus, territorial and functional forms are not mutually exclusive categories and depending on the requirements of administration, territorial or functional forms and used administration, territorial and functional forms are used.

1.7.3 District Administration as The Agency of Rural:

Development:

The development programs, schemes and projects of the numerous departments of the Government of India and the Govemment of Maharashtra are implemented through the district administration. The funds for such activities are channelized through the district level administration. The Community Development Programme, described as the regular development activities, is implemented under the direction, supervision and control of the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the ZillaParishad in Maharashtra. The development administration machinery in the district is placed under the control of the CEO. In 1970's a number of special rural poverty alleviation and employment generation commands like programs like command area development agency, the Small Farmers Development Agency and the Employment Guarantee Schemes were launched. For these special development agencies were set up at district level. These agencies functioned under the supervision direction and control of the district collector. In 1980's the numerous development programs were merged into the integrated rural development Programme (IRDP) the district level agencies were merged into a single agency, functioned under the direction, supervision and control the District Collector.

Thus the regular and special development activities are guided by the CEO and the district collector.

In addition, the District! Planning and Development (DPDC) were set up in 1972 as the basic unit of multilevel panning in India. The need based planning or the district is undertaken for the district by the DPDC. The DPDC has become a representative body under the 73th amendment as planning and development for the district has been made the responsibility of the ZillaParishad.

In nutshell, the district administration, i.e., the District Collector's office and the ZillaParishads, i.e., the district level representative body has become the agency of rural development in the post 1947 period. This is a significant development in view of the fact that even today about 70% of the population lives in villages.

1.7.4 District As the Center of Journal and Economic power:

The post-independence period witnessed the emergence of the three-tier Panchayati Raj institution and the spread of the cooperative movement in the rural area. The Panchayati Raj institutions and the cooperative societies were intended to be the instruments of rural development. However, the Panachayati Raj institutions have been given substantial functions and powers and the cooperative institutions have enormous funds at their disposal. This led to their transformation as the twin centers of power in the rural area. We witness intense inter party and intra party struggle to secure control over these institutions among the rural elite. This has resulted in acute politicization of the Panchayati Raj and cooperative institution.

The most important among these centers of power are the ZillaParishad the District Central Cooperative Bank and the other district level cooperative organizations. The control over these institutions enables the grass roots level leadership to acquire their mass base and thereby perpetually retain their control on the district politics. The more ambitious among the district level leaders have moved up to the state level and some of them have become not only MLAs but also ministers and even Chief Minister.

The positive outcome of setting up of the Panchayati Raj and cooperative institutions has been the Opportunities provided to the grass roots level leadership in the public life. As a result, a second line of leadership has emerged at the district taluka and village level.

1.8 SUMMARY

District administration is the total management of public affairs within this unit." The district is kept under the charge of a district officer—called either Deputy Commissioner or District Collector who acts as the eyes, ears and arms of the State Government. District administration in India is a legacy of the British Raj. As district magistrate, he exercised general supervision over the inferior courts and in particular, directed the police work. The office was meant to achieve the "peculiar purpose" of collecting revenue and of keeping the peace

1.9. KEYWORDS

Panchayati Raj	*Oldest system of local government in the Indian.*
Law and Order	*The enactment of laws for peace in the state.*
Welfare state	*System Undertakes well-being of its citizens*

1.10 UNIT END QUESTIONS

Descriptive:

1) Define the concept of 'District Administration and explain its nature.

2) Trace the evolution of the district administration during the British period.

3) Give an account of the changes in the district administration in the post-Independence period.

MCQs:

i) Which of the following committee recommended for Panchayati Raj System in India?

A. PunchhiSamiti.

B. Balwantrai Mehta Committee.

C. Gandhi Committee.

D. Neharu Committee

ii) **How many tiers are in the Panchayati Raj system of India?**

a. One-tier

b. Two-tier

c. Three-tier

d. Four-tier

iii) Who is the Revenue head at District level?

A. Collector.

B. Block Development Officer.

C. Tahasildar.

D. Dy. Officer.

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DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION-II

Unit Structure

2.1 Introduction
2.2 Objectives
2.3 Key Concepts
2.4 Post-Independence Developments Of District Administration
2.5 Components Of District Administration.
2.6 The Role And Functions Of District Administration
2.7 Summary.
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2.1 INTRODUCTION

Rural administration, in the operational terms, has been described as the district administration. This is due to the fact a district is a specific administrative unit consists range of 6 to 8 Talukas and each Taluka has over 100 villages. These villages are administered by the functionaries of the district administration. The present-day district administration in India had evolved during the British period, precisely from 1770 onwards. A number of changes were brought about in the district administration during the post-independence period. However, the basic structure of the district administration has remained unchanged. What is more significant to note the scope and area of activities have expanded many-fold in the post-independence period? The new activities which were entrusted to the district administration are developmental in nature. As such, the district administration in the post-independence period is broadly divided into the revenue administration and development administration. Collector, who is believed to be heart of administration in a district.

2.2 OBJECTIVES

In this chapter we will discuss the changes in district level administrations in post-independence period with its various components with following objectives:

i) To explain how the changes brought to district administration after independence.

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ii) To know the various components of district level administration.
iii) To understand the concept of 73rd & 74th constitutional amendments.
iv) Understand the features of 73rd and 74th constitutional amendment
v) To know the role and functions of district administration.

2.3 KEY CONCEPTS

Administration: the act of directing people towards accomplishing a goal.

Constitutional Amendments: A constitutional amendment is a modification of the constitution of a polity, organization or other type of entity

Component: a part or element of a larger whole.

2.4 DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION IN THE POST-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

With independence, many structural, organizational and functional changes in district administration took place. The changes, as many tend to believe, were not aimed a wholesale rejection of the colonial system. The new rulers had highest regard and respect for British institutions, but these changes were necessitated by the requirement of an elected government to fulfill the hopes and aspirations of the people. The phenomenon of the "revolution" of rising expectations had emerged as a result of greater awakening amongst the masses. There wanted more and more facilities to be provided in rural area Related to this was increasing politicization in the wake of successive elections and also introductions of Panchayati Raj and co-operative institutions. Above all the struggle for survival had increased as a result of growing pressure of population on land. The need for the provision of employment opportunities in the non-farm sector had become very acute. After the independence, the socio-economic political and administrative environment had changed substantially. It was realized that centralization of power in a single officer in the district was a necessity for the British regime to promote imperial interest and for acceptance of its authority by the largest number of people. The acceptance of democracy as the way of life and governance necessitates changes in the district administration.

Creation of New Districts:

After the attainment of independence, every state in India has restored to the creation of new districts solely for political reasons ignoring even the basic relation between their area and population and mounting cost of their administration. There were 250 districts in 1997, 360 districts in 1981 and more than 450 districts today. What is more distressing is the fact that, country is basic tent of secularism in the constitution, in Kerala and

Kashmir, the areas of Muslims concentration were marked out to form separate districts disregarding organizational imperatives and flouting the much professed secular principles and properties.

Separation of Revenue, Magisterial And Development Section:

The first wave of change which hit the district administration were the program of Community Development (CD) and National Extension Service (NES) inaugurated in the (ears 1952 and 1953 respectively In the rural segment was divided into 5011 Development Blocks. Block Development Officers (BDO) were appointed for each of these blocks, Some states also introduced the post of District Development Officer (DDO). Some states ventured into appointing the District Planning Officer (DPO). The development machinery at the district level was placed under the control of the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) in Maharashtra However, the DDOs, the DPOs and the CEOs were officers of revenue service and were also appointed or transferred as the District collector and Additional District Magistrate. Thus, the approach of the Government of India and the State Governments towards district administration was halt-hearted In spite of separation of revenue and development functions, the functionaries of the two segments belonged to the revenue services.

In the beginning, the developmental activities were not pail of the normal administrative functions and the district administration was more or less kept insulated. All development projects and their execution were under a separate development agency. This Separation of revenue and development functions ended in 1970s. The District Collector was made the coordinator of all rural poverty alleviation activities within in his district. Khera opines that with Ire district level officer treating his head OT department as the real boss the DC as The dummy boss. with the Ostensible object of democratic decentralization of power and of following direct Participation by the people in the administration and development, the studyTeam headed by Balwantrai Mehta recommended introduction of three-tier Panchayati Raj institutions in 1957. In the hill areas, inhabited by tribal, corresponding institutions like Hill Areas Advisory Board, and District Councils were introduced at a later stage. The main impetus was to transform the bureaucratic ruler's image of the DC to that of being a servant of the people, willing to implement the people's wish. It was also further thought that the DC would be relieved of his development related duties by the Panchayat Raj institutions and he would thus be able to devote his time on more important job&

Establishment of The New Panchayati Raj With 73rd & 74th Constitutional Amendments:

Though the Panchayati Raj Institutions have been in existence for a long time, it has been observed that these institutions have not been able to acquire the status and dignity of viable and responsive people's bodies due to a number of reasons including absence of regular elections, prolonged supersession, insufficient representation of weaker sections like Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women, inadequate devolution of powers and lack of financial resources.**Article 40** of the Constitution which

enshrines one of the Directive Principles of State Policy lays down that the State shall take steps to organise village panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government. In the light of the experience in the last forty years and in view of the short-comings which have been observed, it is considered that there is an imperative need to enshrine in the Constitution certain basic and essential features of Panchayati Raj Institutions to impart certainty, continuity and strength to them. Accordingly, it is proposed to add a new Part relating to Panchayats in the Constitution to provide for among other things, Gram Sabha in a village or group of villages; constitution of Panchayats at village and other level or levels; direct elections to all seats in Panchayats at the village and intermediate level, if any, and to the offices of Chairpersons of Panchayats at such levels; reservation of seats for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in proportion to their population for membership of Panchayats and office of Chairpersons in Panchayats at each level; reservation of not less than one-third of the seats for women; fixing tenure of 5 years for Panchayats and holding elections within a period of 6 months in the event of supersession of any Panchayat; disqualifications for membership of Panchayats; devolution by the State Legislature of powers and responsibilities upon the Panchayats with respect to the preparation of plans for economic developments and social justice and for the implementation of development schemes; sound finance of the Panchayats by securing authorisation from State Legislatures for grants-inaid to the Panchayats from the Consolidated Fund of the State, as also assignment to, or appropriation by, the Panchayats of the revenues of designated taxes, duties, tolls and fees; setting up of a Finance Commission within one year of the proposed amendment and thereafter every 5 years to review the financial position of Panchayats; auditing of accounts of the Panchayats; powers of State Legislatures to make provisions with respect to elections to Panchayats under the superintendence, direction and control of the chief electoral officer of the State; application of the provisions of the said Part to Union territories; excluding certain States and areas from the application of the provisions of the said Part; continuance of existing laws and Panchayats until one year from the commencement of the proposed amendment and barring interference by courts in electoral matters relating to Panchayats.

Salient Features :

The Salient features of the Seventy-Third Constitution Amendment Act are given below:

The Amendment stipulates for certain compulsory provisions which are obligatory on the part of the State Governments to incorporate in their respective Acts. Some aspects have, however, been left at the discretion of State legislatures to make suitable provisions in their Act. ***The mandatory provisions are:***

(A) Establishment of 'Gram Sabha' at the village level comprising of

persons registered in the electoral rolls relating to a village comprised within the area of Panchayat (Article 243(b). The State, where Gram Sabha does not exist, will have to make such provision.

(B) Establishment of a three-tier system of Panchayat, at the village, intermediate and district levels, in all the States and Union Territories (UTs) except in those having a population of less than twenty lakhs where Panchayats at intermediate level need not be constituted. The States which will fall under this category as per 1991 census are Goa, Sikkim, all the North Eastern States and UTs.

(C) All levels of Panchayats will consist of persons elected directly from the territorial constituencies in the Panchayat area. The territorial constituencies shall be carved out in such manner that the ratio between the population of each constituency and the number of seats allotted to it should be uniform throughout the Panchayat area as far as practicable.

(D) All members' of the Panchayat whether or not directly elected shall have the right to vote in the meetings of the Panchayats.

(E) The chairperson of a Panchayat at the intermediate and district level shall be elected from among the directly elected members representing the territorial constituencies.

(F) Reservation of seats for SCs/STs in proportion to their population in the Panchayat area and seats may be allotted by rotation.

(G) One-third of the total number of seats, both in reserved and unreserved categories shall be apart for women in every Panchayat and seats may be allotted by rotation.

(H) The chairperson of each level of Panchayats shall be reserved for SCs/STs in proportion to their population on rotation basis. Similarly, one-third post of chairpersons of each level of Panchayats shall be reserved for women on rotation basis.

(I) A fixed tenure of five years for Panchayats from the data appointed for its first meeting and the tenure cannot be extended. However, if a Panchayat is dissolved before the expiry of its term, election is too conducted within a period of six months of the dissolution to reconstitute the Panchayat for the remainder of the terms of the term provided the remainder of the period is not less than six months. The Panchayats shall be constituted before the expiry of its tenure of five years.

(J) Amendment of law to dissolve the Panchayats at any level is also prohibited.

(K) A person who has attained twenty one years of age is eligible for a membership of a Panchayat.

(L) Constitution of a Finance Commission in the State within one year from the commencement of the Constitution Amendment Act initially and thereafter every five years to review the finances of the Panchayats and recommended the principles on the basis of which the taxes to be appropriated by, or assigned to the Panchayats as also grant-in-aid to the Panchayats from the consolidated fund of the State. The action taken on the recommendation of the Commission shall be laid before the Legislature of the State.

(M) Audit of the accounts of the Panchayats to be done.

(N) A State Election Commission has to be constituted for the superintendence, direction and control of the Panchayats at all levels. The State Election Commissioner, however, shall be removed in the manner and on the like grounds as a Judge of a High Court.

(O) The Act is applicable to all States and Union Territories. Exemption is being ranted to certain states and tribal areas and other territories from the application of the provisions of part IX of the Constitution and powers to the President and the Governor to modify the provisions of the IX in their application to Union Territories and Scheduled areas, respectively.

(P) The existing laws relating to Panchyats which are inconsistent with the provision of the Act shall continue to be enforced until it is amended or repealed within one year. The existing Panchayats shall continue till the expiration of their terms unless they are dissolved by the competent authority.

(Q) Courts are not to interface in the electoral matters such as delimitation of constituencies, allotment of seats and election to any Panchayat. Petition challenging the election of any Panchayat can be presented to besides these mandatory provisions the State Legislature has been empowered to have legislation in respect of a wide range of subjects, including on such matters as functions of the Panchayats and so on.

74th Amendment Act 1992 In India:
The constitution 74th Amendment Act 1992, relating to Municipalities (Urban local Government) was passed by the parliament in 1992.

It received the assent of the president of India on 20th April 1993. The Act seeks to provide a common framework for the structure and mandate of urban local bodies to enable them to function as effective democratic units of local Self Government. Government of India notified 1st June 1993 as the date from which the 74th Amendment Act came into force. The Act provided for a period of one year from the date of its commencement, within which the then existing municipal laws (which were in force at that time In states/union territories) were required to be changed/amended/modified in order to bring them in conformity with the provisions of the constitution (74th Amendment) Act—1992.

The Salient Features of the Constitution (74th Amendment) Act, 1992:

(a) Constitution of Municipalities.

(b) Composition of Municipalities.

(c) Constitution of wards committees.

(d) Reservation of seats.

(e) Fixed duration of Municipalities.

(f) Power, Authority and responsibilities of Municipalities.

(g) Appointment of State Election Commission.

(h) Appointment of State Finance Commission.

(i) Constitution of Metropolitan and District Planning Committees.

Separation of Judiciary And Executive:

The Directive Principles of State policy presented separation of indicial and executive functions Separation of judiciary at district level was introduced in gradual phases. This arrangement was made with much hope of social justice, General. K.V. Krishna Rao Governor of Manipur has said that law is required to maintain order, it needs to be added that law must be enforced strongly and expeditiously to guarantee order. Quick enforcement is the main requirement.

Specialised Agencies:

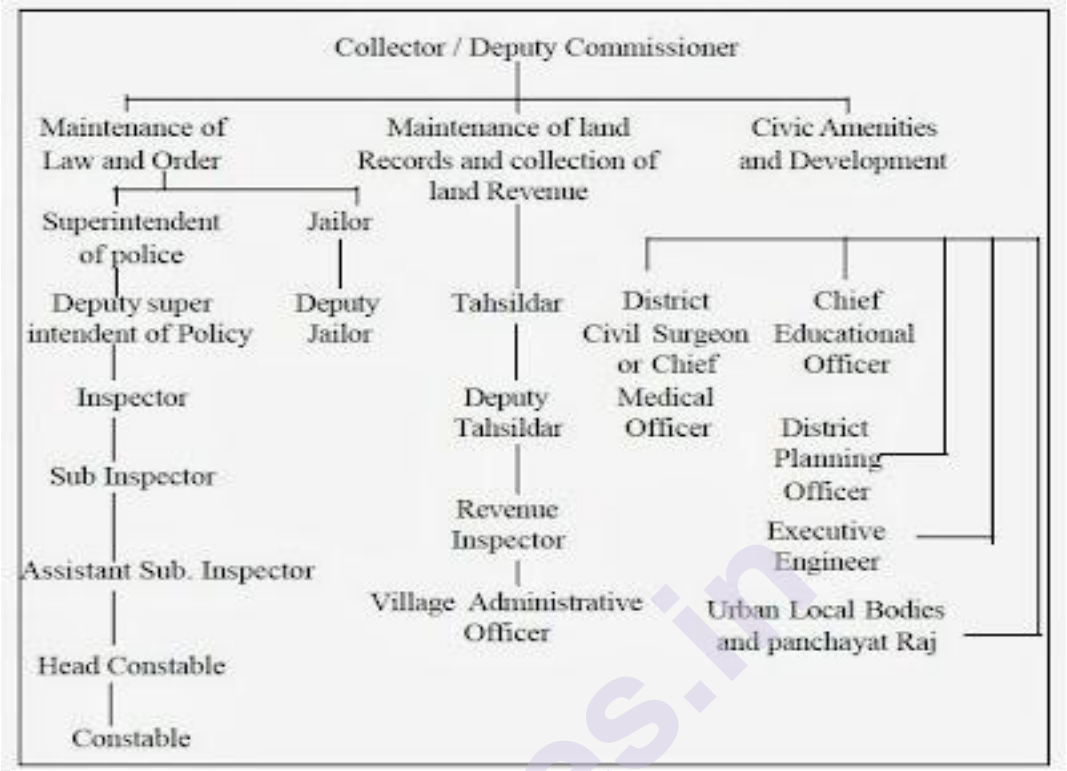
During 1970s a large number of rural poverty alleviation programs were launched and their implementation agencies were established at the district level. For example, District Industrial Centre (DIC) was established to promote rural industrialization, It does not seem to matter whether that particular district has raw material for any kind of industry or not, or whether the requisite competence is available or not, the industry must be established Thus the district administration is entrusted hundreds of, tasks, i, is competent to handle.

2.5 COMPONENTS OF DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION

The history of Indian administration shows that in the early stages of evolution a single authority, represented by the Collector/Deputy Commissioner, and had direct charge of all these functions of government at the district level. In course of time, local sell-governing institutions were introduced and the technicaldepartments were set up. So instead of unity of command theredeveloped multiplicity of command. Alter the enforcement of Government of India Act. 1919 and later, the Government of IndiaAct. 1935. Today the District Administration has three **major** component namely revenue, magisterial and developmental. Apart from this major component, other miscellaneous departments and accordingly functions are entrusted to the department by State and Central governments like conduct of elections, dealing with calamities, supervising local **government** institutions, etc.

The District is the Principal Administrative unit below the state

level. It is a unit of administration covering most of the departments of Government.



Law and order and magisterial field matters: the first group of functions relates to public safety and tranquility. Maintenance of law and order is the joint responsibility of the superintendent of police, who heads the police force in the district, and the district magistrate. The deputy commissioner of the district is also the district magistrate. Though there is a separate department for the administration of jails, the district magistrate exercise general supervision of the jails in the district.

Land revenue: the second group of function relates to revenue administration. While the most important component of this group is land administration including maintenance of land records, it also includes the assessment and collection of land revenue and also collection of other public dues which are collected as arrears of land revenue. The deputy commissioner is a designated revenue officer in various laws governing the land to deal with disputes arising out of land records and management of public lands and properties. The other revenue officers, namely, the assistant commissioners, with the tahsilder and the deputy tahsildaralso perform functions of dealing with land disputes under the overall supervision and control of the deputy commissioner.

Development activities: these include public health education, social welfare, welfare of backward classes and communities. Each of these functions is looked after by separate department, headed by specialist officer in the district. The various special economic programs like JawaharGramaSamrudhiYojana (JGSY),

SwarnajayanthiGramaSwarozgarYojana, etc., and the poor people's housing scheme Ashraya are implemented by the zillaParishad in each district. The Deputy Commissioner does not get a direct role in these schemes. However since these programs called for an integrated effort by various field departments at the district level, public works department(PWD) and minor irrigation, forest etc., the role of the District Collector in coordinating and guiding their activities is of prime importance for successful implementation of these programs. Social Security majors like old age pension, widow's pension, maternity allowances to expectant mothers and stipends to physically handicapped persons, workmen's compensations matter rehabilitation of displaced persons under various projects aids for religious and charitable institutions and endorsements are also carried out.

A survey of the history of Indian administration shows that in the early stages of evolution a single authority, represented by the Collector/Deputy Commissioner, and had direct charge of all these functions of government at the district level. In course of time, local sell-governing institutions were introduced and the technical departments were set up. So instead of unity of command there developed multiplicity of command. Alter the enforcement of Government of India Act. 1919 and later, the Government of IndiaAct. 1935 this change became more and more marked, that is why the Central Administration Reforms Commission is of the opinion that the regulatory tasks are to be performed by the Collector and the development tasks are to be left in charge of Panchayati Rajinstitutions. The setting up of functional departments led to the setting up of field agencies of the technical departments at the district level resulting in supplementing the area administration of the district by functional type of administration leading to multiplicity of command. This dichotomy as continued with varying emphasis right to this day. The district has thus become a sort of sub-capital where are located the district headquarters of the various technical departments. Their nomenclatures as also the official designation of officers heading them differ from one state to the other, but the following may be said to be a representative list:

Other Miscellaneous Departments on District Administration:

Name of Department	Designation of the District Head
1. Agriculture	District, Agriculture Officer / Assistant Director of Agriculture
2. Backward Classes/ Harijan Welfare	Backward Classes Welfare Officer/ Harijan Welfare Officer
3. Co-operation	Assistant/ Deputy Registrar of Co - operative Societies
4. Education	District Education Officer/ Inspector of Schools
5. Employment	District Employment Officer
6. Excise	District Excise Officer / Superintendent of Excise

7. Forest	Divisional / District Forest Officer
8. Health and Family Planning	District Health Officer
9. Industries	District Industries Officer / Assistant
10. Jails	Superintendent of Jails
11. Judiciary	District & Sessions Judge
12. Labour	Assistant Labour Commissioner/ District Labour Officer
13. Medical	District Medical Officer / Civil Surgeon
14. Panchayats / Panchayats and Social Services	District Panchayat Officer
15. Planning	District Planning Officer
16. Police	Superintendent of Police
17. Publicity /Information	District Publicity Officer /Assistant
18. Public Works	Executive Engineer
19. Registration	Collector
20. Revenue and General Administration	Collector
21. Sales Tax	District Sales Tax Officer
22. Statistics	District Statistics Officer
23. Treasury & Accounts	District Accounts Officer /Treasury Officer
24. Veterinary and Animal Husbandry	District Veterinary Officer / Assistant Director of Veterinary Services.

2.6 THE ROLE AND FUNCTIONS OF DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION

The district administration is the operative unit of the Government of India and the State Government. In fact, the district has always existed as the unit of administration in some form throughout the long history of our country. Thus The Mauryas, who established the first historically identified empire in India, with a view to administering their huge empire efficiently and effectively, divided into provinces. These were sub divided into districts known ahars, vishyas and pradesas. Ashok's inscriptions refer to rajukas and pradeshikas as officers chargedwith the welfare of the janpads and pradeshas or districts. Under the Guptas the kingdom was divided into provinces. The Province was divided into vishvas ormandalas. The officer incharge of vishayas was called ayuktavishyapati. The Mughal emperors continued to follow this system. For purpose of administration and revenue collection, this system. For puny ^ provinces or subahs which in turn, the Empire was divided into provinces or subahs which in turn were subdivided into sarkars and districts. Each sarkar was composed of a number of parganas and each pargana was a union of several villages. The sarkar was the counterpart of the modern district and the term is significant as it means government in its total manifestation. The British

saw no reason to depart from age old pattern of area administration and gave place of pride to the district as the basic unit of administration. Thus, under the British rule, the district became virtually a sort of sub-capital both in administrative and political sense. Independent India Too has kept up the tradition and the district continues to retain its position as the pivot of the structure of the structure of administration and government in the states. It is at this level that the policies of the government are translated into practice and the problems of local people are studied and communicated to the state government. It is in the district that the big and complex machine of government is in operation and it is by its accomplishments at this vital center that we can measure the extent of success of governmental policies, plans and programs. It may be truly said that the district is the unit of administration with which almost every citizen comes into contact. Every village and town in the country forms part of a district. The district is also an important unit for electoral purposes and every political party attempts to build up a strong organization of this level. It is in this sense that the district can be described generally as the center of political and administrative life.

Most departments of the state government have field units which are located in the district. In certain cases even the Union Government has its field agencies located at this level. The sum total of the activities of these departments and some others connected with the affairs of the union government, together constitute the administrative machinery of the district. In the words of Khera, "District administrations the total functioning of government in a district; that total and complex organization of the management of public affairs at work, dynamic and not static in the territory of a geographically demarcated district administration includes all the agencies of government the individual officials and functionaries, public servants all institutions for the management of public affairs in the district, ail the bodies corporate such as the panchayats of different kinds of advisor^ bodies associated with the administration.

The many and the varied tasks of district administration can be classified into six groups such as:

A) **Regulatory:** These function are primary in nature non developmental in nature, Coercive Semi coercive and moreover activities which are related to maintenance of order and disciplined society. Functions like – law & order, magisterial function activities Revenues collection.

B) **Listening and regulatory**: the collector is the licensing and regulatory authority under various special laws such as arms and cinematography act ad sets in the district.

C) **Developmental:** At the district level, the primary object is to coordinate the work of various agencies concerned with development and to associate with them representative's non-official and others who may be in a special position to assist.

D) **Tasks concerning local bodies:** Coordination and supervision of development programs have to be organized at various levels—in the taluka or the development block, in the district or the sub-division, for a group of districts constituting a region and at the State level.

E) **Conducting elections:** Collector is District Election Officer. District Election Officer is responsible for conducting smooth Elections of Loksabha and Assembly in his district as per program declared by Election Commission of India. Election Branch provides suitable assistance to the Collector and District Election Officer,

F) **Emergency:** The District Authority shall act as the district planning; coordinating and implementing body for disaster management and take all measures for the purposes of disaster management in the district in accordance with the guidelines laid down by the National Authority and the State Authority.

G) **Residuary:** Any function of the government in the district which is not allocated to any line department automatically comes within the jurisdiction of the district collector. Oversees the implementation of the public distribution system. Enforce provisions of the essential commodities act and related rules and orders. The district collector is also chairman of large number of committees at district level.

Obviously the first two of these constitute the most important tasks. The regulatory functions include the maintenance of law and order, control of crime and administration of justice. Next to law and order comes land administration, which includes the assessment and collection of land revenue and other public dues which are collected as arrears of land revenue, such as sales-tax, forest and excise tax, income-tax, etc. The third important group of regulatory and executive functions comprises control, regulation and distribution of food and civil supplies. Under development come functions like agricultural production, co-operation, animal husbandry and fisheries and welfare activities like public health, education, and social welfare. The last group of functions concerns the administration of local bodies, urban and rural. The fourth task concerns the holding of elections to parliament, the state legislature and local bodies. The fifth task is related to emergencies and natural calamities. The last category of functions consists of executive work done, which have not been precisely defined not is there a separate representative of the government in the district to perform them. The Collector, in his capacity as the chief representative of the government, is to perform these tasks which also include such miscellaneous functions as issue of arm licenses, their renewal, suspension and cancellation, enforcement of special Acts, small savings campaigns; publicity and public relations and protocol duties.

2.7 SUMMARY

Every district has Collector as head appointed by the State government

and district is divided into Sub-Division under the charge of Sub-Divisional Officers; these are further split into blocks which are headed, by the Tahsildar, below the Tahsil lies the Pargana/Revenue Circle under the charge of Revenue Inspector and then comes the lowest primary unit, namely, the village whose important official is the Patwari or Talathi or Village Accountant, as far as revenue department is concern. Civil and Development unit is consisting of CEO (Chief Executive Officer) BDO (Block development Officer) And VDO (Village Development officer) or Gramsevak which are concern with development of the three tire system of the rural administration.

2.8KEYWORDS

Administration	*The act of managing duties, responsibilities, or rules.*
Amendment	*Addition or alteration made to a constitution.*
Pargana	*A group of villages or a subdivision of a district*

2.9 UNIT END QUESTIONS

Descriptive:

1) Explain various components of 'District Administration.
2) Write detail note on 73rd constitutional Amendments.
3) Give an account of the changes in the district administration in the post-Independence period.

MCQs:

i) Which of the following is an important component of district administration?
   A. Revenue
   B. Health
   C. Education
   D. Entertainment

ii) 73rd Constitutional Amendments are related to_____.
   a. Municipality
   b. Panchayati Raj.
   c. State affairs
   d. Parliament.

iii) Who is the village level revenue officer?
   A. Talathi
   B. Collector
   C. Gramsevak

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D. Police Patil.

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3

REVENUE ADMINISTRATIONS IN INDIA (Part-I)

Unit Structure

3.1 Introduction.
3.2 Objectives of The Lesson.
3.3 Concept.
3.4 Historical Background Of Revenue Administration In India.
3.5 Ancient Indian Taxation System.
3.6 Revenue Administration During The Mughal Period.
3.7 Land Revenue System of The Marathas.
3.8 Evolution Of Revenue Administration During The British Period.
3.9 Scope of Revenue Administration.
3.10 Determination of Land Revenue.
3.11 Summary.
3.12 Keywords.
3.13 Unit End Questions.
3.14 References.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

India is a country of villages, two thirds of the population still resides in villages. Even after 70 years of our own planning, we are getting to see that, rural areas are deprived from the development and regional balance. The situation winding gap between urban and rural area. In last seventy years we have spent lots of funds through the budget, but as per my opinion funds is not only problem. Here administrative pattern and machinery also responsible for that. In the rural or district level administration, revenue administration play vital role in the development of the backward part of our country.

Revenue administration has been and will continue to be one of the most important areas of district administration. This is mainly because of the population on land for their livelihood, and they are regularly in contact of the department. Land revenue administration does not include only collection of land revenue but it also extends to survey and settlement, land reforms, revenue loans, certificates, stamps, excise, etc. Even in the ancient and medieval periods and even in several decades of colonial

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India, land revenue was the most important source of governmental income. Thus, assessment and collection of land revenue were the most important activities of the governments during these periods.

The Revenue Department is the only department which empathizes with the need of the public and is always present to ease the situation. Country like India which has large population and agriculture is main occupation especially in the rural area. The revenue department has lots of task to do for the welfare of the public, including land reforms and welfare of the weaker section. Because of the wrong land related policies and its implementation, Indian People were exploited for long time. After independence there is little good change in revenue administration, but still that is not enough. There is a big scope to improve the department as far as welfare and upliftment of rural people is concern.

3.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON

The aim of this unit is to explain the concept of land revenue, its historical evolution and changing perspectives over different historical time periods – from ancient to the modem. Further, an attempt has been made to acquaint you with the new initiatives taken by the Government of India after the country's independence and various measures initiated for the transformation of land revenue administration in the country. There are main few objective of the lessons are:

1. To understand the concept of revenue administration, as well as land revenue especially in rural area.
2. The lesson has another aim of understanding the post-independence period changes in the department.
3. To understand the land related issues and change in policies.
4. To know about present machinery of revenue department and its various functions.
5. To understand the system of collection of land revenue even from the Mughal empire.
6. To know about the changing pattern use of land all over the country.

3.3 CONCEPTS

In the chapter learner necessary to understand various basic concept related to the topic. The main concepts in the topic are Land, Revenue, Land revenue, Revenue Administration etc.

Land: Basically Land refers to all natural resources found on, under and above the earth's surface such as soil, rivers, minerals, oceans and forest. But as an individual it is the surface of earth which is used for many purposes production and businesses.

Revenue: revenue includes all amounts of money (i.e., taxes and fees) received from sources outside the government entity.

Administration: "Administration is the organization & direction of human & material resources to achieve desired ends."**-Pfiffner&Presthus**

"Administration is the direction, coordination an persons to achieve some purposes or objectives.-**L.D. White**

Revenue Administration: Revenue Administration is an institutional framework, to excel in their operational performance to receive taxes and fees and related work.

Nevertheless, some key characteristics of an effective revenue administration are generally recognized to be

(1) Sufficient legal authority to exercise its mandate in full;

(2) A well-defined and lean organizational structure;

(3) clear separation between the HQ-policy/planning level and the local offices/operational level;

(4) Adequate administrative autonomy to implement its mandate effectively and without unwarranted political influence;

(5) Skilled work force receiving appropriate remuneration and benefiting from stable career paths;

(6) Adequate budget to finance its operational and capital needs.

Land Reforms: "Land reform means replaces the old land holding system by a new one, which is free from the exploitative features and help to enhance the productivity of land." -

3.4 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF REVENUE ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA

Introduction:
The history of rural administration in India can be traced back to the seventeenth century, when the voluntary efforts to provide service to the human resources were initiated. In the Indian history to know the facts of revenue structure and administration we could make three different periods as far as ruling authority is concern. A) Ancient Indian Taxation system**.** B) Revenue administration during the Mughal period**.** C) Evolution of revenue administration during the British period.

3.5 ANCIENT INDIAN TAXATION SYSTEMS

Ancient India was self-sufficient as far as many things are concerned. In ancient India there was prosperity and peace. Even at that time governance system was efficient, which was knit design to welfare of the people. In fact there was the rule of wisdom emanated from some treatises, authored by some eminent saints and statesman. It is the notable thing that, well

plan financial structure for the emergence of the stable and prosperous state, was visualized by ancient Indian political thinkers. The theory of the taxation system was immense importance from the constitutional point of view. The taxes themself were regarded in Hindu politics as wages of the King for the service of administration. As it is said, "One sixth of Bali(Taxing method) import and export duties, fine and forfeitures collected from the offenders- gather in accordance with strata (law and constitution) as your wages shall constitute revenue.

In ancient India there were few general principal of the taxation system i.e.

1) In taxation the king should not by greediness destroy his own foundations as well as those of other (***Mahabharata, XII. 87.18***)
2) Subjects may be taxed in a way that they may remain strong to bear future burdens and if necessary, heavier ones.
3) It is not the heavily taxed realm which executes great deeds but the moderately taxed one, whose ruler not sacrificing the power of defence,manages administration economically. The subjects oppose that the king who is extravagant in administration.
4) The great principle emphasized is that taxation should not be such that it may not be felt by the subject. The ruler should act like a bee which collects honey without causing pain to the plant. It should not be in an obnoxious way.
5) In raising taxes higher it should be done little by little when the realm's prosperity is increasing. The process must be mild so that the realm might not turn restive
6) Taxes shown are levied in proper place, in proper time and in proper form. They should never be realized by a painful mode.
7) In production of art materials used, cost incurred, maintenance of the artist required for the producing the article and the condition of the artist have to be taken into account.
9) Imports harmful to the state and luxuries are to be discouraged by taxation.
10) Beneficial imports should be made free of import duties.
11) Those articles which are rare in the country and those which would be seed for future production should be allowed in free.
12) Certain commodities should not be exported, while their imports are to be encouraged by not being taxed at all. They were for instance, weapons and armours,metals, military vehicles, rare things, grains and cattle.

Above all principle related to the ancient taxation system indicates various moral and progressive methods, which are useful even in today's scenario.

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3.6 REVENUE ADMINISTRATION DURING THE MUGHAL PERIOD.

The Mughal emperors exploited several sources of revenue. They levied direct taxeson income and persons, profession and property. They made money by extensive commercial undertakings of various kinds. They raised substantial sums by indirect taxes such as customs duties, transit dues, octroi, sales tax, and the excise duty on manufactures. Administration of justice brought in a small sum in fines and judicial fees. The emperor was the heir to all property without proper title, ad salvages from ship-wrecks were his. Registration fee was paid when transactions were recorded or certain ceremonies performed. The emperors received presents from their officers and subjects as also from foreign rulers sending embassies to India. War often became a source of income; indemnity was sometimes levied besides receipt: front plunder. Under Babur and Humayun, and again under Aurangzeb, certain burdens were shouldered by non-Muslims, which can be best described as taxes on religion. The Revenue administration under the first two Mughal rulers—**Babur** and **Humayun—**continued to operate as it was under the Sultans of Delhi. Babur was so much engrossed in the various wars during his four years of rule that he could hardly get any time to devote to the revenue affairs.

Humayun, his successor, also found himself in trouble soon after his accession to the throne and had to spend most of his life in exile. Accordingly, he also did not get any chance to improve the revenue administration.

It was **Sher Shah Suri**, who intervened between Humayun and Akbar, who provided an excellent land revenue system. He has acquired good knowledge of the working of the revenue system as Jagirdar of Sehsram, Khawaspur and Tanda. When he became the emperor of India he tried to introduce this system on a large scale. First of all he ordered the measurement of the lands according to a uniform standard.

Akbar, who succeeded Humayun was only a child at the time of his accession. He first paid attention to the security and consolidation of the empire. After he had entrenched himself on the throne he paid attention to the revenue administration and made efforts to improve on the revenue system set up by Sher Shah. In this he got the assistance from experts like Muzaffar Khan, Itimad Khan and Raja Todar Mal."

First of all Akbar collected complete information about land and reorganized the whole land revenue system. He introduced Zabti System in eight provinces of his empire. Under this system the cultivable lands were measured with the standard gaz known as Jarib which was an improvement over the measurement methods adopted by Sher Shah.

The officers were given strict instructions to, do the measuring work honestly and not to accept any bribe from the cultivators.
After getting the lands measured he tried to ascertain the produce of the land for the purpose of determining state's share of land revenue. For this purpose the land was classified in four categories. ***Polaj*** was the first category of land which was always in cultivation.

Throughout the season it had some crop ready according to the season. The second category of land was ***Parauti***, which had to be left fallow for one or two years to recoup the fertility. ***Chachar***was the third category of land which had to be left out of cultivation for three or four years to gain the fertility.

The fourth category of land was known as ***Banjar*** or barren land. It had to be left fallow for five years or more. The first two categories of lands were further sub-divided into three types according to their fertility—good, middling and bad. The produce of three grades of land was calculated and their average was considered to be the actual produce of the land. The state's share was fixed on the basis of this actual produce.

This share of the state was determined for the various categories of lands on 'the basis of the fertility of the soil and the produce of the last ten years. The state share in respect of Polaj and Parauti, was fixed at one-third of the average produce of the three grades.

On the chachar land the state's share was 1/15 of the produce in the first year, 2/15 in the second year, 1/5 in the third year, 1/ 4 the fourth year and 1/3 in the fifth year. Similarly on the Banjar land the Government charged 1/26 of the produce in the first year, 1/13 in the second year, 2/13 in the third year, 3/13 in the fourth year and 1/3 in the fifth year.

Though the state's share was fixed in kind, it was commuted into cash according to the current prices. This practice was not proper and caused much inconvenience to the cultivators. Therefore, later on Todar Mal fixed the cash ration the basis of the average of the last ten years.

In certain other parts of the empire certain other systems of land revenue also existed viz. GhallaBaksha, Nasaq etc. GhallaBaksha was the old system of assessment by crop division and it worked in Thatta and certain parts of Kabul and Kashmir.

According to this system the government took one-third of the total produce after the harvest as its share. Under the Nasaq system a general estimate of the expected yield of the standing crops was made and the state claimed one-third of the expected yield.

The land revenue system adopted by Akbar has been greatly admired by scholars. According to V.A.' Smith the land revenue system of Akbar was based upon sound principles and state issued instructions to the officers

from time to time to keep the system up-to- date. But one 'cannot help feeling considerable scepticism concerning the conformity of practice with precept."

He further opines that TodarMal's system was devised to prevent the State from being defrauded rather than to protect the interests of the rayot. In fact there is no specific instance cited by V.A. Smith to prove that the system operated to the detriment of the rayot.

On the other hand, on the testimony of Abul-Fazl in Ain-i-Akbari it can be said that the land revenue system of Akbar was highly efficient and the peasants were 'quite happy. The state demand being fixed, there was very little scope for extracting more from the peasants than was due.

The officers were usually honest. Exactions and extortions, if brought to notice, were severely punished. In case of drought or excessive rains, the land revenue was often remitted; the needy peasants were given loans by the Government.

The land revenue system introduced by Akbar continued throughout the Mughal period with more or less no change. The system appears to have worked very satisfactorily. It is evident from the fact that the land revenue under Babur stood at Rs. 2.60 crores, in Akbar's time it stood at Rs. 17.50 crores. In Jahangir's time at 17.60 crores and under Shah Jahan it was 21.15 crores. Under Aurangzeb it rose to 29.77 crores.

Though the land revenue was the chief source of state revenue, it resorted to certain other taxes to supplement its income. These included toll tax, customs, mints, presents which the king received from the Governors and Ministers as well as Jahangirdars on important occasions; fines which the state levied on the criminals.

Another source of income was indemnity from vanquished or defeated ruler. This indemnity was paid either once or regularly as a token of subordination to the emperor.

It will thus be observed that the Revenue .administration during the medieval times underwent many improvements and the revenue of the state continued to grow. It may be noted that the fiscal resources of that state at that time were very limited. But as the state did not undertake any welfare activities, its expenditure was also very limited.
Most of the revenue collected by the state was spent on the wars and personal luxuries of the rulers. For example Aurangzeb, who inherited an overflowing treasury from his father, squandered huge amounts in his Deccan wars and ultimately left an almost depleted treasury for his successors. He even resorted to the much hated Jaziya, to find additional funds for meeting the expenses of these wars.

3.7 LAND REVENUE SYSTEM OF THE MARATHAS

Shivaji's kingdom consisted of territories he wrested from the Sultans of Ahmadnagar and Bijapur and from the emperor of Delhi. The southern districts bore the mark of Vjayanagar rule. Thus the revenue systems of four different States were prevalentin Maharashtra. Shivaji tried to bring financial unity by establishing one common method for collection of revenue. The people of Maharashtra had suffered much from the wars between the Nizamshahi rules and the Mughals. Large tracts of land were lying desolate and agriculture and trade had declined. If these districts were again to be brought back to life and prosperity, they had to be assured of peace and prosperity and the demand of peasant proprietor had to be a fixed one, settled on easy terms. Shivaji revived the principles of Malik Amar's revenue system. The Kathi or the measuring rod was to be five cubits and five fists in length. Twenty Kathi square made a bigha and 120 bighas one Chawar. The first important step taken by Shivaji was to survey the land and then to assess the rent and other dues payable by the cultivators. These surveys were made at different times. The first was made by DadajiKondadeo in Sdhahji'sjagir at Poona; the second one was begun by Moro Pant Pingle; and the last one was carried out by AnnajiDatto which really covered most of the Maratha districts. The main features of Ambar's system accepted by Shivaji were:

i) The classification of land according to fertility;

ii) Ascertainment of their produce,

iii**)** Fixing the government share,

iv) Collection of rents either in kind or cash; and foodgrain.

v) Abolition of the intermediate collecting agents as farmers of revenue.

3.8 EVOLUTION OF REVENUE ADMINISTRATION DURING THE BRITISH PERIOD

Land revenue was the most important aspect for the British government in India. They needed resources to run their administration. Therefore, they devoted great attention to the task of administration and re-organisation of land revenue system. In 1793, Cornwallis introduced the ***Zamindari System*** (Permanent Land Revenue Settlement), which created landed aristocracy for the first time in India. Secondly, this system put the tenants into a very insecure position. Though the' Government had fixed its share in perpetuity, they were given full freedom in exacting from the tenants as much as they liked. It not only impoverished the peasantry but also deprived them of their land. It proved so defective that the British did not extend this system outside the Bengal region. In the southern and some parts of Northern India, the ***Ryotwari s*****ystem** was adopted. It established a direct relation between the landholder and the government. Here also they conformed proprietary rights upon the landholders. It was a new system. Earlier, the land belonged to village communities and the joint families. The individual had no share of his own. This land settlement brought

about a radical change in the rural areas. The government of Lord William Bentinck, Governor-General of India (1828 to 1835) introduced the ***Mahalwari system*** of land revenue in 1833. This **s**ystem was introduced in North-West Frontier, Agra, Central Province, Gangetic Valley, Punjab, etc. This had elements of both the Zamindari and the Ryotwari systems.

Permanent Settlement:
Lord Cornwallis sought to bring about stability in the agricultural economy. He tried, first, to bring continuity by making decennial (i.e. ten years) settlement in place of annual settlement. In March, 1793, he introduced the concept of 'Permanent Settlement'. According to RomeshDutt, 'if the prosperity and happiness of a nation be the criterion of wisdom and success; Lord Cornwallis' permanent settlement of 1793 is the wisest and most successful measure which the British nation has ever.

Revenue policy of the British and its consequences:

- Land became a commodity.
- Earlier there was no private ownership of land. Even kings and cultivators did not consider land as his 'private property'.
- Due to the very high taxes, farmers resorted to growing cash crops instead of food crops. This led to food insecurity and even famines.
- Taxes on agricultural produce were moderate during pre-British times. The British made it very high.
- Insistence on cash payment of revenue led to more indebtedness among farmers. Moneylenders became landowners in due course.
- Bonded labour arose because loans were given to farmers/labourers who could not pay it back.
- When India achieved freedom from colonial rule, 7% of the villagers (Zamindars/landowners) owned 75% of the agricultural land.

3.9 SCOPE OF REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

Introduction:
Revenue administration is a major point of contact between government and the people. Good revenue administration thus becomes an important feature of good governance. Today's Indian revenue system has influenced by many factors related to history since ancient time. As far as scope of the revenue field is concern we have to highlight following things to find out good changes in Indian farmer's point of view.

Land *revenue administration* **post-independence period** *in India.*

Before the discussion on the administration process it is necessary to agree the some fact regarding some positive changes in the colonial period. The British thus inherited a well laid out land records system from the Mughals. They, however, made drastic changes with a view to further,

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improve the land revenue system and augment the revenue as this constituted the main source of State income.

In order to realize the above stated objective, a number of land reform legislations have been enacted and implemented by the state governments. Brief reviews of these reforms are given below.

1. Abolition of the Zamindari and other forms of intermediary tenures.

The intermediary tenure was known by different names like the Zamindar Jahangirdar Mirasdar Inamdar etc. it existed on the large scale in UP Bihar madras west Bengal MP Hyderabad and Telangana regions of Andhra Pradesh and Saurashtra region of Gujarat.

In the post-independence. The state government have enacted legislations by watch the intermediary tenures were abolished. The state governments had purchased land belongings to the intermediator's. The intermediator were given limited right of resumptions of land for personal cultivation. the limits on the land that may be retained by intermediator's were laid down by some of these States like Assam.

The Zamindari abolition enactment provides for being a reasonable compensation to the intermediator's for the land purchase from them. The basis for and rates of compensation have been different in different states in Bihar West Bengal an MP mate income from the land was the criteria to determine the amount of compensation payable to the intermediator's in most other states a sliding scale of a fixed multiple of the income has been adopted this multiple is very low for the large land owners Anne relatively higher for these small land owners. The payment of compensation is based on the principle of social justice the government paid rehabilitation grants to the extinct intermediate's particularly to the small land owners. The total liability of the state for paying the compensation and rehabilitation grants was above was about 670 crore rupees. The part amount was paid in cash and part was in the form of transferable government bonds carrying interest between 2 to 3% these bonds were to be encased in equal instalments spread over a period to 22 to 40 years.

The System of intermediary tenure has been legally abolished by 1963. The abolition of intermediaries has not been an unmixed blessing. While some consequences have been desirable, there have been some unsatisfactory consequences as well. These consequences are as follows.

1. The positive outcome of these legislations has been that the class of those who used to live on others efforts been that the class of those who used to live on others effort has been abolished. The parasite class has ceased to exit.
2. Many cultivators tilling the land have become the owners of land. It is estimated that about 60 Lac dealers have been benefited by the abolition of intermediary tenures.

3. The abolition of intermediaries has proved beneficial from the point of increasing production as well as in realizing the objective of social economic justice. It has also raised social status and economic wellbeing of farmers.
4. The government could acquire sizable areas of cultivable Waste land and private forest. These have been distributed among landless workers thereby contributing to their wellbeing.
5. The income from land revenue has appreciably increase from □ 48, 00,00,000 in 1951-52 to 99,00,00,000 in 1970-78.
6. Although Zamindari abolition legislations abolished intermediaries, still they created a class of absentee landlords. There are the owners of land who do not cultivate and but give it to tillers on rent. The absence of provision that on cultivating for person is not entitled to become owner of land had disastrous consequences in some state like Utter Pradesh. These intermediaries although seized to collect land revenue for themselves. Thus majority of intermediaries become agriculturist with special rights. According to economists the most disastrous consequences of this legislation has been burden on budgetary process on the count of heavy amount to be paid as compensation.

2) Tenancy reforms: There were also a number of land owners in India, particularly in Rayotwary areas of Bombay, MP, Madras, who themselves cultivated a part of land rented rest of the land to the tenants. The system did not provide any incentive to the tenants and subtenants in order to safeguard, the interests of the tenants, state governments enacted the tenancy legislations. The features of the tenancy legislations are as follows;

A) Security of tenure: the fixation of reasonable rents is meaningless if it is not accompanied by security of tenure the tenants should not be victims of the land owners. Security of tenure encourages cultivators to bring about improvement in their land enjoy the rewards of the improvements.

B) Right to resumption: several tenancy legislations have provided the right of resumption that is the owners of the land may resume their land from the tenants if they desire to cultivate the land personally.

C) Ownership for Tenants: The basic principle of the tenancy has been land to tiller several legislations provide that the tenant should be encouraged to purchase the land. Land was purchased by the government from their erstwhile owners and range to sell the same to the tenants. Some states have provided for direct purchase of land by the tenants from the owners. The facility of payment in instalments is universally provided. The tendency reforms have been conceived in the right direction. The rate of progress varies from state to state. The provisions regarding the various aspects such as right to resumption, security to tenure, etc. differ from state to state. The basic philosophy has been grasped but that has been

faulty. In spite of these limitations, it is estimated that 153.23 lac acre lands was acquired and ownership rights were conferred on 112.13 Lac cultivators till 1993 to 1994.

3) **Ceiling on Holding:** India is a land of paradoxes. There is anundesirable disparity in socio-economic and political environment. Therefore, an important constituent of land reforms relates to the fixation of an upper limit on holding of land by an individual cultivator. The ceiling on holding implies two things viz., fixation of ceiling above which holder cannot hold land and distribute the surplus land among the small farmers, and land lease labourer. Thus, It is a two way process, to reduce the size of landholding of big landlords, and increase the size holding of some all farmers. ***The important features of land ceiling legislations are as follows.***

A) Unit of application: to start with, the basic unit of fixation of ceiling was an individual and as a consequence families came to possess large areas of land. However, at present the unit of fixing the ceiling is the family. The family consists of a husband wife and children.

B) Maximum limit: the higher limit on the holding of a unit varies from state to state will stop again variation and the lower and higher limit of ceiling on landholding vary considerably. For example in Maharashtra it ranges between 18 and 126 acres. However progressively the upper limit has been lowered and the difference between the lowest and the higher limits have also been narrowed considerably. In Bengali uniform level of 25 acres irrespective of quality of land has been prescribed. In Maharashtra the level of ceiling varies according to their quality of land that is one acre permanently irrigated land is equal to, two acres of other land and ceiling at 27 and 54 acres respectively as prescribed.

C) Exemptions: different laws were enacted in different states regarding exemption from the application of ceiling legislations. The UP legislation granted twenty types of exemptions. In Maharashtra the number was 17. Among the types of land exempt were orchids, grazing lands, sugar cane fields off you go factories cooperative farms, mechanized farms etc. the important consideration in the grant of exemption was the agricultural productivity should not suffer.

D) Surplus land and its distribution: The land in access to the ceiling level is purchased by the state governments. The estimated Surplus Was 73.52 Lac acres out of which 64.16 like acres have been acquired by state and 50.49 black acres have been distributed among 48 point 81 Lac beneficiaries, of these 35.94% belong to SC and 14.20% belong to ST.

E) Repayment: it is the problem of recovery of cost of land from the allottes. The cultivators are given facility of payment by instalment. Apart from the price of the land they are required to pay land revenue. The Planning Commission recommended that the total burden of payment by

the allots should not be more than 1/5 of the gross product

4) Consolidation of Holdings: As already discussed Indian agriculture suffers from the problem of sub division and fragmentation and as a consequence the holdings of a large majority of farmers are economically not viable. It has been suggested that the size of holdings should be increased by bringing together small add joining plots to make them suitable for operational efficiency.

There is overall scarcity of cultivable land in India. Therefore going outbig tracts of land for cultivation is out of question. The solution to the problem lies in consolidating fragmented holdings. The owner of several scattered pieces could be given one piece of land in one place equivalent to all his pieces. The consolidation could also be done by either treating an entire village as a block and each village will be given land as per share or by mutual exchange among the land owners. The consideration can also be bought by farming cooperatives of the cultivators wherever the entire plot is cultivated with efforts of all concern and produce to be divided in the proportionate manner. Most of the states have enacted legislations in this regard in a number of states like Gujarat. The consolidation is voluntary whereas in several other states like Punjab it is compulsory. It was estimated that 615.66 Lac hectors of and has been consolidated by the end of the year 1993 to 1994.

5) **Reorganization of Agrarian Sector:** A number of legislations encourage reorganizations of agrarian sector through cooperative farming will stop the farmers pooled their individual plots and cultivate the farm in the spirit of cooperative farm employees the farmers as labourers and pay them wages. The farmers also get a share in the profit made by the cooperative farm paid in proportion to the value of land contributed.

The idea of cooperative farming for India was advocated by imperial council of agricultural research in 1944. Congress agrarian reforms committee of 1949 also recommended cooperative farming. The first plan also provided that cooperative village management should be the goal of the rural economy. This viewpoint was reemphasized in the second five year plan. The All India Congress committee at its Nagpur session in 1959 advocated cooperative farming. Government of India set up Lingappa Committee in 1960 which recommended setting up of 300 pilot projects, each project having 10 cooperative farming societies. The third plan included the target of formation of 10,000 cooperative farming has been progressively expanded. The integrated ruler development program introduced in 1976-77, was to assist marginal farmers, sharecroppers and landless agricultural workers to come together in forming cooperative societies. Therefore it was added by allotting ceiling surplus land to them by the state governments.

The prospect for success of cooperative farming is encouraging though it has still taken from roots. The program is still in infancy, but the

programmer has demonstrated its capacity to increase agricultural production. The success of the program depends on non-official has been noticed that wherever such leadership existed the program was successful.
In terms of the twin objectives of economic development and social injustice the program of land reforms have been launched in the right direction. In course of time improvements by modifications in the policy have been brought about. Still there are a number of inherent defects on account of which the land reforms have not been as successful as they should have been. Some ***limitations of land ceiling legislations*** are as follows.

1 The contents of laws contradict the slogan on the land to the tiller for example although intermediaries Have been abolished it has not been made obligatory that land should belong only to those who cultivate. As a consequence land has gone to non-agriculturist who has hardly any interest in cultivation.

2 The loss contains so many exemptions and allows flexibility to states that the objective of putting the entire agricultural land within the orbit of land reform has been defeated.

3 The wording of the clauses is so clumsy that it can be interpreted as one wants to interpret it several litigations have occurred which has hindered the implementation of the laws. The laws have not been flouted, but the way clauses have been used to negate the very objectives of the land reforms.

4 The most unfortunate part of the land reforms has been faulty and delayed implementation. Time was allowed to lapse between the announcement of policy and enactment of laws will stop as a result sizeable land was taken out of the application of new laws will stop again arrangements for the implementation of laws were not only properly made but because of defective laws and their improper implementation there was ejectment of cultivators on a large scale.

5 State level politics, the big farmers lobby strong in the ruling party is not prepared to displease them. Again owing to electricity, lower degree of political con poverty, the downtrodden sections in the village are not in to resist the arbitrary actions of big farmers. Of late the resistance has led to conflicts between the vested interests and downtrodden section.

3.10 DETERMINANTS OF LAND REVENUE

Since ancient time we are getting to see that there is gradual development in the determinants of public taxation system. Mainly method of taxation is related to following factors which need to be considering all time for the better taxation system.

1. Fair Taxation System: As per the Adam Smith's opinion, taxation must ensure justice. The burden of taxation must be distributed equitably in relation to the ability of the taxpayers. Equity demands that the rich

people should bear a heavier burden of tax and poor lesser burden. Hence, tax system should contain progressive tax rates based on the taxpayer's ability to pay. In the context of land revenue we witnessed that the incident of taxation is higher on the rich farmers and that the poor tribal farmers have been exempted from the payment of the land revenue. We may also note that the incident of land revenue was not reasonable prior to independence. The land revenue parable rented between 20 to 33%. However the rate of land revenue progressively increases during the British rule, and it was as high as 52% in 1897.These types of coercive method of tax collection and other harsh rules was one kind of imprisonment for the Indian peasants. However, Conon of equity need to see the socio-economic justice to the cultivators as per the Adam Smith's point of view.

2. Certainty: Taxation must have an element of certainty. As per the Adam Smith's opinion "the tax, which each individual is bound to pay ought to be certain and not arbitrary. The time of payment, the manner of payment, or the amount to be paid, must be clear and plain to the contributor and the every other person."

The certainty aspects of taxations are:

1. Certainty of liability as to how much shall be the tax amount payable in a particular period.
2. Certainty of effective incidence that who shall bear the tax burden?
3. Certainty of revenue that is the government should be certain about the estimated collection of revenue from a given tax levied.
4. The rates of land revenue payable by the farmers are predetermined.

3. Economy: The principle suggests that the cost of collecting a tax should not be exorbitant but the minimum. Extravagant tax collection machinery is not justified. According to Adam Smith's every tax has to be contrived as both take out and keep out of the pockets of the people as little as possible and about what is brings into the public treasure of the state. The revenue machinery collects Land revenue as well as performs other administrative duties.

4. **Convenience:** According to this Canon, tax should be collected in a convenient manner from the taxpayer. Adam Smith stress out that every tax ought to be levied at the time or in the manner in which it is most likely to be convenient for the contributor to pay it.

5. **Productivity:** Productivity connotes that tax should be productive that is they should bring sufficient revenue to the state. A tax which does not bring any sizable revenue is meaningless. The Exchequer judges the merits of tax by amount of its yield. The excessive incident off land revenue may brought ample revenue to the government but it discouraged the Indian peasantry and lead to the declining agricultural productivity.

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6. Expediency: Expediency means that, tax should be determined on the ground of its economic, social and political advisability. For the instance, a tax on agriculture income lacks social, political or administrative expediency in India and that is why the Government of India has seized to impose tax on agricultural income.

Besides these connote of taxation, other specific factor need to consider for the determining land revenue are as follows.

I) ***Size of land holdings***: The landholding is of different size. A big land owner has more than 25 acres of land whereas, small farmer has a less than 2.5 acres. The medium and big land owners are charged at the concessional rate as far as land revenue is concern. The minor tribal farmers are fully exempted from the payment of land revenue.

II) ***Quality of land:*** There are fertile and less fertile lands. The incident of land revenue is higher for fertile land and lowers for the less fertile land; no land revenue is charge and follows on barren land.

III) ***Provision of Irrigation***: The agricultural land in India is classified as irrigated and dry land. About 65% agriculture land fallen in rain fed, and due to the non-availability of means of irrigation. Only 30% under irrigated land has assured water stability and its use for the cultivation of cash crop. Hence irrigated land has higher incident of land revenue than dry land.

IV) ***Non-agricultural land:*** The government own non-agricultural land is leased out for sanctuary, forestry and such other purposes to private individuals and institutions. The land revenue for the lease lands is change at the higher rate.

V) ***Special categorylandholder***s: belonging to the scheduled caste and the scheduled tribes are given concession in revenue, similarly for the freedom fighters and soldiers are exempted. Temples and other places of worship exempted from the payment of land revenue

3.11 SUMMARY

In this unit attempts have been made to acquaint you, with the concept of land revenue and land revenue administration that existed during ancient, medieval and colonial period. This unit will further familiarise you with various changes related to land revenue assessment and administration in different regimes. Thus, this unit will provide you a comprehensive understanding of pre-independent as well few immediate changes after India's independence. In the below given table you will acquaints with new and local words.

3.12 KEYWORDS

Bhaga	:type of tax on agriculture.
***Khalsa*areas**	;areas directly administered by the state
Bhog	:cesses
Patwari	:a state employee at the village level responsible for recording the areas under various crops
Zabtkabti	:System of assessment based on measurement
Doab	:land between Ganga and Yamuna rivers
Kankzlt	:estimation of land revenue
Polaj	:Fertile Land (1st Quality)
Parauti	:Semi fertile land (2nd Quality)
Chachar	: Barren Land *(*Banger)

3.13 UNIT END QUESTIONS:

DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONS

1. What do you mean by revenue administration?
2. Describe the land revenue collection system during the Mughal period.
3. Describe changes the land revenue system during the British rule.
4. What were the three kinds of land settlement during British rule in India?
5. What is ***Jizya***

MCQs

i) The zamindari system was introduced by …….

A. Lord Cornwallis,
B. Lord Wellesley.
C. Warren Hastings,
D. Dalhousie

ii) Where the Permanent Settlement was firstly introduced?

A. Orissa (Odessa) and Bengal
B. Orissa (Odessa) and Andhra Pradesh
C. Bengal and Bihar
D. Orissa (Odessa) and Bihar.

iii) Who among the following introduced Ryotwari System in India?

A. Lord Cornwallis
B. Thomas Munro
C. Warren Hasting
D. Lord Wellesley

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iv) **Mahalwari system was introduced in 1833 during the period of_____.**

A. William Bentinck

B. Thomas Munro

C. Warren Hasting

D. Lord Wellesley

v) **Jizya was abolished by the _____.Mughal ruler**

A. Akbar

B. Aurangzeb

C. Shajan.

D. Shah-Alam.

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4

REVENUE ADMINISTRATIONS IN INDIA (Part-II)

Unit Structure

4.1. Introduction
4.2. Objectives Of The Lesson
4.3. Components Of Revenue Administration
4.4. Functions Of Revenue Administration
4.5. Revenue Administration Machinery
4.6. Allied Units Of Revenue Administration
4.7. Summary
4.8. Keywords
4.9. Unit End Questions
4.10. References

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Revenue administration has always dominated the Indian administration.It is generally understood that the revenue department means the collection of land revenue. But the department of revenue besides those, other innumerable functions also asked to do. In this chapter we are going to see various functions, components, revenue machinery as well as revenue allied activities, which are related to public rights and welfare.

4.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON.

- To know the various components of revenue administration.
- To understand the functions of revenue administration.
- Acquire the knowledge of revenue administration machinery.
- To know the allied units of revenue administration.

4.3 COMPONENTS OF REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Revenue administration is divided into four separate departments which are as mentioned below:

I. Recovery of Revenue:

There is no single person of the state who is not coming in contact with this department. It is because besides usual revenue recovery work this department is performing so many other services to the people for example

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issue of ration cards, issue of cast certificate and election duties etc. There are thousands of Revenue Officers working for this department. There top to bottom order is as mentioned below:

1. Revenue Minister
2. Secretary, Addl. Secretary Asst. Secretary etc.
3. Divisional Commissioners
4. Collectors
5. Sub- Divisional Officers
6. Tahasildars/NaibTahasildars
7. Circle Inspectors/Circle Officers
8. Talathis/Patwaris
9. Kotwals

II) Measuring of Lands:

This department is commonly known as Survey Department. This department is measuring land, fixing boundaries of holdings, settling assessment of the agricultural land. They determine boundaries of villages, cities and towns and fixes boundary marks. They also keep land records. Top to bottom order of Revenue Officers of this department is as mentioned below:

1. Revenue Minister
2. Secretary
3. Settlement Commissioner
4. Director of Land Records
5. Dy. Director of Land Records
6. Superintendent of Land Records
7. District Inspector of Land Records
8. Taluka Inspector of land Records
9. Surveyor or Survey Tahasildar
10. Land Measurer

III) The registration of land alienations:

The transfer of land is legal and valid if the same is registered as per provisions of Transfer of Property Act, and the Indian Registration Act, 1908. The land transfers are registered with the Sub-Registrar who is having his office in each Taluka.

IV) Treasury:

The land revenue was the main source of income of the state. Therefore it was necessary to have treasury department on Taluka level to deposit the amount collected by revenue officers. During the course of time the control of treasury was taken over by finance department and since then this department seized to be part of revenue department. However it is duty of collector to visit and inspect this department as he is the head of the district administration.

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4.4 FUNCTIONS OF REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Functions of revenue administration are mainly linked with land revenue landholding and implementation of land reforms. The following activities undertaken by the revenue administration.

4.4.1 Assessment and collection of land revenue:
The government determines the land revenue policy and the rates at When the land revenue payable by the different categories. The functionaries of revenue administration maintain the record of land holdings as well as that agricultural production of each of the land holders. They undertake assessment of the land revenue Babel by even landholder and collect this same. The office of the district collector game into existence for this purpose in 1772. The revenue machinery collect not only land revenue but also other dues fable 2 the government. It also initiates Caesar operation in the event of the failure of land owner/ Butters others to make payment of land revenues /other news due to the government.
Thousands of Indian farmers were oriented of their land during the British due to their failure to pay land revenue to the government.

4.4.2. Survey and measurement of land:
The revenue department keeps up to date the maps of villages by Undertaking Saturdays and measurements and demarcation of land of the individual land owners on demand and payment of the required fees.

4.4.3. Maintenance of land record:
This system of maintaining land records was evolved during the British period. The village functionary maintains record of land holdings at every individual landholder as Well as Guns action of sale and purchase by updating record. Be copies of land record are made available to the concern individuals on the payment of the prescribed fees.

4.4.4. Government treasury:
The government treasury is the place where the most amount collected by the functionaries update department as land revenue, other news and fees is deposited. The treasury is situated in the premises of the office of the district collector. All transactions regarding the governmental receipts and payments are conducted in the treasury branch of the State Bank of India.

4.4.5. Land acquisition:
There is a need to acquire land for the development of roads, bridges industrial area airports, government offices and other public purposes. The land acquisition officer is entrusted this responsibility. The Gorman makes payment of compensation to those whose lands are acquired put stop.

4.5 REVENUE ADMINISTRATION MACHINERY

Though the revenue bureaucracy has occupied a premier position in the

administration set-up of the country- under any dynasty even in history. In present day the department has not suffered any loss in respect of its power and position. There are several factors which are responsible for the dominance of the revenue bureaucracy in rural administration.

Divisional Commissioner:
In the revenue matters Divisional Commissioner is the Chief Controlling Authority under the superintendence, direction and control of the State Government. All the powers in respect of revenue matters are delegated to the Divisional Commissioner.

Collector:
The Collector occupies a central place in the district administration. He is the head of the Revenue administration in the district and acts as the co-ordinating officer among all the officers of the Government in the district. He plays a pivotal role in the administration of the district.
The collector is empowered to convert use of land from one purpose to another purpose.

Duties & Rights of Collector:

1. The collector is responsible in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection and (3) accounting of the land revenue of the lands which are liable to payment of land revenue.
2. The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other Acts such as the Indian Stamp Act, the Indian Court Fees Act, the Bombay Entertainment Duty Act, the Sales Tax Act, the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, etc. Thus the collector and his establishment have to undertake the recovery of such dues when necessary as arrears of land revenue under the provisions of various Acts.
3. In regard to the administration of the Indian Forests Act, the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the Forest department, so far as his district is concerned, lies with him and the Divisional Forests Officer is his assistant for the purpose except in matters relating to the technique of forestry.
4. The administration and implementation of the various land tenure abolition Acts including the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948 and the Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act, 1961, rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under various sections of these Acts.
5. According to the Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act, 1961, a particular ceiling limit has been fixed in the district. Thus the excess land has to be taken over by Government by paying compensation and the disposal of such surplus land has to be made by the Collector.
6. He is empowered to award compensation under the Land Acquisition Act. Although the powers and functions under this Act are delegated

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to the Special Land Acquisition Officers he exercises the control over such officers and also takes review of the work done by them.

7. As a District Registrar, the Collector controls the administration of the registration department in the district.

8. Collector also acts as the District Magistrate in case of maintenance of Law and Order and General Administration, as District Election Officer in case of conduct of Election.

9. Collector plays a key role during natural disaster period like flood, earthquake, landslide, and cyclone/storm damage or fire incidence. He generally takes prompt action whenever situation arises in any part of the district, and provides assistance either in cash or kind to the victims according to the nature of damage.

10. The Collector is assisted by number of officers at the headquarters.

Resident Deputy Collector:

The Resident Deputy Collector is appointed to relive the Collector of his ordinary routine duties. In the absence of collector he is to look after important urgent work and to see that work of collector goes on smoothly. He has to co-ordinate the work of District offices with that of sub-ordinate offices functioning at Taluka levels and Sub-Divisional levels.

Sub-Divisional Officer:

Officer in charge of Sub-Division is called Sub-Divisional Officer or Dy. Collector or Asst. Collector. In revenue matter he acts as coordinator in between Tahasildars of his Sub-Division and the District Collector. The Sub divisional Offices are a replica of Collectorate in the matter of number of sections. The Sub-Divisional Officer is the first appellate authority in respect of revenue matters handled by his subordinates Sub Divisional Officer is also the Sub Divisional Magistrate having jurisdiction over his division.

The Sub-Divisional Officer is also the Returning Officer for Assembly constituencies and he is the Asst. Returning Officer for the Parliamentary Constituency in his sub-division.

Tahsildars and NaibTahsildars:

The officer in-charge of a tahsil is called Tahsildar. Tahsildar has powers of co-ordination and distribution of work among Circle Revenue Officers,
The Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars are responsible for collection of land revenue and other dues payable to the Government. They remain in touch with the subordinate revenue staff. They observe the seasonal conditions and condition of crops. They listen to the difficulties of the cultivators. The Tahasildar and Naib-Tahasildars extensively tour the areas in their jurisdiction. They decide urgent matters on the spot, like correction of entries in the account books, providing relief to the people faced with natural calamities, etc. They also sit in the courts to settle disputes in connection with Land Reformation Acts, entries in account books, etc.

Any application regarding land revenue is to be addressed to the Tahasildar. Tahasildar takes decision on the application after due enquiry. For elections to the VidhanSabha, a Tahsildar is, invariably be appointed as Assistant Returning Officer for the constituency/constituencies falling in his Tahsil.

They hold the powers of Executive Magistrate.

Circle Inspector/Officer:
Circle Inspector is village level Revenue Officer working under Tahasildar and NaibTahasildar. The Circle Officer and the Circle Inspector in charge of a circle shall exercise such powers over the Talathi in his circle and perform such duties and functions as may from time to time be prescribed. Duties and function of Circle Inspector/Officer are specified in Maharashtra Land Revenue Circle Officer's and Circle Inspector's (Duties and Functions) Rules, 1970.

Talathis/Patwaris:
Whereas, the collector is regarded as the pivot of the district administration, the Talathi is the representative of Government at the village level. He has usually one to five villages in his charge. His local knowledge is so extensive that there is hardly any information about the village and its occupants of which he is not aware or of which he cannot make a guess. As such, he is viewed as the eyes and ears of the Collector.
The duties of the Talathi includes field inspections, recording of crops, revision reports relating to mutations, partitions, recovery of revenue or rents, and all amounts recoverable as arrears of land revenue, preparations and maintenance of the "Records of Rights". He is also required to assist in providing relief to agriculturists in distress or in census operations. It is also the duty of a Talathi to prepare, whenever called upon by any superior revenue or police officer of the taluka or district to do so all writings connected with the concerns of a village which are required either for the use of the Central or State Government or the public, such as notices, reports of inquests, and depositions and examinations in criminal matters.
Duties and function of Talathis are specified in various sections of the code and the rules thereunder. Some of the sections and rules are as follows:-

Under Section 44 Sub-Section (4) The person to whom (Non Agricultural) permission is granted or deemed to have been granted has to inform the Tahsildar in writing through the village officers (Talathi) the date on which the change of user of land commenced. Talathi has to inform to Tahsildar, the change of use of land within three days on receipt of information received to him by person concerned.

Duties of Talathis/Patwaris:

1. The Talathi shall immediately after 1stAugust submit to the Tahsil all the information required for the compilation of the annual administration report, together with a statement of new hissas to be

measured for being forwarded to The District Inspector of Land Records for arranging the measurement.

2. The Talathi shall, side by side or soon thereafter, watch the character of the season and be ready to report distress that may be coming, by submitting weekly rainfall and crop position reports to the Tahsildar with copy to the Circle Inspector.

3. The Talathi shall commence at the same time the Kharif crop tenancy and boundary and survey marks inspection and shall complete it t 15th of October.

4. The Talathi shall thereafter commence and complete by 31st December the Rabi crop and tenancy and boundary and survey marks inspection.

5. The Talathi shall assist the Circle Inspector in the preparation of annewaris of crops and performance of as many crops cutting experiments as may be required.

6. By15th of December or earlier as crop position may warrant, the Talathi shall obtain Collector's orders about the recovery of land revenue of the current year as also of the suspended land revenue of previous years. He shall give wide publicity to the Collector's orders regarding suspension of land revenue and their recovery and remissions.

7. By the end of December every year, .the Talathi shall bring Village Form VIII-A up-to-date and keep the demand part of Village Form VIII- ready to start land revenue recovery.

8. The Talathi shall recover land revenue ordered on the dates prescribed by the Collector under the rules.

9. The Talathi shall bear in mind that all the land revenue due for, recovery for the year, shall be recovered before 31st July of the year and no unauthorised arrears shall remain unrecovered.

10. The Talathi shall issue a receipt for all moneys received by him on behalf of Government. For failure to give receipt the Talathi is liable to a fine not exceeding twice the amount received, vide section 77 of the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code, 1966. He shall maintain a register showing the account of receipt books with him.

11. The Talathi shall maintain a cash book and exhibit in it all the moneys he receives, credits into the treasury within 15 days. He shall at no time hold as balance in hand an amount of more than Rs. 1,000.

12. The Talathi shall report to the Tahsildar the progress of recovery of land revenue in the chalan under which he credits land revenue recovered in Government treasury.

13. The Talathi shall submit to the Tahsildar all his revenue accounts for audit (Jamabandi) as soon as he recovers all the dues of the year. This shall include the submission of abstract of Village Form VIII-B which shall be submitted by 31st May.

14. The Talathi shall prove to the satisfaction of the Tahsildar that the accounts maintained by him for the year are correct and in. agreement with the Taluka Accounts where necessary.
15. The Talathi shall maintain all the revenue accounts and cash books, charge reports and other records, as prescribed under the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code and Rules thereunder or any other law for the time being in force or by order of the State Government or as determined by the Collector subject to the general orders of the State Government and the Commissioner.
16. The Talathi shall be responsible for the collection of arrears of land revenue and all amounts recoverable as arrears of land revenue and for the maintenance of record of rights and shall perform all such duties and functions as are provided for in the Maharashtra Land Revenue Code or rules thereunder or any law for the time being in force or by order of the State Government.
17. The Talathi shall prepare, whenever called upon by any superior revenue or police officer of the taluka or district to do so, all writings connected. Village Level Administration / 301 with the concerns of a village, which are required either for the use of the Central or State Government or the public, such as notices, reports of inquests and depositions and examinations in criminal matters.

Kotwal:

The kotwal performs the following duties:

1. To accompany Government remittances to sub-treasuries;
2. Call the villagers to the *chawadi* for paying Government dues and to remain present at the *chawadi* at the time of collection of land revenue;
3. To keep a watch on Government money and office records;
4. To carry the village *daftar* to and from the tahsil office;
5. To carry Government *tapal* to and from the tahsil office;
6. To accompany village officers and touring officers at the time of crop and boundary marks inspections;
7. To summon persons on whom notices are to be served and to assist the police *patil* in serving summons;
8. To collect information about births and deaths;
9. To accompany the police *patils* and the police at the time of night rounds;
10. To announce Government orders in the village by beating the drums;
11. To assist the vaccinator in his work of vaccination;
12. To help the police *patil* in the case of accidental deaths and fires outbreaks of epidemic diseases;

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13. To report movements of criminals and to assist the police in the investigation and prevention of crimes;
14. To keep guard on prisoners in the police *patils* custody;
15. To assist the village officers at the time of recovery of land revenue; and
16. To render assistance to Government officers on duty in the village.

4.6 ALLIED UNITS OF REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

4.6.1. Land records department:

Closely allied to the revenue department in the lands record whose main function is to survey lands, prepare survey records and to conduct periodical revenue settlement operations and revise the agricultural assessment of land. The survey records prepared for the department are essential for several activities including land acquisition preparation of development plans and settlements of land disputes. Another important function which has developed on the department since 1947 is the implementation of the Bombay prevention of fragmentation and consolidation of holdings act, 1947.

The land records department is headed by the settlement commissioner and director of land records who is an IA S officer of the rank of secretary. At the divisional level there are six deputy directors of land records with headquarters at Bombay, Pune, Nasik, Aurangabad, Amravati, and Nagpur. At the district level there is a district inspector of land records in each district who maintains the land records in respect of the district. In cities there are city survey officers who are either from the revenue department order land records department to maintain land records. In Bombay city all the land records are maintained in the collector's office.

4.6.2. Registration department:

Another department closely related to revenue department and the land records department in the registration department established under the Indian registration act 1908.The principle function of the department is the registration of documents under the registration act in respect of all transactions. However documents relating to immovable property form a sizable portion of these documents. The settlement commissioner and director of land records is also the Inspector General of registration and the registrar general of births deaths and marriages, the registrar of marriages under the various acts relating to marriage registrations and the chief controlling Revenue Authority under the Bombay stamp act 1958 and the Bombay court fees at 1959 for the whole state except greater Bombay, the registration department does not have any organization at the divisional level, but at the district level the collector is the ex-officer district registrar. There is also a joint district registrar for every district who has been declared as registrar under the act. For all practical purposes, the joint district registrars act at the district registrars subject to the overall supervision of the collector.

4.6.3. Stamp department:

Yet another department closely associated with the revenue department is the stamp department. The Inspector General of registration is the chief controlling Revenue Authority for stamps for the whole state except greater Bombay weather chief controlling Revenue Authority for stamps is the collector of greater Bombay.

The main function of the stamps office in Bombay is to stalk and cell judicial and non-judicial stamp to the public in Bombay and to supply them to district offices. The sale of stamp is done through salaried stamp vendors in greater Bombay and through licensed stop vendors in the suburbs. The office also adjudicates and determines stamp duty on documents presented for adjudication under the Indian stamp act 1899 and this Bombay stamp act 1958 certifies documents impounded after recovering deficit duty and penalty and grants refunds on spoiled or unused stamps.

In the districts, the sale of stamps of the denominations up to rupees 600 is done mostly through licensed and vendors who are supplied stamps by the treasuries and sub treasuries. Stamps about this denomination are sold to the public by the treasuries or sub treasuries. Matters such as adjudication of stamp duty grant of refunds etc. are attended to by the respective collectors. The Inspector General of registration is the appellate authority against the decision of the collector.

4.6.4. Board revenue tribunal:

The board of revenue was initially conceived during the regime of the East India Company as an agency to help the company's government in its detailed work in the fields of revenue and administration. The Britisher"s had discovered a synthesis between collection revenue and the general administration. The first board of revenue set up in Bengal in 1768. Madras Tamil Nadu soon followed suit in course of time this organization came to be set up in most of other provinces. Does, today we find a board of revenue in all states except Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, And Haryana Himachal Pradesh Jammu and Kashmir and Punjab which has one or more financial commissioners instead of board. The board of revenue is as unique in its constitution and composition as in its evolution. At represents a classic deviation from the general pattern of executive departments. This may be attributed to its peculiar synthesis of administrative advisory an quasi-judicial functions.

The number of members of the board of revenue varies from one to five. The board of revenue in Andhra Pradesh has five members while in Bihar and Orissa it consists of one full time member. The boarding UP has divided into distinct wings judicial wing located at Allahabad and the administrative wing shifted to Luck now. The Allahabad wing has three members we're exclusively engaged in judicial work. There assisted in their work by a registrar. The Lucknow wing comprises three members taxation land reform and administration who is designated as chairman of

the board the members of the boards are selected out of senior is officers.
The states of Maharashtra and Gujarat have the institution of revenue tribunal instead of the board of revenue. The revenue tribunal was established in Maharashtra under the Bombay revenue act of 1957. The tribunal consists of the president and 14 members. The divisional commissioners RX officer members of the tribunal. The Gujarat revenue tribunal consists of eight members that is the president, four non official members and three divisional commissioners. In both the states and judicial work relating to revenue administration vests in the tribunal whereas revenue administration has been centralized in the revenue department.

The functions of the board vary from state to state the board performs the following functions:

1. It acts as a buffer between government and district administration and eases out the pressure from both sides
2. It coordinates and supervises the work of various departments in the division.
3. It is the head of the revenue administration in the division and hears appeals against the orders of district collectors and supervisors the work of collectors in the division
4. It advises the state government on all matters referred to it.

4.6.5 Revenue Tribunals:

There are two tribunals connected with lands Maharashtra revenue tribunal: The Maharashtra revenue tribunal is an important tribunal established under the Maharashtra land Revenue Code to hear appeals, against the orders of Revenue Officers under certain laws relating to land revenue, like tenancy, abolition of special imams, vatans etc. It has the power of a civil code for taking evidences on oathsummoning witnesses, compelling the production of documents but it has no jurisdiction any matter which is sub-juiced or which involves a question of the validity of any law. The tribunal consist of 30 members including the chairman. It has Five benches each of three members at Bombay, pony Aurangabad and not poor and A1 member being shared Kolhapur the headquarters of the tribunal was in Bombay.

Under the Maharashtra agricultural lands (Ceiling on Land holdings) act 1961.The government has appointed two tribunals at the block level for each taluka.

I) Surplus land determination tribunal.

II) Land distribution Tribunal.

What these tribunals consist of the tehsildar or additional tehsildar as chairman two or three non-officials by government.

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4.7 SUMMARY

Revenue administration mostly known for the collection of revenue, but the department of revenue has to perform many others task related to disaster management, land record, election duties etc., so the department has other branches like land record, revenue tribunal, stamp and registration department. Keeping in the all activities the department is definitely dominant and responsible for the development of the district and ultimately villages in the domain.

4.8. KEYWORDS

Circle Inspectors	*: Higher post to village revenue officer(Talathi)*
NaibTahasildar	*: Officer Next to Tahasildar on Block level.*
Patwari	*: Village level revenue officer (Talathi)*
Non Agricultural	*: Land for commercial use.*
Kotwal	*: Assistant to Talathi.*
Chawadi	*: Traditionally a village meeting place.*

4.9 UNIT END QUESTIONS

***Descriptive*:**

i) Explain the role of Collector in revenue administration.

ii) Write various functions of revenue administration.

iii) Elaborate the revenue machinery in brief.

MCQs:

1. Land related documents are made available to the citizens by which administration?
   A. Police administration.
   B. Development Administration.
   C. Revenue administration.
   D. Public administration
2. Who is the main revenue administration officer at Block Level?
   A. Tahasildar.
   B. Landlord.
   C. Member of Parliament.
   D. Gramsevak.
3. Who is the Chief Revenue Officer at the district level?
   A. Tahasildar.
   B. Landlord.
   C. Member of Parliament.
   D. Gramsevak.

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4. In which year the Government of Maharashtra adopted the new Land Revenue Code?

A. 1960

B. 1966

C. 1950

D. 1956

5. In which document is the land of farmers recorded?

A. Pass book

B. Modification register

C. Rationing card.

D. Account book.

4.10 REFERENCES

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5

MACHINERY OF LAW AND ORDER IN DISTRICT

Unit Structure

5.1 Introduction.
5.2 Objectives.
5.3 Key Concept.
5.4 Principles Of Law And Order.
5.5 Methods Of Creating Law And Order.
5.6 Features Of Police Administration.
5.7 Police Rank.
5.8 Maharashtra State Police Force Post Structure.
5.9 Police Training School.
5.10 Summary
5.11 Keywords.
5.12 Unit End Questions.
5.13 References.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The word police have been derived from the Greek 'Politeia'. It means establishing peace and managing the law of a defined area. The police are the guardian of the people and can never be far away from the public. The police is the primary force for the protection of the individual in the enjoyment of their legal rights designed to stand between the powerful and the weak to prevent oppression, disaster and crime, and to represent the cause of law and order at all times and in all places. In every court or alley, the policeman stands for good citizenship. He is a reality to comprehend and upon his impartiality, efficiency and intelligence depends the estimation in which law is held by the masses.

As far as India is concern, since ancient times, the Nayaks, DandPalaks(दंड पालक), kotwals were working to protect the citizens. In 1765, the British started the Daroga (दरोगा) system and created the post of District DandNayak (दंड नायक) in 1781, thus entrusting the police administration with the responsibility of creating law and order since British times.
The police have to prevent or take precautionary measures to ensure that there is little or no scope for the commission of crime or disturbance of law and order. This profession requires a more 1 acute sense of anticipation and an ability to smell danger, as compared to other

professions. The police have to detect crimes, identify the guilty and apprehend them under the law. It is not uncommon and unnatural for the members of the police force (since they are so visible and are being judged all the time by the public, the politicians and their own bosses) to want to show results and achieve targets.

Another major task of the police is to arrange to prosecute the accused under the relevant provisions of the law (through state prosecutors) and send them up for trial before the court to secure their conviction. Police is a state subject and is specified, as such, in List II-State List in the seventh schedule of the Constitution. The centre has no police. It has at its command paramilitary forces such as the CRPF, CISF, BSF and so on created by the Acts of Parliament for which Art 355 of the Constitution gives sanction. These are the armed forces of the Union meant to be deployed in a state only in aid of civil power for the purpose of restoring and presenting public order.

5.2 OBJECTIVES

1. To understand the concept of law and order.
2. To understand meaning and scope of police administration.
3. The lesson has aim of understanding principles of police administration.
4. To study the features of police administration.
5. To know about present machinery of law and order at various level.
6. The purpose of this course is to study various Police Personnel Administration with its importance.

5.3 KEY CONCEPT

Law And Order: The enactment and enforcement of laws for the safe, civil, and orderly functioning of society.

Police: Public Officer for Legal Investigation and Criminal Emergencies.

According to above acronyms it is observed that, the person working with the department has certain rights related to the enactment and enforcement of laws in the arisen situation, but same time they have responsibilities to maintain fearless environment in the society so, ethically and in true sense following meaning of each alphabet is given.

P-Politeness behaves politely

O-Obedience

L-Loyalty/loyal

I-Integrity honest

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C- Courage patient

E – Efficient.

5.4 PRINCIPLES OF LAW AND ORDER

The British passed the Indian Police Act, which has a total of 47 sections, on March 22, 1861. Subsequently, the functioning and scope of the Mumbai Police Act 1951 Police Administration have been fixed. It is the responsibility of the police administration under the Home Department to maintain law and order in the states. Initially, the only work of the police was to protect the lives and property of the citizens, but at present, the work of the police seems to be increasing day by day.

The following principles are important while establishing law and order.

1. Law and order should be complementary to each other.
2. The main objective of law and order should be to protect everyone.
3. Priority for civil power should be in the highest place in law and order.
4. The rule of law should be recognized.
5. The use of force should be approved to establish law and order.

5.5 METHODS OF CREATING LAW AND ORDER

1. Granting rights
2. Adopting tolerance
3. Finding and correcting mistakes
4. Taking accountability and entrusting responsibility
5. Adopting honesty
6. Investigation and filing of cases against the offender
7. Creating internal security
8. To take Preventive Measures
9. Firing if required
10. Banning large gatherings during an emergency.

5.6 FEATURES OF POLICE ADMINISTRATION –

Maharashtra Police Administration is known as an efficient policeadministration in Indian police administrationbecause of their characteristics.

1. Creation and Regulation by Law:

Maharashtra Police Administration is created and regulated under The Indian Police Act 1861 and Mumbai Police Act 1951.

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2. Control of Home Department:
Home Minister and Home Secretary of Home Department control the entire police administration of the state.

3. Independent Uniform, Flag, Motto:
The flag of the Maharashtra police administration is dark blue, there is a star which has two circles in the middle in which there is a palm, and below the star is the motto "SadrakshnayaKhalnigranaya" ("सदरक्षणाय, खलनिग्रहणाय")(to protect good and destroy evil). The uniform includes a khaki pants shirt and a black cap.

4. The State Police is led by the Director-General of Police:
The Director-General of Police is the leader of the police administration in the state.

5. Police Area:
For the convenience of administration, the police administration of Maharashtra has been divided into eight areas:

1. Thane- District: Thane, Ratnagiri, Raigad, Sindhudurg

2. Nashik- District: Nashik, Ahmednagar, Jalgaon, Dhule, Nandurbar.

3. Nagpur- District: Nagpur, Wardha, Bhandara, Chandrapur, Gadchiroli.

4. Kolhapur- District: Pune, Kolhapur, Satara, Sangli, Solapur.

5. Amravati- District: Amravati, Washim, Yavatmal, Buldhana.

6. Aurangabad- District: Aurangabad,Jalna,Osmanabad,Beed.

7. **Nanded- District**:Nanded, Latur, Parbhani,Hingoli.

8. Railway Route– District: Mumbai, Nagpur, Pune Division.

1. Police Commissionerate:
Police Commissionerate is created for big or metropolitan cities, Presently Mumbai, Navi Mumbai, Thane, Pune, Nagpur, Nashik, Amravati, Solapur, Aurangabad cities and Railway Police, Commissionerate Mumbai Police Commissionerate are there in Maharashtra. Apart from the above Police Commissionerate, eight police stations in the state and an officer are not less than the rank of Special Inspector General of Police is carrying out the work of maintaining the area head area and order in collaboration with police officers.

2. Police Control:
Secret News, Crime Investigation, Armed Police Force, Traffic Control, Guard Special functions together along with the Department of Police in the state. Lady police are also present in the state police system, they are of special use in the context of women criminals. They work with equal efficiency and honesty as their male officer counterparts in the police department.

3. Railway Police Force:
Maharashtra Police has a separate police force to curb the criminal

activities in the state. The Inspector-General of Police leads the Railway Police Force. Currently,Mumbai, Pune, Nagpur has railway police administration departments.

4. State Reserve Police Force:
The State Reserve Police Force was established in 1951 to create efficiency and discipline in the police administration and is headquartered in Pune. His chief is a special inspector general of the police officer. At present, the group has 12 departments/group heads, and the group chief is called commander.

5.The responsibility of maintaining State Law and Order:
Protection, prevention, controlling all issues related to law and order, are the three main responsibilities of the police system of the state. The police department is a state subject and its functioning is controlled by the state home ministry. The police administration works as per the laws given in the Indian Penal Code. The Director-General of Police is the highest in the State Police Department. Additional Director General of Police, Inspector General of Police, Deputy Inspector General of Police, Assistant Inspector-General of Police, District Superintendent of Police, Deputy Superintendent of Police, Assistant Sub Inspector of Police, Assistant Sub Inspector of Police, Police Head Constable, Police Naik, Police Constable.

5.7 POLICE RANK

Police Ranks		
1.		**Director-General of Police**
2.		**Add. Director-General of Police**
3.		**Inspector-General of Police / Special Inspector General of Police**
4.		**Dy. Inspector-General of Police**

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5.		**Superintendent of Police / Deputy Commissioner of Police (Selection Grade)**

6.		**Superintendent of Police / Deputy Commissioner of Police (Junior Management Grade)**
7.		**Add. Superintendent of Police/ Deputy Commissioner of Police (Less than 10 years ofservice)**
8.		**Add. Superintendent of Police / Deputy Commissioner of Police (State Police Service)**
9.		**Assistant Superintendent of Police**
10.		**Dy. Superintendent of Police / SDPO/ Assistant Commissioner of Police (A.C.P.)**
11.		**Police Inspector (P.I.)**
12.		**Assistant Police Inspector (A.P.I.)**

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13.		**Police Sub Inspector (P.S.I.)**
14.		**Assistant Police Sub Inspector (A.S.I.)**
15.		**Head Constable (H.C.)**
16.		**Police Naik (P.N.)**
17.		**Police Constable (P.C.)**

5.8 MAHARASHTRA STATE POLICE FORCE POST STRUCTURE

1. **Director General of Police**
2. **Addl. Director General of Police**
3. **Special Inspector General of Police**
4. **Deputy Inspector General of Police**

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5. **Superintendent of Police**
6. **Deputy Superintendent of Police/ Assistant Commissioner of Police**
7. **Senior Inspector of Police**
8. **Inspector of Police**
9. **Assistant Inspector of Police**
10. **Sub-inspector of police**
11. **Assistant Sub Inspector of Police**
12. **Police Head Constable**
13. **Police Naik**
14. **Police Constable**
15. **Police Patil**

1. Director General of Police:

The leadership and responsibility of the Police Administration of the State of Maharashtra lie with the Director-General of Police; the Director-General of Police is the Head of the Police Administration of the State, under his guidance and control. Before 1982, the Chief of Police of the State was the Inspector General of Police, but since 1982, the Chief of Police of the State of Maharashtra is called the Director-General of Police instead of the Inspector General of Police. In 1982, K.P. Medhekar was the Director-General of Police is a very experienced officer in the Indian Police Services. The Director-General of Police is appointed by the State Government. The Headquarters of the Director-General of Police is in Mumbai. There are three to four Additional Directors General of Police and five to six Sub-Inspectors-General of Police officers and other officers are working to help the Director General of Police.

2. Addl. Director General of Police:

Power and their Duties:

1. To lead the police administration in the state and to guide the officers and staff of the police administration in the state,
2. To maintain law and order in the state or to give such orders. Taking final decisions on promotion, training appointments, and suspension, etc.
3. To review law and order as well as the work of the Police Force from time to time,
4. To honours the officers who have done excellent work and to recommend the officers and staff who do unique work for the President's Medal,
5. To attend meetings at the state and central level and to submit a report on the work of the State Police Force.

The Director-General of Police is the head and surveyor of the State Police Force. Under his/her guidance and control of the State Police Force, the Police Administration of the State is always working.

3. Special Inspector General of Police:

The fourth rank is the special inspector general of police as per the status of administration in the Maharashtra Police Force. The police administration in the state has been regionally divided. This is called the police area. At present, there are eight such police stations in Maharashtra. The special inspector general of police is selected as the main port of that area. The state government has the power to transfer, appoint, and promote them. Each area consists of four to five districts. Special Inspector General of Police is the administrative head of the area. They have to maintain and control the entire police administration in the area.

4. Deputy Inspector General of Police:

Powers and Functions of Special Inspector General of Police& **Deputy Inspector**

General of Police:

1. Review the work by holding meetings of all district Superintendents of Police in the area.
2. Guiding the officers of the area and giving appropriate instructions.
3. Visiting and inspecting the district police officers and police stations in the periphery.
4. Taking cognizance of police complaints.
5. To take decisions to punish police officers for transfer, promotion, and if appropriate action on complaints.
6. To instruct and guide the Superintendent of Police in handling the situation if the Law-and- Order issue is serious at a place in the periphery.
7. To call for necessary information reports from the police administration in the area and to submit a report to the seniors to attend the meetings convened by the seniors.
8. Supervising the police parade being present in the field of sports competitions, police welfare programmers, etc. are held.
9. Felicitation of Officers and Employees, who do good work.
10. To fulfil the responsibility entrusted by the state government and seniors.

5. ***Superintendent of Police (SP):***

District Police Chief is called the Superintendent of Police. The post was

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first created in the year1808. All the police administrations in the district work under the Superintendent of Police

District Superintendent of Police Office Designation

1. District Superintendent of Police
2. Upper Superintendent of Police
3. Deputy Chairman of Police/Sub Divisional Police Officer
4. Inspector of Police
5. Assistant Inspector of Police
6. Sub Inspector of Police
7. Assistant Sub Inspector of Police /Jamadar
8. Police Head Constable
9. Police Naik
10. Police Constable

- **Selection and appointment:**

The post of District Superintendent of Police is directly appointed by the Union and the Public Service Commission or Deputy Chairman of Police/Sub Divisional Police Officer is promoted to the post of District Superintendent of Police.

- **Other conditions of retirement in pay-disbursed retirement:**

The Central Government has the power to fix the salary of the District Superintendent of Police and to dismiss him and fix other conditions of service, but his salary and allowances are paid from the state government funds. The Superintendent of Police of the Central Service retires after 60 years of age and the Superintendent of Police in the State Service retires after completing 58 years. The Superintendent of Police can resign before retirement. There is a provision that can lead to the dismissal of the charges are proved by inquiring based on corruption, misconduct, and inefficiency.

- **Rights and Functions:**

The District Superintendent of Police has to do a lot of work as the head of the district police administration-

I. Maintaining of law and order:

The first and most important task is to maintain law and order in the entire district, for which it is important to find and arrest criminals and register cases against them.

II. Recruitment of the post of Police Force:

The Superintendent of Police has to do the job of recruiting sanctioned and vacant posts like drivers, etc. for the police of the District Police Force.

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III. Training recruitment and transfer works:
Provision of training of newly recruited and old police officers and employees: Promotion or promotion of eligible employees as per requirement and rules.

IV. Creating discipline and efficiency:
To create discipline and efficiency in the district police administration, police parades and various tests and special efforts to boost the morale of the brotherhood should be honoured by prize awards and good employee promotion.

V. Guidance and Control Work:
As the head of the district police force, the police officers and staff of the district are guided on various subjects.

VI. Compliance with the Court ordersand Seniors:
The Superintendent of Police has to follow the order passed by the court as well as comply with the orders given by senior officers like Special Deputy Inspector General of Police, District Collector, and Director General of State Government Police.

VII. Meeting and Report Work:
Attending meetings convened by seniors submitting district police administration reports as well as holding meetings of subordinate officers and staff of the district to review their work.

VIII. Work of Police Welfare:
SP also has to honour the police personnel by providing development systems, health care, entertainment facilities, sports facilities, organizing various competitions of police personnel, as well as providing educational facilities and technical vocational training facilities to their children, and recommending employees for national and state awards for outstanding work.

IX. Crime Elimination and Protection of Very Important Persons:
Illegal trade, smuggling in the district, collection of the blackmarket, ransom of goods, theft, road accidents, rape, and murder, etc. SP must reduce or eliminate the majority of these crimes. Protecting VIPs who come to visit the district area is also one of the responsibilities of SP.

X. Public Relations Work:
Law and order cannot be created without the help of the people, so it is important to improve the relations between the people and the police by efficient working and transparency.

6. Deputy Superintendent of Police:
The post of Deputy Superintendent of Police is important in the Maharashtra Police Service. The post was created on the recommendation of the 1902 Police Reforms Commission. (The Governor-General in

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Council with approval of the Secretary of the State for India appointed the Second All-India Police Commission in the year 1902to study the State of police organization in different provinces of the country and to make the police force effective in the changing context of Indian politics). The Deputy Superintendent of Police is elected directly through competitive examination through the Maharashtra Public Service Commission and senior police inspectors are appointed as Deputy Superintendent of Police. The state government has the power to provide other services by promoting the Deputy Superintendent of Police to the post of Superintendent of Police. This post is appointed as the Deputy Superintendent of Police by combining three to four talukas of the district and creating a sub-division and also appointed as the Deputy Superintendent of Police and The Head of the Department sub-division, i.e., officers of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police also have to act as sub-divisional police officers.

Tenure: Deputy Superintendent of Police can continue in office till he completes 58 years of age. He can resign before the retirement period is over. Also, based on the non-inefficiency of misbehaviour, the state government can dismiss him after inquiry.

b. Rights and Functions:

The Deputy Superintendent of Police has to work under the guidance and control of the District Superintendent of Police.

1. To guide the officers of the sub-division of jurisdiction.
2. Assign the responsibilities to officers under his control.
3. Establishing law and order in the sub-division of the jurisdiction.
4. Creating discipline and efficiency among the employees in the field of work under Sub-Division.
5. Complaining to seniors to take additional action against the indiscipline and inefficient employees of the sub-division.
6. Giving surprise visits to police stations to check documents.
7. Creating good relations with society to control criminal activities.
8. Holding meetings of previous employees and reviewing the work.
9. Attending meetings convened by seniors. Submission of reports which they have demanded.
10. To comply with the order given by the Superintendent of Police and other senior officers.

7. Senior Inspector of Police: Senior Inspector of Police some time very next to the Dy. SP in the area. Sr. Inspector and Inspector of police have to perform role as per the given below.

8. Inspector of Police: ***The*** regional level system of police administration is the police stations. **S**enior Inspector of Police **&** The police inspector officer any one would be the head of the police station as per the posting arrangements. There are types of police stations like rural police stations

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and urban police stations in the state. Rural police stations are constructed at the taluka level or in big village areas in rural areas and city police stations are set up taking into account the population and crime in urban areas.

a. Selection of Police Inspector:
The post of Police Inspector is filled up by promotion in the post of Sub-Inspector of Police, selected by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission or the Head Constable is appointed to the post of Sub-Inspector of Police by recruiting these employees directly by training and recruiting selected police inspectors in direct service or promotional manner.

b. Powers and functions of Inspector of Police

1. Elimination of crime by establishing law and order in the field of work.
2. Guiding and controlling subordinate employees.
3. Making efforts to create discipline and efficiency among employees.
4. Visiting the police post/chowki and monitoring their work.
5. To assign the responsibility of the employees, to share the work, or to hold a duty parade, to attend the parade.
6. To try and curb criminal activities, etc. under their periphery, contact the public and seek their help.
7. Complaining to seniors to take action against misbehaviour and inefficient employees.
8. To check the daily record of work at the police station as well as checking of weapons in the police station.
9. The arrest of criminals and file cases against them in court.
10. To take useful information from junior officers, attend a meeting convened by the seniors and report thane as well as fulfil the responsibility entrusted to the seniors.

9. Assistant Inspector of Police: The rank insignia for an ASI is one star, with a red and blue striped ribbon at the outer edge of the shoulder straps. He/she can be an Investigating officer. A.S.I. is often the officer in charge of Police Outposts or "phari" and Investigation Centres.

10. Sub-inspector of police: The Sub-Inspector in charge of a Police Station is fully responsible for the Police Administration of his charge. The Sub-Inspector is an important and vital functionary in the police department. He shall be responsible for proper management of the station and optimum utilization of the resources and facilities available. It shall be his duty to manage the staff and work of the police station in accordance with the law and rules and to make the police station a place where the needy public gets necessary and immediate response. The image of the police department basically reflects on the conduct and behaviour of the

Sub-Inspector and his staffs in the station, as it is at that 31 point, public has a direct access with the police. The Sub-Inspector and his staff should behave politely and courteously with the public giving an impression of friendly approach. Active co-operation from Citizen Committees shall be solicited in the matters of L&O, crime prevention etc. All illegal methods or ill treatments against persons should be avoided at all costs giving way to an impression to the public that the police are there to extend their helping hand in the discharge of their duties. The Sub-Inspector must respect human values and human dignity and should know that powers are vested in him to discharge his duties legitimately but not to arrogate to satisfy his ego and vanity. If he crosses his limits he will be doing so at his risk as the department will not come to his rescue.

11. Assistant Sub Inspector of Police: The following shall be the duties of the Assistant Sub-Inspector.

A. Investigation of simple cases as directed by SHO and assisting investigation in all cases handled by SHOs and other superior officers

B. Petition enquiry

C. Checking of enquiries in verification rolls

D. Supervision of service of process work

E. To function as an officer in charge of a beat area and check patrols

F. Direct supervision or handling of station scriptory work

G. Detailing duties to the staff during Sub-Inspectors absence and exercising supervision and control over the Constables and Head Constables

H. Maintenance of cash book

I. Preparation of pay and traveling allowance bills (He should sign them only when the SI is absent)

J. Maintenance of arms and ammunition and registers connected therewith

K. To be in charge of outpost or beat and perform these duties when posted there

L. Such other work as may be entrusted to him

12. Police Head Constable: Head Constables are mainly employed to be in charge of general duty in police stations, as station writer, as officer in charge of out post and guards, armed reserves, in charge of beat areas in rural and town police stations. He acts as SHO in the absence of Sub-Inspector and Asst. Sub-Inspector. He is authorised to hold inquests and make investigation when asked by the Sub Inspector to do so.

13. Police Naik: Police Naik is senior one most to the constable as per the rank and duties of the both are as given below.

14. Police Constable: *A* Constable has maximum interface with public.

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As the most accessible person for public, he is expected to protect the needy, rescue people from danger, apprehend offenders and assist in securing prompt help and justice. Some of the important roles assigned to him are organizing and securing community participation, activising himself in prevention and detection of crime and maintenance of law and order. Another main role of the Constable is, performance of all tasks connected with beat area and thereby help in prevention of offence and breach of peace. The constable on traffic duty has the task of regulating traffic. All constables in their dealings with public should inspire confidence in the efficacy of police to protect them. The police image is directly proportionate to their good conduct and behaviour in the public as they are the persons who are basically and directly in touch with them. At all costs they must avoid ill treatment either to the victims or to the accused as a first step to build the better police image.

15. Police Patil:

The post of Police Patil was first created in the British era according to the Mumbai Civil of 1857, but the post, which was inherited, was cancelled by the government in 1946, but Police Patil has been appointed in every village since the post of Police Patil was re-created under the Maharashtra Gram Police Act, 1967.

a. Eligibility: The following eligibility for the post of Police Patil has been fixed:

1. Police Patil should be a resident of the village concerned.
2. He/ She should be 25 to 45 years old.
3. He/ She should be physically competent.
4. His/ her behaviour should be good.
5. He/ She should have passed at least 10th.
6. Priority should be given to backward classes.
7. He/ She cannot do any job.
8. He/ She cannot accept any other post.

b. Appointment and control:

The right to appoint Police Patilis given to the Deputy Collector or Divisional Officer. The first appointment is for five years, and then the extension can be extended up to the age of sixty years. The police Patil's are controlled by the Talathi, Tehsildar, and the concerned police station.

c. Leave and Honorarium:

Tehsildar has the right to grant leave to police Patil. The children of Police Patilwhofulfill other conditions are given free education. The state government has the right to determine the honorarium of Police Patil, it is rupees 1200/- (one thousand two hundred)

d. Work of Police Patil:

1. Reporting the crime to the police and helping the investigation of the

crime within the village limits.

2. Inform the police seniors about persons carrying unlicensed weapons and drugs.
3. To help curb the crime in the village. Maintaining security in the village.
4. To inform tehsildars and police about the natural calamities and reporting infectious diseases.
5. Providing necessary information and documents to senior officers.

5.9 POLICE TRAINING SCHOOL

There are police training schools at the following places in the state 1. Khandala, District Pune, 2. Jalna, 3. Nagpur, 4. Akola, 5. Nanbij,Daund District- Pune, 6. Peral -Mumbai, 7. Solapur - Women's Training, 8. Crime Investigation Training School, Nashik, 9. Unconventional Operational Training Centre & Special Action Group (Alpha Hawks) for SRPF XII, Nagpur.

Special Security Training School is functioning at Ramtekdi, Pune to train officers and staff of the Special Security Department. The head of the police training college is called the principal. The head office of this college is in Mumbai. Maharashtra Police Prabodhini is working in Nashik, where the candidates selected as Deputy Superintendent of Police Assistant Commissioner of Police are trained.

In this capacity above postsare responsible for the maintenance of law and order in his district. Three elements are involved i.e. – the police, the judiciary, and the jails. As District Magistrate, he/ she perform the following functions:

1. To control and supervise the subordinate magistracy.
2. In case of threat to public peace, to order imposition under section 144 of the criminal procedure code.
3. To inspect the jails.
4. To release prisoners on parole.
5. To submit an annual criminal report to the government.
6. To grant, suspend, or cancel many kinds of licenses like arms, hotels, etc.
7. To control and direct the action of district police.
8. To enforce Entertainment Tax Act and Press Act.
9. To order disposal of unclaimed property.
10. To recommend schemes for the development of forests.
11. To supervise and control local bodies.

5.10 SUMMARY

Higher authorities also act in many ways as an agent of the judiciary. The executions of the rights of the civil and criminal courts, including criminal rights from courts outside the district, are normally done through the magisterial elements of the district administration. He/ she supervise the subordinate magistracy and orders magisterial postings when required. The District Jail is under his/ her general control. Higher authorities can visit the Jail from time to time to see that all is well and ensure the expeditious disposal of cases of under-trial prisoners. Higher authorities deal with different problems connected with the Jail administration. We will study more in next lesion.

5.11 KEYWORDS

- **LAW AND ORDER:** The enactment of laws for peace in the state.
- **JAMADAR:** was originally an armed official of a zamindar (feudal lord).
- **POLICE NAIK:** followed by the senior constable.

5.12 UNIT END QUESTIONS

Descriptive:

i) Write the various features of police administration.

ii) Explain the meaning of Law and Order.Explain the role of District Superintendent of Police in law and order.

iii) Write detail note on Police Patil.

MCQs:

i) The post of Police Patil came up in period.

A. Post-Independence,

B. Mughal,

C. British

D. Portuguese

ii) The first lok-Adalat held in ---state.

A. Maharashtra

B. Bihar,

C. Gujarat,

D. Delhi.

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iii) Legal Services Authorities Act, 1987 gave a statutory status to

A. LokAdalats.

B. Public Administration.

C. Loksabha

D. VidhanParishad.

5.13 REFERENCES

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6

MACHINERY OF LAW AND ORDER IN DISTRICT-II

Unit Structure

6.1 Introduction
6.2 Objectives
6.3 Key Concept
6.4 Structure judicial System
6.5 Power &*Function Of The Judiciary.*
6.6 Civil And Criminal Judicial
6.7 Lok Adalat - (People Judicial)
6.8 The Functioning Of Lok Adalats
6.9 Summary
6.10 Keywords.
6.11 Unit End Questions
6.12 References

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Indian administration is guided by three pillars – Legislature, Executives, and Judiciary. Indian Judiciary. In India, we have an independent judiciary. The other organs of the government cannot interfere with the functioning of the judiciary. The principal role of the **judiciary** is to protect rule of law and ensure supremacy of law. It safeguards rights of the individual, settles disputes in accordance with the law and ensures that democracy does not give way to individual or group dictatorship.

6.2 OBJECTIVES

- To understand the salient features of Indian judiciary.
- To make understand students role of Indian judiciary in protection of natural as well as fundamental rights of citizens.
- To importance Indian judiciary in democracy.
- To know the structure of Indian judiciary system.

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6.3 KEY CONCEPT

Judiciary: The **judiciary** is the branch of authority in a country which is concerned with law and the legal system.

CIVIL: *Relating to ordinary citizens and their concerns,*

CRIMINAL: *A person who has committed a crime.*

6.4 STRUCTUREJUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Judiciary is the third organ of the government. It has the responsibility to apply the laws to specific cases and settle all disputes. The real 'meaning of law' is what the judges decide during the course of giving their judgments in various cases. From the citizen's point of view, Judiciary is the most important organ of the government because it acts as their protector against the possible excesses of legislative and executive organs. Role of Judiciary as the guardian-protector of the constitution and the fundamental rights of the people makes it more respectable than other two organs. There are various levels of judiciary in India – different types of courts, each with varying powers depending on the tier and jurisdiction bestowed upon them. They form a strict hierarchy of importance, in line with the order of the courts in which they sit, with the Supreme Court of India at the top, followed by High Courts of respective states with district judges sitting in District Courts and Magistrates of Second Class and Civil Judge (Junior Division) at the bottom.

Hierarchy of courts The Indian judiciary is divided into several levels in order to decentralize and address matters at the grassroots levels. The basic structure is as follows:

1. **Supreme Court:** It is the Apex court of the country and was constituted on 28th January 1950. It is the highest court of appeal and enjoys both original suits and appeals of High Court judgments. The Supreme Court is comprised of the Chief Justice of India and 25 other judges. Articles 124-147 of the Constitution of India lay down the authority of the Supreme Court.
2. **High Courts:** High Courts are the highest judicial body at the State level. Article 214 lays down the authority of High Courts. There are 25 High Courts in India. High Courts exercise civil or criminal jurisdiction only if the subordinate courts in the State are not competent to try the matters. High Courts may even take appeals from lower courts. High Court judges are appointed by the President of India upon consultation with the Chief Justice of India, the Chief Justice of the High Court and the Governor of the State.
3. **District Courts:** District Courts are established by the State Governments of India for every district or group of districts based on the caseload and population density. District Courts are under the direct

administration of High Courts and are bound by High Court judgments. Every district generally has two kinds of courts:

a. **Civil Courts**

b. **Criminal Courts**

District Courts are presided over by District Judges. Additional District Judges and Assistant District Judges may be appointed based on the caseload. Appeals against District Court judgments lie in the High Court.

4. **LokAdalats /Village Courts:** these are subordinate courts at the village level which provide a system for alternate dispute resolution in villages.
5. **Tribunals:** the Constitution provides the government with the power to set up special Tribunals for the administration of specific matters such as tax cases, land cases, consumer cases etc.

Appellate jurisdiction refers to the authority of a court to rehear/review a case decided by a lower court. In India, appellate jurisdiction is vested in both the Supreme Court and High Courts. They may either overrule or uphold the judgments of lower courts.

II. Civil Courts:

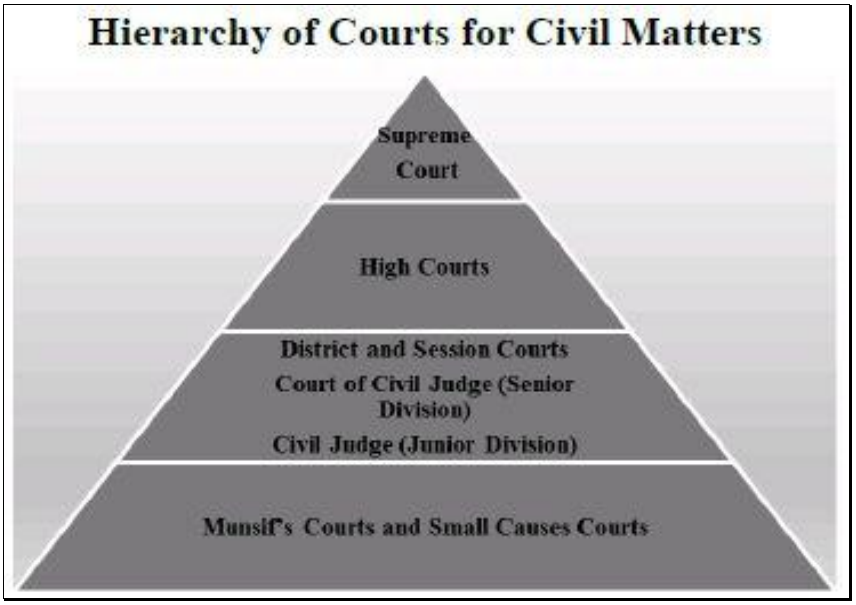
Civil courts provide remedies for civil wrongs committed by individuals against other individuals and entities. Civil matters range from property disputes to breaches of contract to divorce cases. Civil courts follow the principle of ubi jus ibi remedium (for every wrong the law provides remedy). Unless expressly or impliedly barred by any other law in force, civil courts have the jurisdiction to try all suits of civil nature.

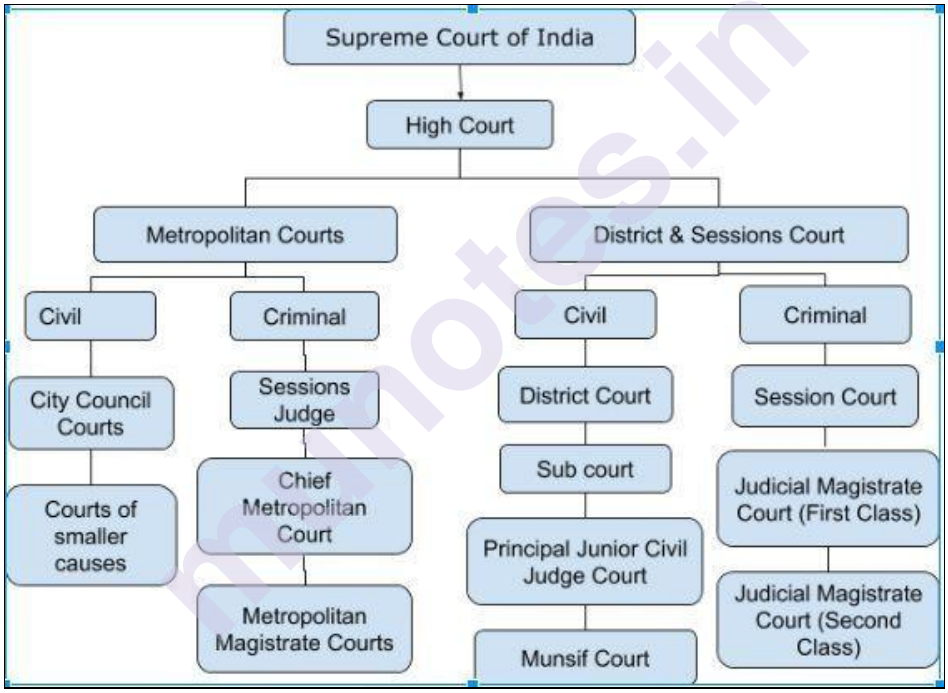
The **Code of Civil Procedure (CPC) 1908** governs the procedures to be followed by civil courts in administering civil cases in India.

As a matter of fact, every suit must be instituted before the court of lowest jurisdiction (the Munsif court). Upon institution, it is decided whether the respective court has competence to try the case.

The Civil Court hierarchy in districts is as follows:

1. **District Court:** The court of district judges is the highest civil court in a district. It exercises both judicial and administrative functions. The District Judge combines the powers of trying both civil and criminal cases. Hence, they are designated the District and Sessions Judge.
2. **Sub-judge Court:** if the value of the subject-matter of the suit is worth more than Rs. 1 lakh, the Sub-judge and Additional Sub-judge courts may try the suit.
3. **Additional Sub-judge Court:** this is created based on the case-load.
4. **Munsif Court:** if the value of the subject-matter of the suit is worth Rs. 1 lakh or below, the Munsif court is competent to try the suit.





6.5 POWER & FUNCTION OF THE JUDICIARY

The Judiciary is the third organ of the government. It has the responsibility to apply the laws to specific cases and settle all disputes. The real 'meaning of law' is what the judges decide during the course of giving their judgments in various cases. From the citizen's point of view, Judiciary is the most important organ of the government because it acts as their protector against the possible excesses of legislative and executive organs. Role of Judiciary as the guardian-protector of the constitution and the fundamental rights of the people makes it more respectable than other two organs.

There are various levels of judiciary in India – different types of courts, each with varying powers depending on the tier and jurisdiction bestowed upon them. They form a strict hierarchy of importance, in line with the order of the courts in which they sit, with the Supreme Court of India at the top, followed by High Courts of respective states with district judges sitting in District Courts and Magistrates of Second Class and Civil Judge (Junior Division) at the bottom.

The **Supreme Court of India** is the highest judicial forum and final court of appeal under the Constitution of India, the highest constitutional court, with the power of constitutional review. Consisting of the Chief Justice of India and 30 sanctioned other judges, it has extensive powers in the form of original, appellate and advisory jurisdictions.

As the final court of appeal of the country, it takes up appeals primarily against verdicts of the high courts of various states of the Union and other courts and tribunals. It safeguards fundamental rights of citizens and settles disputes between various governments in the country. As an advisory court, it hears matters which may specifically be referred to it under the constitution by the President of India.

The law declared by the Supreme Court becomes binding on all courts within India and also by the union and state governments. Per Article 142, it is the duty of the president to enforce the decrees (order or mandate) of the Supreme Court.

Functions of Judiciary and Its Importance:

1. To Give Justice to the people:
The first and foremost function of the judiciary is to give justice to the people, whenever they may approach it. It awards punishment to those who after trial are found guilty of violating the laws of the state or the rights of the people.

The aggrieved (hurt or pained) citizens can go to the courts for seeking redress (rectify & correct) and compensation. They can do so either when they fear any harm to their rights or after they have suffered any loss. The judiciary fixes the quantity and quality of punishment to be given to the criminals. It decides all cases involving grant of compensations to the citizens.

2. Interpretation and Application of Laws:
One of the major functions of the judiciary is to interpret (explain or clarify)and apply laws to specific cases. In the course of deciding the disputes that come before it, the judges interpret and apply laws. Every law needs a proper interpretation for getting applied to every specific case. This function is performed by the judges. The law means what the judges interpret it to mean.

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3. Role in Law-making:
The judiciary also plays a role in law-making. The decisions given by the courts really determine the meaning, nature and scope of the laws passed by the legislature. The interpretation of laws by the judiciary amounts to law-making as it is these interpretations which really define the laws.

Moreover, 'the judgments delivered by the higher courts, which are the Courts of Records, are binding upon lower courts. The latter can decide the cases before them on the basis of the decisions made by the higher courts. Judicial decisions constitute a source of law.

4. Equity (fairness) Legislation (law enactment):
Where a law is silent or ambiguous, or appears to be inconsistent with some other law of the land, the judges depend upon their sense of justice, fairness, impartiality, honesty and wisdom for deciding the cases. Such decisions always involve law-making. It is usually termed as equity legislation.

5. Protection of Rights: The judiciary has the supreme responsibility to safeguard the rights of the people. A citizen has the right to seek the protection of the judiciary in case his rights are violated or threatened to be violated by the government or by private organizations or fellow citizens. In all such cases, it becomes the responsibility of the judiciary to protect his rights of the people.

6. Guardian of the Constitution:
The judiciary acts as the guardian of the Constitution. The Constitution is the supreme law of the land and it is the responsibility of the judiciary to interpret and protect it. For this purpose the judiciary can conduct judicial review over any law for determining as to whether or not it is in accordance with the letter and spirit of the constitution. In case any law is found ultra vires (unconstitutional), it is rejected by the judiciary and it becomes invalid for future. This power of the court is called the power of judicial review.

7. Power to get its Decisions and Judgments enforced:
The judiciary has the power not only to deliver judgments and decide disputes, but also to get these enforced. It can direct the executive to carry out its decisions. It can summon any person and directly know the truth from him.

In case any person is held:

(i) Guilty of not following any decision of the court, or

(ii) Of acting against the direction of the court, or

(iii) Misleading the court, or

(iv) Of not appearing before the court in a case being heard by it, the Court has the power to punish the person for the contempt of court.

8. Special Role in a Federation:
In a federal system, the judiciary has to perform an additionally important role as the guardian of the constitution and the arbiter of disputes between the centre and states. It acts as an independent and impartial umpire between the central government and state governments as well as among the states. All legal centre-state disputes are settled by the judiciary.

9. Running of the Judicial Administration:
The judiciary is not a department of the government. It is independent of both the legislature and the executive. It is a separate and independent organ with its own organization and officials. It has the power to decide the nature of judicial organization in the state. It frames and enforces its own rules.

These govern the recruitment and working of the magistrates and other persons working in the courts. It makes and enforces rules for the orderly and efficient conduct of judicial administration.

10. Advisory Functions:
Very often the courts are given the responsibility to give advisory opinions to the rulers on any legal matter. For example, the President of India the power to refer to the Supreme Court any question of law or fact which is of public importance.

11. To Conduct Judicial Inquiries:
Judges are very often called upon to head Enquiry Commissions constituted to enquire into some serious incidents resulting from the alleged errors or omissions on the part of government or some public servants. Commissions of enquiry headed by a single judge are also sometimes constituted for investigating important and complicated issues and problems.

12. Miscellaneous Functions:
Besides the above major functions, the judiciary also performs several other functions. Some such functions are the appointment of certain local officials of the court, choosing of clerical and other employees. Cases relating to grant of licenses, patents, and copy rights, the appointment of guardians and trustees, the admission of wills, to appoint trustees to look after the property of the minors, to settle the issues of successions of property and rights, issue of administrating the estates of deceased persons, the appointment of receivers, naturalization of aliens, marriage and divorce cases, election petitions and the like.

Through all these functions, the Judiciary plays an important role in each state. It also plays a role in the evolution of Constitution through the exercise of its right to interpret and safeguard it against all legislative and executive excesses.

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6.6 CIVIL AND CRIMINAL JUDICIAL MATTERS

Civil Matters:

Disputes relating to property breach of contracts, wrongs committed in money transactions, minor omissions etc., are categorized as civil wrongs and could be subject to a civil process. In such cases civil suits should be instituted by the aggrieved persons. Courts of law administer justice by considering the nature of the wrong done. Civil wrongs are redressed before civil courts by granting injunctions or by payment of damages or compensation to the aggrieved party. As a matter of fact, every suit should be instituted before the court of lowest jurisdiction. In the civil side the Munsiff's Court is the court of lowest jurisdiction. If the value of the subject matter of the suit is worth rupees one lakh or below, the Munsiff's Court is the competent court to try the suit. If the value exceeds above rupees one lakh the suit should be filed before the Subordinate Judge's Court (Sub Court). An appeal from the decision of the Munsiff court is filed before the District Court. Appeals from the decisions of the Sub Court are filed before the District Court if the subject matter of the suit is valued up to rupees two lakhs. If the value is above rupees two lakhs, the appeal should be filed before the High Court and next to the Supreme Court. An appeal shall lie to the Supreme Court from any judgment, decree or final order in a civil proceeding of a High Court in the territory of India if the High Court certifies-(a) that the case involves a substantial question of law of general importance; and (b) that in the opinion of the High Court the said question needs to be decided by the Supreme Court.

Criminal matters:

A criminal case is one where **a person or** a **company,** (known as 'the defendant' or 'the accused') is accused of committing a criminal offence like **burglary, assault, battery and cases of murder**. Criminal prosecution has generally two streams in India. The first relates to criminal cases which are initiated on the basis of police report or FIRs lodged with the police, whereas the second stream relates to cases that are initiated on the basis of private complaints. In respect of the first stream, prosecution is conducted by the Director of Public Prosecution through public prosecutors. Specifically Section 225 of the CrPC provides that every trial before a Sessions Court shall be conducted by a public prosecutor. In addition to this private parties can also conduct the cases through their own lawyers in respect of private complaints.

What is the difference between a civil and criminal case?

A criminal case is filed by the government and is led by a prosecuting attorney. A civil case is filed by a private party, typically an individual or corporation, **against another individual** or corporation. ... Both involve arguing cases in front of juries presided over by a judge.

6.7 LOK ADALAT - (PEOPLE JUDICIAL)

The concept of LokAdalats stands as a unique contribution of the Indian legal system to world legal jurisprudence. It is an informal system of justice dispensation which has largely succeeded in providing a supplementary forum to litigants for determination and settlement of disputes. Originating from Gandhian principles by Mahatma Gandhi, it has become a major helping hand to courts and is prescribed in Section 89 of the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908 as well.

The advent of Legal Services Authority Act, 1987 further gives a statutory status to these LokAdalats, promoting the constitutional mandate of Article 39-A of the Constitution of India, which directs the state to organize LokAdalats to secure that the operation of the legal system, promotes justice on a basis of equal opportunity . These LokAdalats provide three-fold benefits involving speedy resolution of disputes coupled with reduced costs of litigation and avoiding further appeals, thereby making them the perfect instrument to resolve the heightened burdened on judiciary for disposing cases. In 2018 alone, about 47 lakh cases were disposed of in National LokAdalats, which included about 21 lakh pending cases and 26 lakh pre-litigation cases. Therefore, their efficacy has been a linchpin in reducing excessive litigation.

Keeping in mind their contribution to Indian jurisprudence, the author shall discuss the concept of LokAdalats in the country, their functioning, advantages, places for improvement and their role as functionaries towards access to justice for the poor and downtrodden.

6.8 THE FUNCTIONING OF LOK ADALATS

Level of Organization:
LokAdalats are better known as the people's courts, therefore they need to be available to people on every level of governance. The Legal Services Authority Act, 1987 (Hereafter "*the Act*") prescribes for several levels wherein LokAdalats can be organized, ranging from the lowest courts to the apex court which can take cognizance and organize LokAdalats for effective and speedy justice. The persons residing over these Adalats include serving or retired judicial officials as well as other persons as prescribed by the authority conducting the LokAdalats in the given area.

Jurisdiction:
The jurisdiction of these LokAdalats is parallel to the courts organizing them, therefore it extends to any case or matter which is being heard by that court under its original jurisdiction. Matters with respect to offences not compoundable under law are an exception to this jurisdiction. They cannot be adjudicated in LokAdalats. These courts may also take cognizance of cases as per provisions of the Act for disputes agreed by the parties to be resolved under them or if one of the parties makes an

application to the courts for referring the case to LokAdalats for settlement and the court is *prima facie* satisfied that there are chances of settlement.

Resolution and Award:
After admission of disputes, the LokAdalats proceed to hear the case and dispose of the matter by reaching a settlement or compromise in an expeditious manner. The manner of resolution in LokAdalats is more towards compromise and less towards conclusive determination. In any case, if the parties are unable to reach a compromise and the LokAdalat deems that matter needs more determination, it can refer the matter back to the courts for adjudication.

Eventually once the court is satisfied, it passes an award with respect to the dispute is final and binding on the parties. The award is enforceable as a decree of the civil court and no appeal lies from this award. Therefore, this provision ensures that the award is conclusive and the matter is put to rest once and for all.

Advantages of Lok Adalats:
The reason behind the efficiency of LokAdalats is based on several advantages which it holds over normal courts of law. These factors are responsible for its quick disposal of several disputes. They are:

Procedural Flexibility:
There exist considerable procedural flexibility as major procedural laws such as the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908 or the Indian Evidence Act, 1882 are not strictly enforced. The parties can interact directly through their counsels which are not possible in a regular court of law. This dynamic nature of LokAdalats allows them to conciliate both party interests and pass awards which are acceptable to both parties.

No Court Fees:
There is no court fee payable when a matter is filed in a LokAdalat. If a matter pending in the court of law is referred to the LokAdalat and is settled subsequently, the court fee originally paid in the court on the complaints/petition is also refunded back to the parties.

Final and Binding Award:
Under Section 21 of the Act, the award passed by the LokAdalats stand final and binding. As no appeal lies to this conclusive determination, the cases are put to rest on first instance.

Maintenance of Cordial Relationships:
The main thrust of LokAdalats is on compromise between parties. While conducting the proceedings, a LokAdalat acts as a conciliator and not as an arbitrator. Its role is to persuade the parties to reach a solution and help in reconciling their contesting differences. This encourages consensual arrangements. Therefore, disputes are not only settled but also the cordial

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relations between parties can be retained. Hence, it is a very healthy way of dispute resolution.

Areas for Improvement Within Lok Adalats:
Some areas of improvement whereby the functioning of LokAdalats can be improved are as follows:

Enforceability lies with Civil Court:
The awards passed by the LokAdalats are deemed equivalent to decrees of the civil court. Although, the enforcement of these decrees cannot be carried out by the LokAdalats. This function rests with the civil courts; therefore the parties need to apply for enforcement to execute the award. It is the author's recommendation that these powers to enforce needs to be provided to the LokAdalats itself to ensure that the decisions passed are executed to their finality.

Lack of Criminal Jurisdiction:
The jurisdiction of LokAdalats with respect to criminal disputes is limited to offences which are compoundable under law. This removes crimes such as that of petty theft other small crimes from the purview of LokAdalats. Hence, this should be reviewed to bring petty crimes within the purview of LokAdalats.

State Authority Level:
The LokAdalat's benches would be constituted by the Member Secretary of the State Legal Services Authority. Each bench would comprise of a sitting or retired judicial officer or sitting or retired judge of the High Court and any one or both of- a member from the legal profession; a social worker interested in the implementation of legal services programs or schemes and engaged in the upliftment of the weaker sections.

At High Court Level:
The LokAdalat's benches would be constituted by The Secretary Of The High Court Legel Services Committee with each bench comprising of a sitting or retired judge of the High Court and any one or both of- a member from the legal profession; a social worker interested in the implementation of legal services programs or schemes and engaged in the upliftment of the weaker sections.

At District Level:
The LokAdalat's benches would be constituted by The Secretary of the District Legal Services Authority. Each bench comprising of a sitting or retired judicial officer and any one or both of either a member from the legal profession; and/or a social worker interested in programs and engaged in the upliftment of the weaker sections or a person engaged in Para-legal activities of the area, preferably a woman.

At Taluk Level:
The LokAdalat's benches would be constituted by the Secretary of the Taluk Legal Services Committee, each bench comprising of a sitting or retired judicial officer and any one or both of either a member from the legal profession; and/or a social worker engaged in the upliftment of the weaker sections and interested in the implementation of legal services schemes or programs or a person engaged in Para-legal activities of the area, preferably a woman.

National LokAdalat :
National Level LokAdalats are held for at regular intervals where on a single day LokAdalats are held throughout the country, in all the courts right from the Taluk Levels to the Supreme Court where a huge number of cases are disposed of.

Permanent LokAdalat :
Section 22-B of The Legal Services Authorities Act, 1987 enables the organization of the Permanent LokAdalat. Permanent LokAdalats have been set up as permanent bodies with two members and a chairman for providing a compulsory pre-litigation mechanism for conciliation and settlement of cases relating to Public Utility Services like postal, transport, telegraph, etc. The Permanent LokAdalat gets jurisdiction to decide the dispute, in case the parties fail to reach a settlement, provided, the dispute does not relate to any offense.

6.9 SUMMARY

This lesson explores the structure and functions of judicial system of India. The Indian judicial system follows the common law system based on recorded judicial precedents as inherited from the British colonial legacy. The court system of India comprises the Supreme Court of India, the High Courts and subordinate courts at district, municipal and village levels.

6.10 KEYWORDS

- **Judiciary:** The branch of authority in a country which is concerned with legal system.
- **Lok Adalat:** Alternative dispute resolution mechanism in India.
- **Munsif Court:** Handles minor civil cases on District level.
- **Civil Case:** Civil Law deals with Property, Money, Housing, Divorce, custody of a child in the event of divorce etc.
- **Criminal case:** Deal with serious crimes such as murder, rapes, arson, *robbery, assault etc.*

6.11 UNIT END QUESTIONS.

Descriptive:

i) Write a note on power and functions of judiciary.

ii) Explain the structure and benefits of Lokadalat.

iii) Elaborate structure of Indian judiciary in detail.

iv) Outline the hierarchy of civil and criminal courts in India.

MCQs:

i) Highest judicial forum and final court of appeal under the Constitution of India.

A. Supreme Court.

B. High Court.

C. Civil Court.

D. Lokadalt.

ii) CPC stands for _____

A. Code of Civil Protection.

B. Code of Civil Procedure.

C. Common code of Civil Procedure.

D. Code of Critical Procedure.

iii) LokAdalats stands as a unique contribution of the Indian legal system originating from _____principles.

A. Gandhian.

B. Karl Marks.

C. Robert Owen.

D. Robert Alameda.

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7

PLANNING FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT-I

Unit structure

7.1 Introduction
7.2 Objectives
7.3 Key Concepts
7.4 Definition (Concept) of Planning
7.5 Features of Planning
7.6 Types of Planning.
7.7 Importance of Planning.
7.8 District Planning Machinery
7.9 Design and Functions of District Planning Machinery
7.10 Post 1992 Reforms in District Planning Machinery
7.11 Summary
7.12 Keywords
7.13 Unit End Questions
7.14 References

7.1 INTRODUCTION

As far as India's planning is concern, we cannot forget the contribution of Sir M Visvesvaraya. He was also a great believer in economic planning. In 1934, he authored a book titled 'A Planned Economy for India', which would make him the father of the Planning Commission. He published numerous others on village industrialization, nation building and unemployment. After independence initially The National Planning Committee was being headed by Sir M Visvesvaraya, who however was urged to step down and let former PM Nehru take the spot. Renowned scientist MeghanadSaha argued that planning was a mixture of science and politics, but Visvesvaraya stepped down and Nehru went on to head National Planning Committee. Nearly in last seventy years of our own planning there were big scope but still we call India is a developing nation. India has vast natural and human resources. However, comparing developed nations our national production and consumption is very low. Even today, our country's per capita income is very low. Therefore, balanced development of the country could not take place. Unemployment and semi-unemployment are prevailing in the country. While our progress in the world today is satisfactory, we cannot supply all the people we need. Poverty, ignorance, stereotypes and unequal distribution of wealth are still

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seen today. When all these problems are solved, it is seen as a coordinated approach to development is required. The nation should be able to achieve rapid and balanced development and the main problems should be reduced.

7.2. OBJECTIVES

1) To know the concept of planning.
2) To understand the importance of planning in countries development.
3) To understand the changing nature of the planning process in India.
4) To understand the working method of the District Planning Machinery on local level.
6) To know the changes on District Planning Machinery after 1992.

7.3 KEY CONCEPTS:

Planning:Detailed programme of future courses of action.

District Planning:Detailed programme of future courses of action for District.

Planning Commission:Planning agency of the governmentfor formulationof five-year plans.

7.4. DEFINITION (CONCEPT) OF PLANNING:

Planning has become universal in the 20th century. The views expressed by economists are as follows:

1) According to Dr. Harris, "**Planning is the distribution of resources for the purposes set by the planning authorities in terms of income and cost."**

2) According to Mrs. Yutan, **"In economic planning, the market system is not allowed to function freely.**

3) According to Robbins, **Planning means working and choosing with a specific purpose, promise. Choice is the essence of economic action. "**

4) According to H.D. Dickinson**, "Financial planning is about making important decisions in the economy. All decisions about what and how much to produce, how, where and when to produce, to whom to distribute the product are made by a certain meeting after careful and comprehensive survey of the economy as a whole.".**

5) According to the Planning Board of India, **"Economic planning is a way of matching and utilizing resources for the greater good in the context of a set social objective.**

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As per the above all definition it is observed that, planning has two major components.

That is, i) A sequence of expected objectives to be pursued and
ii) Knowledge of available tools and its distribution.

7.5 FEATURES OF PLANNING

The following features of planning can be deduced from the above definition of planning.

I) Economic survey: to survey the entire economy for which it is planned, the total land and other natural resources of the country, national growth rate, population and population growth rate, agriculture, industry etc. and their condition, Planning is impossible without a comprehensive overview of financial institutions, trade, transportation, etc.

II) Determinate Authority: A definite planner The officer must be an institution. Which the central body will plan for the whole country. The Planning Board of India is one such body.

III) Defined Social Ends: When planning any economy or country, planning cannot be done unless the stated goals are in sight as stated by the Planning Board of India. If the objective is clear, it is possible for the planning board to devise the closest way to achieve it. E.g. Some of the objectives that can be said about India are rapid economic development, elimination of unemployment, eradication of poverty.

IV) Organizing Resources: Based on financial survey It is decided how the resources to be demonstrated can be used for the given objectives in the most economical and efficient manner. Real resources are matched. Capital in the form of money is considered to bring together resources.

V) Conscious Choice of Priorities: Objectives or simple ones is infinite. Considering the resources, it is consciously decided which achievement to take. E.g. It is not possible to start all modern industries in India at once. So first of all, sorting out the basics, some capital and other industries, consumer goods industries, etc. is part of the planning.

VI) Decision of Production: In an unplanned economy, individual producers make decisions about what to produce, how much to do, etc. with the help of a market system. In a planned economy, however, this decision is made by the central authority. Deciding what quantity to produce and where to take it by looking at the order means that the decision has to be made by using machinery and a little labor, by combination of technique or by intermediate technique.

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VII) Considering Distribution: What to produce and Similarly, it is decided how to distribute it. Of course, it is up to the planners to decide how to make this product popular among the people.

VIII) Time-bound Program: For the fulfillment of the set objectives, that is, to maximize the fulfillment of the resources that are produced in order. Planners for each objective

Takes planned periods, E.g. Five years, ten years means every event needs timeliness. Determining the duration is the last feature of planning.
As such, planning means deciding in advance how to proceed for development with the whole economy in mind.

The features of planning based on democratic principles in India are as follows:

I) In India's democratic planning; there are various sectors like private sector, public sector, co-operative sector. These holistic areas are considered in the planning.

II) As there are different sectors of industry, production decisions are taken in a decentralized manner.

III) Attempts are made to control certain items in the market. Most planners try to control the cost of living.

IV) Public participation was necessary in the development of the country after independence. As well as expectations of the people living in exile had increased after independence. Therefore, the views of the people, their suggestions and public participation are taken into account in Indian planning.

V) When India became independent, India's economic condition was very backward. One would think that continuous treatment like planning would be beneficial for growing population, backward farming, outdated production techniques, poverty, ignorance etc.

7.6 TYPES OF PLANNING

7.6.1 CENTRALIZED AND DECENTRALIZED PLANNING:

Centralized planning:
Under centralized planning, the entire planning process is under a central planning authority. The authority formulates a central plan, fixes objectives, targets, and priorities for every sector of the economy. The principle problems of the economy – what and how much to produce, how and for whom to be produced etc., are decided by this authority. The entire planning process is based on bureaucratic control and regulation. Naturally, such planning is rigid. There is no economic freedom and all economic activities are directed from above.

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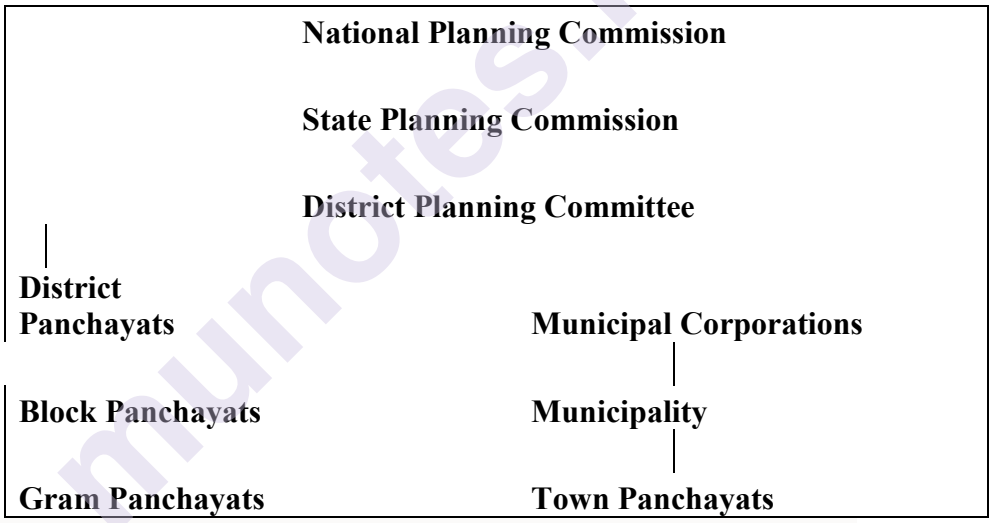
Centralization is said to be a process where the concentration of decision making is in a few hands. All the important decision and actions at the lower level, all subjects and actions at the lower level are subject to the approval of top management. According to Allen, "Centralization" is the systematic and consistent reservation of authority at central points in the organization.

Decentralized planning. (Multi-level planning):
On the other hand, decentralized planning refers to the execution of the plan from the grass roots. Under it, a plan is formulated by the central planning authority in consultation with the different administrative units of the country. The central plan incorporates plans under the central schemes, and plans for the states under a federal set-up. The state plans incorporate district and village level plans. Under decentralized planning, prices of goods and services are determined by the market mechanism despite government control and regulation in certain fields of economic activity.

UNITS INVOLVED IN PLANNING



Framework of Decentralized planning (multi-level planning) in India is as follows:

1. National level Planning: at the national level the Planning Commission was established in 1950. It is the central as well as the supreme authority in the sphere of planning. Take the tasks determining the plan priorities and broad allocation of resources to the different sectors. It also undertakes planning for strategic c the national development council established in 1953, as a link between the union and the state commodities', services required by the whole country and international transactions. It is also interested responsibility of formulation and implementing the programs related with the betterment of the standard of living of the people.

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2. Interstate level: the national development council established in 1953, the link between the Union and the states. The issues involving uniform policy for the whole country are decided by the union government, the Planning Commission and the state governments. The five year plans prepared by the Planning Commission are discussed and ratified by the national development council

3. State level Planning: most states have evolved their planning machinery during last decades. They prepare state plans within the framework of the 5 year plans. The state level planning is more concerned with such activities as agriculture and allied activities and infrastructure provision which include irrigation, power, road, transport and provision of social services.

4. District level Planning: district level planning relates to the preparation of the plans for the development of district, minor and medicine irrigation schemes, small scale industries, agriculture and animal husbandry, provision of social services within the district.

Definitions & Features of multi-level planning:

Definitions:

1. "Planning that is done at more than one level is called multi-level planning."
2. "The planning process in which decision-making and implementation powers are vested in each level of the system is called multi-level planning."
3. Multi-level planning is communicative. So centralized planning is of a prescriptive nature.

Features of Indian Multi Level Planning:

1) Multi-Level planning is planning done on more than one level. In India, the decision-making process of planning is carried out at the national, state and district levels. The features of Indian planning can be summarized as follows

2) Planning at more than one level: The word 'multiple' in multi-level planning has many meanings, meaning that planning in India is not done at the central level only. So it is also done at the state, district level. At central, state and district level An independent mechanism of planning exists.

3) India methods planning: According to Western democratic ideology, planning and dictatorship are two sides of the same coin. In India, there is a golden mean between planning and democracy. Democratic decentralization in the planning process through multi-level planning is political in nature and decentralized or multi-level planning is economic in nature.

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4) **Decentralized planning:** Mixed and beautiful decentralized planning is called multi-level planning. This is because in this process, the power to make planning decisions is decentralized. Planning systems set up at various levels are empowered to make their own planning and development decisions.

5) **Participatory Planning:** In multi-level planning, people from all walks of life are involved in the planning process. Local to local people Being aware of the issues, they are aware of which issues to prioritize in terms of development and can be used in more effective planning.

6) **Regional Planning:** Regional planning is a basic concept of multi-level planning. Geographical expansion of areas to be undertaken for effective planning should be limited. The planning board has given an area of 9000 sq. Km to a development group. Should not exceed, it is recommended. The concept of regional planning in India was gradually evolving. If the area of planning is limited, more effective planning can be done.

7) **Planning through exchange of views:** Multi-level planning is resolved through discussions with the leadership at national, regional and local levels and other influential groups.

7.6.2. Perspective Planning and Annual Planning:

Perspective planning:
Perspective planning refers to long-term planning in which long range targets are set in advance for a period of 15, 20, or 25 years. A perspective plan, however, does not imply one plan for the entire period of 15 or 20 years. In reality, the broader objectives and targets are to be achieved within the specified period of time by dividing the perspective plan into several short-period plans of 4, 5 or 6 years.

Annual planning:
An annual plan is an operational plan that indicates specific goals and objectives for a particular program or programs within a specific timeframe (usually one year). It often includes a detailed plan outlining which activities will be accomplished, by when and by whom. Not only this, a five year plan is further broken up into annual plans so that each annual plan fits into the broad framework of the five-year plan. Plans of either kind are further divided into regional and sectorial plans. Regional plans pertain to regions, districts and localities and sectorial plans pertain to plans for agriculture, industry, foreign trade etc.

The need for multi-level planning:
For a continental country like India, multi-level planning is not only necessary but desirable. In a continental country like India, the problems and needs of different geographical regions are different. Therefore, the problems of development and progress of the country cannot be solved by centralized or one-tier planning. Therefore, multi-level planning is

necessary in theory as well as in practice. The requirements for multi-level planning are as follows.

1) Decentralization of Rights:
After India adopted a democratic system of government, decentralization of power and rights has been done through Panchayat Raj Institutions and multi-level planning formula has been adopted for economic and planning matters. Because the concept of economic democracy can be achieved through multi-level planning.

2) Easy to collect and analyze information:
Success Scheme Accurate information is required. For this, the government system collects various types of information and statistics, based on that information and statistics, the direction and objectives and programs of planning are determined. But if the available information is wrong, the statistics are fraudulent, then the decisions made on their basis are also wrong. In a geographically diverse country like India, collecting information and statistics is extremely difficult and costly. Even so, accurate information

Not sure if it would be collected, the two appeared in the five-year plan. After 1960, decentralized planning was adopted and the necessary information and statistics were collected with the participation of local people. As a result, more accurate and less costly information and statistics became available.

3) People's participation in the planning process:
Democratic decentralization to the Panchayat Raj system. It is called. Responsibility for development programs was delegated to local leadership at village, development group and district level. So local to local leadership

They also have the ability to determine how the area should be developed, what programs should be prioritized, and how much money should be spent on which programs, as they have a more accurate knowledge of the problems and the area. From this came the idea of decentralized planning.

4) Adequate use of local resources:
Local leadership is better aware of locally available resources and manpower than national level planners. Their knowledge can be leveraged in the planning process and development can be accelerated by making more efficient use of resources.

5) Reducing regional imbalances:
Development imbalances are a serious problem in India. For example, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Punjab, Kerala are developed states. Some states like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Assam etc. are backward. Democratic decentralization can reduce regional imbalances through multi-level planning.

7.7 IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING

All countries in the world need planning. The world is rich or poor. Be it capitalist or socialist or mixed economy or even open economy. At present, planning has become a necessity for every country. Today is the age of planning. Importance of planning is as follows.

1) Elimination of defects in the capitalist economy: Planning is required to eliminate the defects in the capitalist economy such as economic inequality, financial monopoly, exploitation of consumers etc. Because in planning, the government has control over production and distribution.

2) Balanced Development: In a developing economy, there is scope for development of only a few regions and industries. Investments are made in areas where profits are made. Other regions do not develop as a result. So there is a possibility of unbalanced development. But balanced development can be achieved through planning by eliminating such imbalances.

3) Proper use of resources: The natural resources of developing countries are not used adequately. As a result, there is no rapid growth (of the economy). Planning is needed for the rapid development of a developing economy.

4) Increase in employment: Unemployment is high in developing countries. Planning is required to increase employment by setting up new industries.

5) Economic Stability: In developing countries, economic stability is sought through job creation and employment is created through planning.

6) Population growth: In developing countries the problem of population growth is very serious. Due to overpopulation, there is a constant shortage of goods and services. There is a constant imbalance between demand and supply. Therefore, planning is required to increase the production of various commodities as well as their equitable distribution.

7.8 DESIGN AND FUNCTIONS OF DISTRICT PLANNING MACHINERY

District is the basic regional component of the administrative system of India. In the multi-level planning process, the planning that is done for the development of the district is called district planning. Explaining the concept of district planning, the planning board had said that "district planning is the process of achieving community development in the district by making adequate use of the natural resources and manpower available in the regional area of the district." And manpower is reviewed. District development needs of the district are determined. Development

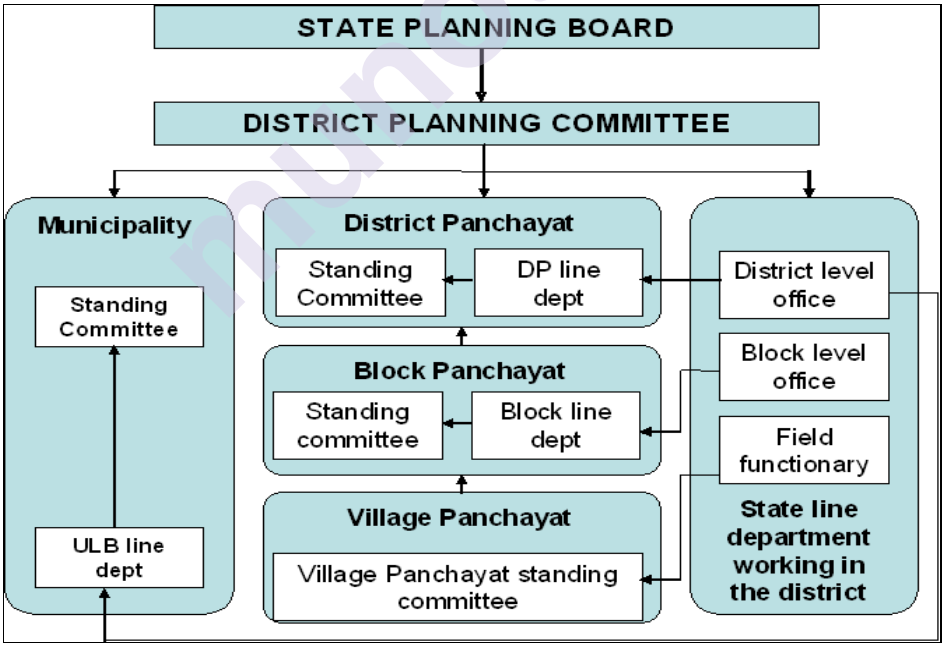
priorities are determined. Resources are matched and development objectives are sought to be achieved within the stipulated period. Decisions regarding the planning and development process of the district are taken by the people's representatives and its administrative machinery. Thus in the planning process at the district level both decision making and execution of decisions are done.

District planning is in fact the planning of the talukas of the district. That is, a development plan is prepared in all the talukas which are sub-components of the district and the overall planning for the development of all the talukas is called district planning.

The developmental needs of the entire district are considered and coordination is established in the development plan of the talukas accordingly. A District Planning Cell has been set up in each district to carry out this responsibility. This department is a group of experts working under the guidance of the District Planning Officer. It includes economists, statisticians and geographers. This department prepares the development plan of the taluka in collaboration with the group development officers of the PanchayatSamiti. District development plans based on all taluka development plans

The plan is prepared and submitted to the District Planning Committee.

Designdistrict Planning Committee:



Composition of District Planning Committee:

The DPC is generally composed of elected members of the local bodies within the district, both rural and urban, as well as some nominated members. The number of members varies with the population size of the districts. The ratio of members from Panchayats and ULBs is based on the

ratio in which the population of the district is divided between rural and urban areas. The District Planning Committee will have a minimum of 30 members and a maximum of 50 members.30 members for a district with a population of up to 20 lakhs. 40 members for a district with a population of 20 to 30 lakhs. For a district with a population of over 30 lakhs, there will be 50 members.

The DPCs are to have at least four-fifths elected members as per Article 243 ZD. Members should be elected by, and from amongst, the elected members of the Panchayat at the district level and of the Municipalities in the district in proportion to the ratio between the population of the rural areas and of the urban areas in the district. The actual pattern, however, varies across states. Nominated members usually represent the State & Central Government agencies (including line departments). A larger proportion of nominated members could imply greater interference and control in DPC functioning by the State and Central administration. This in effect erodes the participative nature of the Committee, reducing it to just another arm of the State administration. It is therefore not desirable that the proportion of nominated members increase beyond the constitutionally stipulated limit.

District Planning Committee consisted of:

The district planning committee are generally headed by the designated minister of the district as chairman and included

1. All elected members of the LokSabha and the legislative assembly, elected from the district.
2. All members of the RajyaSabha and this state legislative council residing in the district.
3. The president and chairman of 3 subject committees of ZilaParishad; as well as two Sabapathy of the PanchayatSamiti within this district to represent the Panchayat Raj.
4. Representative of the municipal corporations and municipal council in the district:
5. Representative of the district cooperative bank, the lead bank for the district, the land Development Bank, the regional development corporations, the Maharashtra state khadi and village industries board etc.
6. Officials such as the divisional commissioner who is the vice for mission object counselling, the chief executive officer of ZilaParishadand the collector of the district. The collector is the member secretary of the district planning committee and is assisted by district planning officer
7. Thirteen non official members nominated by government.

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The main duties and function of District Planning Office are as follows:

1. To convene meetings of the District Planning Boards at least once in two months and to pursue the recommendations of such meetings with the concerned Departments of the State Government and other agencies;
2. To prepare District Annual Plans for the districts and to place the same before the District Planning Boards for consideration before submission to Government;
3. To monitor the implementation of various plan schemes in the districts in general, to identify the limiting factors in the implementation of plan schemes and to place the matter before the District Planning Boards and State Government with specific suggestions for ensuring speedy and efficient implementation of plan schemes;
4. To compile and consolidate quarterly progress reports of district-level plan schemes hitherto done by the District Statistical Officers, to place such consolidated reports before the District Planning Boards for review and then to finalise the consolidated quarterly progress reports of such district-level plan schemes for submission to Government in the month following each quarter. Quarterly progress reports may be obtained from the District Heads of Development Departments, who may also furnish such other information and materials as may be necessary for compilation of the reports;
5. To take up such other activities as may be assigned to them from time to time by the District Planning Boards or by the Government;
6. To perform all other functions as assigned to them by Government; and
7. To ensure co-ordination among all the District heads of Development Departments in the formulation and implementation of plan schemes.

7.10 POST 1992 REFORMS IN DISTRICT PLANNING MACHINERY

In the 1950s and 1960s, India had centralized planning. The planning mechanism was monolithic. The Planning Board was established on March 15, 1950. The first two five-year plans were prepared only at the central level. The rulers later realized that the states should be involved in the planning decision-making process. The National Development Council was established on 12 August 1950 for this purpose. The development needs of different states of the country are different. With this in mind, the third Five Year Plan was divided into Central Plan and State Plans. Since the needs of each state are different, it was decided that the needs of the states should be prepared by the states themselves. Accordingly, he directed the state governments to set up a planning mechanism.

Accordingly, a state level planning system was established in 1964 and two tier planning was introduced instead of one tier planning. This concept led to the need for multi-level planning, which led to a decentralized or multi-level planning process.

During Prime Minister P.V. NarasimhaRao's tenure, in September 1991, he introduced the Constitution Amendment Bill in the LokSabha. The bill was passed by the LokSabha on December 22, 1992, and by the RajyaSabha on December 22, 1992. The law came into force on April 24, 1993. Article 243 to Article 243 (o) of the Panchayat Raj system is provided in Article 243 of the Constitution of India. As per this Act, the 11th Appendix has been added to the Indian Parliament. Accordingly, planning has been done at village, taluka and district level.

1) **Three-tier Panchayat Raj:** As per the 73rd Amendment, every component in the state planning has been done for rural development at taluka and district level. Panchayat Raj Institutions have been formed.
2) **Gram Sabha:** At the village level, Gram Sabha has been formed in 1992 + and the village plans and programs have been planned. Section 243 (a) provides for the formation and powers of the Gram Sabha.
3) **Structure of Panchayats:** Panchayats have been established in Section 243 (a) to facilitate and facilitate the planning of rural development. Gram Panchayats are recognized as the lowest level at the village level. This is the planning of the whole village and the area It is done by the Gram Panchayat.
4) **Reservation system:** As per 243 (d) of the Constitution of India, for the overall development of the rural community in the Panchayat State institutions, provision has been made to reserve seats for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes in proportion to the population.

As per the 73rd Amendment, the responsibility of district planning and development was handed over to Panchayat Raj Institutions. Accordingly, District Planning and Development Committees were dismissed in the year 2000. In their place, a district planning committee with a majority of people's representatives has been set up. To consolidate the plans prepared by the Panchayats and Municipalities of the district and to prepare a development plan for the entire district

7.11 SUMMARY

The Planning Board was established on 15th March 1950 in post-independence India. The planning process was implemented at national, inter-state, state and district levels with emphasis on democratic decentralization. By adopting a multi-level planning process, the district

planning machinery was created in the same way as the national planning and state planning machinery.

The system at every level was given autonomy, freedom of decision and adequate financial support. The district is the basic regional component of the administrative machinery in India. Similarly, the district planning system has been included in the development process.

7.12 KEYWORDS

Decentralization,
Gram Sabha,
Amendment

7.13 UNIT END QUESTIONS

Descriptive:

1. Explain the concept and various types of Indian planning.
2. Explain the features of multi-level planning.
3. Write notes
   i) Formation of District Planning Committee.
   ii) Planning for rural development.

MCQs:

i) The Planning Commission was established in the year
   a) 1947.
   b) 1948.
   c) 1950.
   d) 1965.

ii) Planning Commission was scrapped on
   a) 2015.
   b) 2014.
   c) 2017.
   d) 2012.

iii) The father of Indian planning is
   a) Jawaharlal Nehru.
   b) Mahatma Gandhi.
   c) B.R. Ambedkar.
   d) M. Vishveshshwariah.

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8

PLANNING FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT-II

Unit Structure

8.1 Introduction
8.2 Objectives
8.3 Key Concepts
8.4 Post 1992 Reforms in District Planning Machinery
8.5 Need of People Participation in Rural Planning
8.6 Importance of Public Participation
8.7 Role of Public Participation and Ngos
8.8 Work Done by Ngos
8.9 Limitations of Work of Ngos
8.10 Reasons for Public Participation Depression
8.11 Measures to Increase Public Participation
8.12 Summary
8.13 Keywords
8.14 Unit End Questions
8.15 References

8.1. INTRODUCTION

It is now widely accepted that public participation is very important in a democracy. Political scientists like Amanda had to use the term Participation Culture. It means the meaningful participation of the people in the political process is essential for democracy. We get to see such kind of meaningful participation in the Western world. There is a great deal of political communication between the rulers and the people. This is not the case in developing countries. In this case, Amanda uses the term subject culture. In such a country, many tools of political communication have been developed. But most people are not aware of it. Most of population in our country has traditional approach as far as politics is concern. The people of that country prefer to go after a leader rather than take the initiative and do something. Naturally, this does not mean public participation. Literacy is low. There is a huge gap between the people and the government. According to Amanda, rulers have a different culture.

The government and the administration need to make an effort to involve the people of the developing world in the political process to the maximum extent possible. Increased participation will accelerate the

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development process. Otherwise only government or administrative programs will be a one way process.

8.2 OBJECTIVES

1) To know the post 1992 reforms in district planning machinery.
2) To understand the importance of public participation in rural development planning.
3) To study the measures to increase the barriers to public participation.
4) To study the role of NGOs in the process of rural development.
5) To review the work being done by NGOs.

8.3 KEY CONCEPTS

Public participation: Inclusion of the public in the activities.

Reforms: Make changes in in order to improve it.

NGOs: Non-Government Organization.

8.4 POST 1992 REFORMS IN DISTRICT PLANNING MACHINERY

8.4.1 Introduction:

In the 1950s and 1960s, India had centralized planning. The planning mechanism was monolithic. The Planning Board was established on March 15, 1950. The first two five-year plans were prepared only at the central level. The rulers later realized that the states should be involved in the planning decision-making process. The National Development Council was established on 12 August 1950 for this purpose. The development needs of different states of the country are different. With this in mind, the third Five Year Plan was divided into Central Plan and State Plans. Since the needs of each state are different, it was decided that the needs of the states should be prepared by the states themselves. Accordingly, he directed the state governments to set up a planning mechanism. Accordingly, a state level planning system was established in 1964 and two tier planning was introduced instead of one tier planning. This concept led to the need for multi-level planning, which led to a decentralized or multi-level planning process.

During Prime Minister P.V. NarasimhaRao's tenure, in September 1991, he introduced the Constitution Amendment Bill in the LokSabha. The bill was passed by the LokSabha on December 22, 1992, and by the RajyaSabha on December 22, 1992. The law came into force on April 24, 1993. Article 243 to Article 243 (o) of the Panchayat Raj system is provided in Article 243 of the Constitution of India. As per this Act, the

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11th Appendix has been added to the Indian Parliament. Accordingly, planning has been done at village, taluka and district level.
8.4.2.73rd Constitutional Amendment

1) Three-tier Panchayat Raj: As per the 73rd Amendment, every component in the state planning has been done for rural development at taluka and district level. Panchayat Raj Institutions have been formed.

2) Gram Sabha: At the village level, Gram Sabha has been formed in 1992 + and the village plans and programs have been planned. Section 243 (a) provides for the formation and powers of the Gram Sabha.

3) Structure of Panchayats: Panchayats have been established in Section 243 (a) to facilitate and facilitate the planning of rural development. Gram Panchayats are recognized as the lowest level at the village level. This is the planning of the whole village and the area
It is done by the Gram Panchayat.

4) Reservation system: As per 243 (d) of the Constitution of India, for the overall development of the rural community in the Panchayat State institutions, provision has been made to reserve seats for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes in proportion to the population.

As per the 73rd Amendment, the responsibility of district planning and development was handed over to Panchayat Raj Institutions. Accordingly, District Planning and Development Committees were dismissed in the year 2000. In their place, a district planning committee with a majority of people's representatives has been set up. To consolidate the plans prepared by the Panchayats and Municipalities of the district and to prepare a development plan for the entire district.

8.4.3 Panchayat level Planning:
The directive principles of state policy mention the village Panchayat which is an elected body at village level. Village, here, roughly corresponds to a revenue village (or a group of revenue villages). The Panchayati Raj System involves a three-tier structure:

- Village-level
- Block-level
- District level.

The first tier at village level is commonly known as Gram Panchayat (village assembly), the second tier at block-level as PanchayatSamiti and the third tier at district-level as ZilaParishad.

According to the provisions of the Panchayats Act 1996 the election to the village Panchyat is held at an interval of 5 years where there is proportionate seat reservation for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and not less than one-third seats reserved for women.

Through the Constitution Amendment Act 1992 the Panchayat (also called Gram Sabha) has been authorized to look after the preparation and implementation of plans for economic development and social justice on an illustrative list of 29 subjects. The respective state has been given discretionary powers to prescribe powers and functions to the Gram Sabha to act as an institution of self-government.

It has also been advised to constitute a District Planning Committee to consolidate the plans prepared by the Panchayats and Municipalities and prepare an integrated development plan for the district as a whole. It has also been directed to constitute a State Finance Commission (SFC) to review every five years, the financial position of Panchayats and to make recommendations about the principle governing the distribution of revenues between the state and the Panchayats, and determination of the grants-in-aid to the Panchayats from the Consolidated Funds of the State.

The implementation of the plan at the Panchayat-level is the responsibility of the Village Development Officer (VDO) and the secretary and is supervised by the Gram Sabha which is headed by the Gram Pradhan. Under the existing provisions, funds for the Gram Sabha (Village Panchayat) are directly being allocated from the center to execute rural development programmes like IRDP, JRY etc.

The Panchayat has also been entrusted with the responsibility for the promotion of agriculture, rural industries, provision of medical relief, maternity, women and child welfare, maintaining common grazing grounds, village roads, tanks, wells, sanitation and execution of other socio-economic programmes.

In some places, they are also authorized to supervise primary education and collect land revenue. Presently, Gram Panchayats are involved in the identification of beneficiaries in antipoverty programmes.

The new status accorded to the Panchayats by the Constitution has raised high hopes and expectations among the elected representatives and the rural folk at large. But owing to the political complexions of the governments in the Indian states, the reluctance of the state-level political and administrative functionaries to part with power and authority, and some genuine financial and economic difficulties, the progress in operation has been somewhat slow and halting.

It has been found that elected representatives of Panchayat Raj Institutions are largely unaware of the political and economic dimensions of development issues and lack planning and managerial skills. This is particularly true of women elected representatives, who are performing their duties under some severe constraints of different kinds.

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8.5 NEED OF PEOPLE PARTICIPATION IN RURAL PLANNING

The people in general comprise the target population, the clientele, the beneficiaries, the men and women, the old and the young, the formal and informal leaders in the community, people of different segments and strata of the community, depending upon the specific development programs and activities.

People's participation, in a broader sense, means their total involvement with development agencies in deciding the programs and activities, fixing up of priorities, taking initiative and carrying out the projects as partners by the contribution of their ideas, interest, material, money, labour and time. The scope of people's participation depends upon the nature of the activity, the duration of its execution, its technical nature, the clientele it covers, whether it is an individual project or concerns the total or some segments of the community, its location, the amount of funds it involves and, above all, what the development agency stipulates about the kind of participation at different stages of activity and the quantity and quality of participation it expects from the people.

Rural development programs comprise: agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation, rural industries, rural engineering consisting of minor irrigation, roads, buildings, health and sanitation including family welfare, family planning, women's welfare, child care and nutrition, education including adult-education/social education and adult literacy, youth welfare and community organization. In each of these areas of development, there are several programs, schemes and activities which are additive, expanding and tapering off, covering the total community, some segments, or specific target populations such as small and marginal farmers, artisans, women and, in general, people designated as weaker sections—the people below the poverty line. The programs or the activities, by their nature, determine or limit the scope, shape and manner of people's participation.

8.5.1 The development programs could be classified into three broad categories:

1. Individual-based where-in the target or the beneficiary is the individual and the participation is restricted to the individual (e.g. agriculture, livestock, poultry, family planning, nutrition, adult literary)

2. Community based the projects or programs that cover the total community or some segments of the community, e.g. irrigation, plant protection, contour bunding, roads, buildings, schools, community centers, midday meal programs, environmental sanitation and activities of community—wide nature) and

3. Individual-cum-community based programs. Some of the programs mentioned above, fall both under individual and community categories. Such programs cannot be successfully initiated and accomplished without the response and support from the individuals and the community at large.
In view of the nature of rural development programs, most of them initiated by the development agencies, the participation of people could be as diverse as follows: — responding to the programmer, accepting the idea, the process and adopting the technology and innovations. — Extending moral support — Participation in decision making, cooperating in implementation — Contribution of money, material and labour — Taking initiative, mobilizing people and resources, and — Assuming leadership and ownership of projects People's participation in rural development is an educational process. It is a training for development involving people in the projects, making them their own. It is to create a sense of awareness, a sense of participation, a sense of belonging, a sense of possession and ownership. It is to develop self-reliance, self-confidence, competence and managerial capacity. It is to train people to take initiative, accomplish and sustain their activities. It is to build up and re-invigorate communities and generate social action. It is to enable people to discover their strength, increase their aspiration level, mobilize and channelize their resources tor productive purposes. Participation is bringing people to the core from the periphery, to activeness from passiveness, and to be thinkers, decision makers, doers and implementers from acceptors, In the ultimate sense, the whole purpose and process of people's participation is Human Resource Development (HRD)—the development of human and inner material resources, with stimulus and support external to the community.

8.5.2. Why Should People Participate?:

There is a body of philosophy and a set of assumptions behind people's participation in rural development. We may briefly look into them.

1. The whole philosophy of rural development is based on one very simple and apparent assumption that the government machinery, however, big and efficient it might be, is grossly inadequate by itself to achieve the economic and social revolution needed for ensuring a better and richer life for the vast masses of humanity living in the rural areas. The rural development personnel were to function merely as 'catalytic agents'. The idea was that programs started as a government program with people's participation should gradually and eventually shape itself into a people's program with government's participation.

2. Communities can develop their own capacity to deal with their problems, (we assume that people do want and can change).

3. People participate in giving direction to social change in their communities. Change which is brought about by sharing of an effort and social participation, possesses democratic vitality and is also realistic. Self-imposed changes have permanence as compared to those imposed from outside and above.

4. Holistic approach is better than fragmented approach, because the life of a community is itself a whole and any attempt to tackle one aspect of the whole is bound to affect others.

5. People must learn participative skills in democracy because, unless they themselves share responsibilities and participate in fulfilling them, they do not strengthen the democratic structure of their society. Democracy will weaken, if not perish, unless the supporting institutions are created. The basic plank of community development is the growth of the democratic idea. Democracy does not function unless there is a decentralization of power to be shared very widely at various levels of the social strata.

6. People need help in solving their new problems. External help provides stimulus to inner resources of the community. Communities are like infants who need a prop while they learn to walk. This is the rationale for agency functioning and agency support.

7. The tendency of sub-groups, developing themselves as separate entities inside a community, produces social tension and has, therefore, to be channelized. Their energies have to be diverted to activities of common interest.

8. The barriers that prevent active participation by individuals in the direction of social change inhibit personal development. The process of community development is, therefore, to be so organized that the community functions for the good of the individual and the growth of the community. The communities have to be so organized that they promote the growth of individuals.

9. The process of urbanization has destroyed the feeling of belonging to a community and it is necessary to revive this feeling in rural areas where the masses of agricultural populations of the developing countries dwell. The contractual relations of an urban society do not work well in a rural society. The problem of developing and maintaining common and shared values, which form the basis for cohesion in a community, is made vastly more difficult by industrialization

8.6 IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

The place of public participation in the development process is important. Ahmednagar in Maharashtra is famous as such a drought district. Senior social worker Shri. Anna Hazare brought about the development of Ralegan Siddhi through public participation and today Ralegan Siddhi is world famous as an ideal model of rural development. Similarly, the Sarpanch of Hiware Bazar in Ahmednagar district, Shri. PopatraoPawar has also achieved overall development of the village through public participation. With the help of above real examples, the importance of public participation in the development process can be explained as under.

1) To create unity and consciousness in the plan: If there is no participation and cooperation of the people in the political and development process, and then the process seems lifeless. People's participation brings these processes to life. Consciousness is obtained. It also shows the public that there is a sense of belonging in such an event. The people have certain expectations from the nation. If they are to be fruitful, public participation is essential. Therefore, it is seen that such programs have the support and approval of the people. Therefore, instead of emphasizing that something should be imposed by the government, care should be taken for spontaneous participation of the people.

2) Necessary for social change: Modernization of society is an important task in a developing country. But that task is just as difficult. Therefore, political efforts are simply insufficient. Public participation is essential in the reconstruction of the country. By doing so, the people become their own sculptors. She can develop as she wants. Therefore, it is better to involve the public at different stages of development. It should see the participation of the people in formulating and implementing various development programs and plans. So the development program is second to none. You have nothing to do with it. Senior MLA Balwantrai Mehta's committee had also said that the main reason behind the failure of the social development and national expansion plan was the lack of public participation and indifference towards the program. India's first Prime Minister, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, once said, "Governments can do things at their own risk. But if we want to reap the long-term and sustainable fruits of development, the government's efforts and public participation must be balanced." Things like social change in particular are not imposed on the masses. If the people accept the changing values and accept the modern values on their own, then the society develops and progresses in the true sense. More about this source text Source text required for additional translation information

3) For the welfare and prosperity of the people: The concept of development in a developing country is taken in a broad sense and it includes the overall development of life. Therefore, citizens get full opportunity to participate in nation building work. It can be used for development purposes. Public support can be gleaned mainly from local level programs. In such a case, the government should provide financial assistance and use the spontaneous cooperation of the people. Therefore, the public also feels that it is participating in its own development. Public participation has been given a very important place in the new concept of rural development. Accordingly, the administration in the state of Maharashtra has completed rural development programs like Jalaswarajya, HagandariMuktaGaon, SantGadge Baba SwachhtaAbhiyan etc. through public participation.

4) Increases the standard of living of the people: For the overall development of the developing country, the standard of living of the people is expected to increase. The late Rajiv Gandhi had said in his

speech when he was the Prime Minister that at the central level in the country when rural Out of one rupee spent for the poor, only fifteen paisa reaches the rural areas. If people's participation in rural development increases, then the schemes and programs implemented will come to life. If such schemes and programs are successful, people's lives will increase.

8.7 ROLE OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION AND NGOS

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) working in rural areas for development since the post-independence period are called NGOs in Marathi. Their participation in the process of rural development has been officially recognized by the Government. The responsibility of implementing various government schemes and programs has been entrusted to the NGOs. Voluntary organizations are private organizations that operate without expecting any profit, they have no external control, and they are exempted from income tax. Such organizations collect donations, donations, help from the public, get grants and run their own affairs. The members of the NGOs are voluntary participants. Activists interested in social work are members of NGOs. Therefore, the government makes good use of these institutions in development of the society. So in many places such institutions and governments are seen working in collaboration. Such NGOs are more active in developed nations and appear to be cooperating with developing countries. Following way NGOs play role in public participation.

1) Necessary for the protection of democracy: In a democracy, it is necessary to decentralize power. However, the powers of the government are increasing day by day. The question of how to safeguard individual freedom in the face of direct and indirect pressure from the government is on the rise in all countries. At such times, NGOs can work very effectively to protect the civil liberties of democracy.

2) Supplementary Role: In the concept of welfare state, although the scope of work of the state is increasing, the state is also declining. So there are some tasks with the state jurisdiction that NGOs can do. Such works can be a useful complement to the work of the state. E.g. Family planning can be done by the government. In that too, NGOs can do things that the state cannot do. In fact, NGOs can do much to promote the importance of family planning.

3) Control over centralization of power: NGOs can be used to control the growing power of the government. Such institutions motivate the masses to participate as much as possible and hence the masses get political education step by step. Therefore, there should be decentralization of power at the central and provincial levels. But at the same time, this power should be given to NGOs. Thus NGOs have a dual benefit. On the one hand there is decentralization of power, on the other hand They increase public participation.

4) Horizons of new work: As the scope of work of NGOs increases, many daily complaints of the people decrease. Because the work of these institutions reduces the workload on the government. At the same time, since the work of NGOs is voluntary, if it works well, it attracts intelligent people. Through all these processes, these institutions earn the growing trust of the public. It can be used by these organizations for growing work. By doing research on that occasion, new horizons of work begin to be explored. NGOs are seen working on social, economic, educational, health transformation work.

5) Tools of Modernization and Social Transformation: In a developing country like India, there is a great need for social change and modernization. NGOs are a very important tool for this. In India, organizations like BharatsevakSamaj, RashtraSeva Dal, YuvakKranti Dal, BhudanSangh have played an important role. Although his views are different, they are working for social change in their own way.

The government can carry out development programs with the help and cooperation of these organizations. E.g. Dissemination of literacy, eradication of diseases, eradication of superstition, Rotary Club, Lions Club, Giants Club, Women's Circles, Bhajani Circles, Gymnasiums etc. Some organizations like this are seen contributing to the development work. Universities, colleges and other educational institutions can also undertake development programs on their own. E.g. nationally important programs like adult education, rural reconstruction, tree planting, family planning, blood donation are undertaken. Religious institutions such as churches, khalsa are seen at work for education, child welfare, tribal reform programs, and health reform.

8.8 WORK DONE BY NGOS

In developing countries, NGOs are seen performing a variety of tasks. In this

We see NGOs working for disaster relief, development programs, health sector, agriculture, social change, floods, droughts, earthquakes, tsunamis and many more. The work of NGOs can be divided as follows

1) Physical works: This work includes physical works required for nation building and development. Work to build infra-structure like road, irrigation, industrial, electricity seeds, fertilizers, etc. These works have a direct-indirect relationship with the public. There are not many NGOs in India working on roads, bridges and hospitals. However, there are many agricultural organizations. In the wake of the Green Revolution in India

The role of NGOs is huge. His research in the field of agriculture is also important. There are many NGOs working in the field of agriculture in Canada, Europe and Germany.

2) Development of organizations and cultural activities: NGOs focus on cultural activities. This includes fundraising, organizing events, setting up study groups, drama, music, etc. Doctors, engineers, lawyers, traders, etc. from the community come together and undertake cultural activities.

3) Educational Institutions: Volunteers at pre-primary, primary, secondary and college level The work done by the organizations is commendable. In many places these institutes run various educational institutes. The government should recognize their importance and provide adequate financial assistance to these organizations. The functioning of NGOs in different states is different. In the context of Maharashtra, more than 80 colleges are run by private institutions. The work of Gokhale Education Society, RayatShikshanSanstha, and Deccan Education Society is noteworthy. The Education Committee of 1966 has praised the educational work of private institutions. The government alone could not have borne such a huge responsibility for education. NGOs have tried to fulfill that responsibility.

4) Rural Development: Panchayat Raj is the official government body for rural development. But at the same time, it cannot be ignored that many NGOs are helping the government in this work. Otherwise, the entire responsibility of rural development and Panchayat Raj would have fallen on the government alone. In the rural areas, the network of charitable organizations is being woven day by day. They do various things in their own way and do other things. E.g. strive to meet the basic needs of the rural people. To provide educational facilities and pay attention to personal health. Promoting family planning work and convincing the public of its importance.

Panchayat Raj Sanstha cannot do all these works due to various reasons. One of them is that the government does not have enough money for this. Another thing is that the government does not have the hardworking workers required for this work.

8.9 LIMITATIONS OF WORK OF NGOS

There are also some limitations to the work of NGOs in India as follows.

1) **Leadership:** For the success of democracy, it has to be leadership at all levels. There is a huge shortage of this everywhere in India. In the pre-independence and some post-independence period, NGOs had undertaken various forms of work. But in recent times, the service-oriented attitude of NGOs has been disappearing. It seems that everyone is selfish and pursuing power. This tendency is causing great loss to the developer.

2) **Lack of resources:** There is a lot of work that NGOs can do. Especially in the post-independence period, the scope of these works has increased a lot. But at the same time, on the other hand, there is the problem that the money required for growing work is not enough.

Therefore, good quality, administrative skills and professional positions cannot be decided.

3) **Failure to create adequate public participation:** NGOs has failed to generate adequate public participation. In fact, these organizations were expected to exert pressure on the political establishment. Similarly, public grievances were expected to be reduced through these organizations. But that doesn't seem to be happening. NGOs have failed to generate adequate public participation.

4) **Lack of coordination:** Lack of coordination is seen in various NGOs and members of NGOs. Many organizations appear to be working alone. It has no effect on the policy of the government. Such solitary NGOs lack coordination and do not have much impact on national development.

5) **Apparent attitude of work:** Many times voluntary organizations are formed only for publicity or publicity. The real and expected objectives of these organizations are not known to the operators of these organizations. Such organizations are run only for show and for some people to walk in the society.

6) **Lack of trained staff:** In many NGOs due to lack of fund and other resources proper and trained staff is not found. It effect on efficiency of the NGOs.

8.10 REASONSOF DEPRESSION IN PUBLIC PARTICIPATION.

Even after 74 years of India's independence, the participation of the people in various government schemes and programs is not sufficient. Villagers feel that the various schemes implemented by the government is duty and task of the government. Approach of political leaders and selfish attitude is main reason of the lack and depression of the peoples participation in governments development projects and campaigns it is happing at the all tiers of the panchayati raj that is, Grampanchayat, PanchayatSamiti, ZillaParishad, Nagarpalika, Municipal Corporation etc. Main causes of the lack of public participation are as under.

1) **Low level of political awareness:** Illiteracy is high among rural people in India. Where now Education is spreading in India. Due to ignorance, people have less political awareness. So there is a lack of public participation.

2) **Consequences of capitalism:** India was ruled by foreigners for a period of 150 years. His It has had a far-reaching effect on Indian society. This belief in the government grew stronger over time, so that there was a feeling of resentment and later anger without feeling affection for the government. The gap between the government and the people was widening day by day.

3) **Habit of paralysis:** She thinks that all development, everything should be done by the government or someone else and from that the vices like helplessness, paralysis, depression, negligence are increasing and as a result, continuity and sustainable development process is being hampered.

Why People Fail to Participate?:

People's participation, as we have observed earlier, depends upon the social and class structure of the rural community, the patterns and traditions of decision-making and carrying out communal and individual activities, the way people perceive the programs and projects initiated by the development agencies, and people's own ability. Further, and importantly it depends upon what the development agencies expect from the people with respect to participation, the stipulations they make and the manner in which the agencies mobilize, motivate, encourage and facilitate people's participation. People's participation sounds like begging the question. When programs are meant for people, for their benefit, welfare and advantage, the paradox is why people fail to participate. Ignorance and lack of motivation is a factor of none or negligible participation. When matters are of technical nature beyond the understanding and outside the experience of the people, participation is less. People look for immediate and tangible benefits. For instance, the problem of population explosion and, consequently, the need for the family to participate in family planning programs, is a distant cry for the individual or the family. The individual does not feel the urgency of it; its immediacy, and he or she does not visualize the magnitude of the problem, does not see the population explosion within the family and so does not respond. The tendency is to accept a situation as given and live with it. Sometimes, group rivalry, cliques, conflicts within the community, vested interests, conflict in values, and opposition to the programs, resistance to change and poor local leadership are factors as to why people fail to participate. We just cannot blame the people for their poor response or their failure to participate in rural development activities. The responsibility lies equally on the part of the personnel of the development agencies. Centralization of authority weakens popular participation. Effective implementation of rural development programs could not be achieved so long as decision on matters concerning them is taken by a super agency above. A decentralized system, which allows participatory development from below, is necessary for a healthy society. Sometimes, you have to sacrifice the quality in the works (roads, buildings etc.) that are accomplished through people's participation, mostly in terms of labour and unskilled work. We do not question the enthusiasm and good intentions of the planners, administrators and field personnel in rural development but, at the same time, we have to appreciate the fact that people are not ready to tune in to our development programs, our expectations, and targets in terms of their participation. Often, participation sounds like a rare material, ethereal in nature, difficult to grasp, to have a strong grip on, or to secure enough of it and blend it with government initiated programs. Despite limitations, and though poor in quality and quantity, instances of

people's participation abound in number. It provided the impetus to popular enthusiasm, channeled their ideas and energies and brought in an element and sense of integration in rural development activities.

8.11 MEASURES TO INCREASE PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

If development programs are to succeed, the people will not be indifferent. Especially in modern times, the idea of welfare has been accepted in many places. If the idea of democracy is to reach the masses in India, then public participation is essential. For that, further measures have to be considered.

1) **Changes at the organizational level:** The main reason for people's depression is financial Lack of provisions, lack of adequate officers, inadequate civic service centers, and needs to be changed at the organizational level.

2) **Service-oriented organizations:** In the western countries, service-oriented organizations are seen striving for the cooperation and participation of the people. These charitable organizations strengthen democratic governance. In a country like the United States, professional institutes of lawyers, engineers, teachers, doctors are seen carrying out this work. While charitable organizations are dedicated to their business, they will also help in social change through women's circles, youth circles, various clubs, etc. They will help in increasing the participation of citizens in development work.

3) **To provide training to the citizens:** to increase public participation and speed up the development process In order to grow, people need to be given special training on how to participate in development work. Exhibitions, museums, rural dance songs, booklets, maps can be used.

8.12 SUMMARY

Planning is of paramount importance in developing countries. In a democratic country like India, people's participation is needed in the planning and development process. People need to realize that development works are for the people. At the same time, if the concept of sustainable development is to be achieved, there is a need for public participation in the development and planning process as well as in NGOs. In the pre-independence and post-independence period, NGOs have always played an important role in rural development. There is no doubt that public participation and the role of NGOs will be important in the process of rural development.

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8.13 KEYWORDS

1. Planning machinery: Resource for planning something.
2. Decentralized: controlled by several local offices or authorities.

8.14. UNIT END QUESTIONS

Descriptive:

1. Explain the reasons for public participation depression and suggest solutions.
2. Explain the role of NGOs in rural development.
3. Explain the importance of public participation in rural development.

MCQs:

A. Full form of NGO.

1. Non-Government Organization.
2. Non Governing Organization.
3. National governing Organ.
4. National governing Orientation.

B. When did the Planning Board first come into existence in India?

a. 1970.
b. 1947.
c. 1992.
d. 1950.

C. 73rd constitutional Amendment Act passed in…

1. 1970.
2. 1947.
3. 1992.
4. 1950.

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