

C. Administrative Sectors

1. PANCHAYATI RAJ

PANCHAYATI RAJ – A RETROSPECT

The Panchayati Raj is an indigenous and time-honoured concept in our country. The form may vary, but the spirit has always been part of our socio-cultural ethos. Its origin can be traced back to ancient ages where community spirit was the main force not only to keep village communities united but to help them manage local affairs independently. Sir, Charles Metcalfe characterized them as small “republics having nearly everything that they want within themselves”. In the villages the different sections of the community helped and depended on one another and this mutual dependence was reinforced by age-old customs and traditions. Mobility was limited and so were their needs and aspirations. Since most of these village communities were self-sufficient for their day-to-day needs, the system of self-governance helped them remain intact and self-contained. These village bodies were the lines of contact with higher authorities on all matters affecting the villages. Despite many political changes in cities and towns during the medieval period, the system of local government or the panchayats in the villages continued undisrupted¹. The State of Jammu & Kashmir has its own unique history as far as Panchayati Raj is concerned.

THE JAMMU & KASHMIR VILLAGE PANCHAYAT REGULATION ACT, 1935

During the British period, while as in the rest of the country the Panchayati Raj system passed through various phases, in the State of J&K it was only in 1935 when the first Village Panchayat Regulation Act No. 1 was promulgated by the then Maharaja Hari Singh. The preamble of the Act, states, “it is expedient to establish in Jammu & Kashmir State the village panchayats to assist in the administrative, civil and criminal justice and also to manage the sanitation and other common concerns of the village”, it clearly showing that the essence behind the promulgation of this Act was not to promote Panchayati Raj in the State in letter and spirit but to use panchayats as an extended arm of the Government for judicial and civil administration. This Act was limited in its objectives and elitist in nature. There was no semblance of a democratic character. The Act made provisions for the elections of panches numbering 5-7 by simple show of hands. One among the panches was

¹ Aslam M. (1996) ‘Local Self-Government in India: Retrospect and Prospects’ in ‘Role of Local Self-Government in Rural Development, AARRO, New Delhi.

expected to be nominated by the panchayat officer (Wazire-e-Wazarat). Besides, but the panchayat officer was empowered to evolve rules and regulations for the conduct of the election of panches.

This Act also laid down tough qualifications for the voters and for the candidates seeking election to the panchayats². These include that a person seeking election to the Panchayats should:

- ❑ be a hereditary state subject
- ❑ be a resident of a rural area
- ❑ not be insane
- ❑ be not less than 21 years of age
- ❑ be paying at least Rs. 5/- as revenue tax
- ❑ own property worth Rs. 1000/-
- ❑ have an annual income of at least Rs. 700/-
- ❑ be a minimum matriculate or the equivalent thereof.

The State of Jammu & Kashmir at that point of time was in the grip of economic and educational backwardness. Keeping literacy level and economic well-being of the voter as the yardstick for participation in panchayat elections only helped the rural elite owing allegiance to rulers to use these institutions to their advantage.

An analysis of the main functions assigned to the panchayats reveals that out of a total of 58 provisions of the Act, 47 dealt with judicial functions. The non-judicial functions of the panchayat mainly included supervision, construction and maintenance. The supervisory functions mentioned in the Act were related to supervision of village schools, supervision of village officials and labourers, etc., and supervision of public lands and buildings. The basic idea behind the supervision was to maintain some vigilance over village affairs on behalf of the government. Very little attention was paid to non-judicial functions which, among others, included improvement of public health, and maintenance of public wells and tanks³.

One of the interesting features of this Act was that the Department of Revenue was given the responsibility for establishing panchayats. In 1936, a Department of

2 Riyaz Punjabi (1990) "Panchayati Raj in Kashmir Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow" in Panchayati Raj in J&K ed. George Mathew, ISS, New Delhi.

3 Aslam M. (1999) Panchayati Raj in J&K Retrospects and Prospects" in Restoration of Panchayats in Jammu & Kashmir, ed. Joya Roy, ISS, New Delhi.

Panchayat and Rural Development was established and affiliated to the Revenue Department. The main function of this department was to supervise the functioning of the panchayats apart from providing necessary funds. It was under this department that “Dehat-Sudhar Committees” (Village Reforms Committees) were organized, ostensibly to advise panchayats but in effect to keep them under the control of the ruling class. Due to the non-democratic nature of the panchayats, people seemed to lose faith in the panchayat institutions and, as a result, the Act remained more or less dysfunctional.

AMENDED ACT 1941

The Act of 1935 was amended in 1941. The amended regulation covered a wide range of subjects. The Panchayats were delegated the power to maintain all public roads, movable and immovable public properties and other structures in the villages. They were also given powers to levy taxes and generate resources for the development of the village, besides constructing and maintaining public roads, bridges, wells, ponds, water reservoirs, etc. Regulation of sites of slaughter houses and examining and inspecting weights and measures was also brought under the Panchayat’s control.

Under this Act a person was disqualified from seeking election to Panchayat if:

- ❑ He were a full-time Government employee,
- ❑ A competent court had declared him insolvent,
- ❑ He were convicted of any offence and subjected to any punishment by a criminal court.

POST – 1947 SCENARIO

The post-1947 period witnessed many new developments in the State. The National Conference came to power in March 1948. At that point of time, the development scenario of the State was characterized by economic stagnation and educational backwardness. The Jagirdars and Chakdars had accumulated large chunks of land through manipulation. The majority of the people were impoverished. In view of this situation, abolition of landlordism became the top priority of the Government. It resulted in the introduction of Big Landed Estates Abolition Act, 1950. This was a landmark in the history of J&K as it was the first experiment of its kind in land reforms in the subcontinent. The introduction of this Act brought about appreciable changes in the socio-economic scenario of the State. In quantitative terms, 4.5 lakh acres of land held in excess of 22.7 acres (excluding orchids) were expropriated from as many as 9000-odd land owners. Out of this ownership, rights of over 2.31

lakh acres of land were transferred to the cultivating peasants. All these measures created a conducive environment for reactivation of the Panchayati Raj system in reshaping the rural economy in the State⁴. Realizing this, the Government replaced the Panchayat Act of 1935 (as amended in 1941) with Act-V of Samvat 2008 (corresponding to year 1951). The main features of this Act were:

- ❑ Majority of the panchayat members were to be elected on the basis of adult franchise;
- ❑ Panchayats were to perform administration, developmental, civic and judicial functions;
- ❑ Introduction of concept of Halqa Panchayat comprising 5-7 villages;
- ❑ Introduction of panchayat board at each Tehsil; and
- ❑ Identification of sources of revenue for panchayats.

The Act provided for administrative, developmental, civic and judicial functions by the Panchayat. “By March 1951, 540 Panchayats had been established in the State. By March 1954 this figure has risen to 751, covering 4,774 villages”⁵.

On the one hand the Government was busy materializing the objectives set for democratic decentralization through Panchayati Raj; on the other hand, the State Government joined rest of the country in introducing community development programme throughout the State in 1952. Local self-government entered a long period of dormancy before it could be revived.

THE JAMMU AND KASHMIR VILLAGE PANCHAYAT ACT – 1958

The introduction of community development programme (CDP) and the National Extension Services (NES) occupied the full attention of the Central and the State Governments during most of the 1950s. Towards the end of the decade, it was realized that the expectations raised by these programmes were not getting fulfilled and that one of the main reasons was lack of people’s participation in the planning and execution of these development schemes. At the national level, it was the study team on Community Development and National Extension Services headed by Balwant Rai Mehta (1957) which expressed concern about the lack of people’s participation and made a strong plea for devolution of power to lower levels through

4 Aslam M. “Land Reform in J&K”, “Social Scientists”, Volume 6 No. 4, November, 1977.

5 Sultan Mohammad (1995) “Jammu & Kashmir” in Status of Panchayati Raj in the States of India-1994’, ISS, Concept Publishing House, New Delhi.

panchayats. Before the Panchayati Raj system could be introduced in the whole country, the Jammu & Kashmir State took a lead by passing the Jammu & Kashmir Village Panchayat Act of 1958 and repealing the earlier Acts.

This Act of 1958 did not differ much from 1951 Act. Although the Act was passed primarily to make better provisions for the administration of Village Panchayats in J&K State, the manner of its implementation made it open to manipulation by various vested interests. For example, “under this Act any Panch, Sarpanch or Naib-Sarpanch could be removed from office in case his conduct in office was ‘undesirable’ or his removal (was) desirable in the interest of the public”⁶.

“The Act also provided for establishment of ‘Panchayat Adalats’ apparently to decentralize administration of justice The Government could remove any member elected to the Panchayat Adalat if he was found to be either guilty of mis-conduct in the discharge of his duties or incapable of performing any of his duties”⁷.

The Act also talked about the prescribed authority who were to determine the number of Panchs to be elected and/or nominated. The number of Panchs to be fixed from time to time as determined by the competent authority which could have been less than 7 and not more than 11.

In the earlier Acts, the stipulations for the right to vote or to contest elections for the office in the Panchayat had made the power base of the panchayat inevitable preservation of selected beneficiaries of autocratic rulers; in 1958 Act, the removal of Panchs and Sarpanchs by the Government presumably in public interest served as similar performance. Therefore, the story of Panchayati Raj in the State remained more or less the same. No endeavour was made to evaluate the possible problems and shortcomings so that suitable remedial action could have been taken up.

SINGLE-LINE ADMINISTRATION MODEL

The Government introduced an innovative developmental strategy, “the single line administration model” in the mid-1970s. The panchayats as a local institution of self-government remained dysfunctional over a long period of time. Wherever they existed, they were at the village level only without any functional linkages with the developmental institutional structures that existed at the block and district level. It took almost two decades for the State Government to realize that without people’s participation, the developmental process could not achieve desired objectives. The

6 Riyaz Punjabi (1990) Ibid.

7 Sultan Mohammad (1995) pp. 91, Ibid

decentralization of planning process was new upcoming developmental slogan at that point of time. The State Government took a bold step by introducing an innovative concept of 'Single Line Administration', to secure the participation of the people through their representatives in the developmental process. "The twin objectives of the Single Line Administration was to secure a mechanism for developing the planning process at the district level to take full account of the resource endowments the potentialities and needs structure and also to initiate a process of equitable development of various areas within the district"⁸.

The introduction of this innovative developmental strategy in the mid-1970s could not reinvigorate the Panchayati Raj system and in the absence of any linkage to other institutional framework, it remained dormant. Almost no endeavour was made to evaluate the possible problems and shortcomings so that suitable remedial action should have been taken⁹.

However, the implementation of this innovative model led to the realization that "human potential which is available at the grassroots level should be mainstreamed into the movement of development to purvey a sound and strong basis to the democratic structure. It was in this context that the desire to have a sound institutional framework to give a definite and positive role to the community in the matter of self-governance has provided a sense of urgency for restructuring the institutional framework of Panchayati Raj"¹⁰. This realization led to the introduction of Jammu & Kashmir Panchayati Raj Act, 1989.

THE JAMMU & KASHMIR PANCHAYATI RAJ ACT, 1989¹¹

The Jammu & Kashmir Panchayati Raj Act, 1989 was introduced in the J&K assembly in April 1988 and passed in March 1989. The Governor gave his assent to the bill in July 1989.

For the first time an Act was named a "Panchayati Raj Act" rather than a "Village Panchayat Regulation Act". The former implies the promotion of Panchayati Raj in the State (at village, block and district levels) whereas the latter was confined to panchayats at the village level alone. This is certainly a very positive development.

8 Sushma Choudhary (1990) "Does the Bill give power to people? In Panchayati Raj in J&K" George Mathew (Ed.), ISS, Concept Publishing House, New Delhi.

9 Aslam M. (1999) Panchayati Raj in J&K Retrospects and Prospects" in Restoration of Panchayats in Jammu & Kashmir, ed. Joya Roy, ISS, New Delhi.

10 Sushma Chaudhary (1990) Ibid

11 'Panchayati Raj Act – 1989 & Panchayati Raj Rules – 1996' Agriculture & Rural Development Department, J&K Govt.

The preamble of the 1989 Act states: “Whereas it is expedient to promote and develop Panchayati Raj in the State as an instrument of vigorous local self-government to secure effective participation of the people in the decision making process and for over-seeing implementation of development programmes”. The salient features of the Act are:

- a) reduction of voting age from 21 to 18 years;
- b) holding of elections within six months of supersession of a panchayat;
- c) direct election of the Sarpanch (Chairperson);
- d) constitution of Panchayati Adalat (Panchayat Courts) comprising five members who shall be nominated by the prescribed authority out of the panel prepared and recommended by the halqa panchayat;
- e) empowering panchayats to prepare plans and implement schemes for poverty alleviation and employment generation, agriculture and allied activities, rural industrialization, health, universalisation of elementary education, etc.;
- f) no bar on holding elections on party lines.

THREE-TIER MODEL

The Act provides for a three-tier system consisting of halqa panchayat¹², Block Development Council and District Planning and Development Board. In addition, the Act provides for a Panchayati Adalat for every halqa.

HALQA PANCHAYAT

The Act provides for a halqa panchayat for every halqa. The halqa panchayat shall comprise of such number of panches not less than seven and not more than eleven including the Sarpanch as the prescribed authority may fix from time to time. The panches shall be elected from the constituencies delimited by the prescribed authority. While the Naib-Sarpanch shall be elected by the panches of the halqa panchayat from among themselves, the Sarpanch shall be elected directly by the electorate of the halqa panchayat. The halqa panchayat shall continue to function for a period of five years from the date of its constitution. If it is dissolved for any reason before

¹² “Halqa” means the area comprising a village or such contiguous number of villages as may be determined by Government from time to time. Provided that the halqa shall be determined in such a manner that the population of any halqa does not exceed 3,000 in the hilly areas and 4,500 in the plain areas.

this period, elections will be held within six months. A Sarpanch or Naib-Sarpanch can be removed by a vote of no-confidence passed by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the total number of panches of the halqa panchayat.

The other features of the Act in respect of halqa panchayats include:

- If the prescribed authority is of the opinion that women are not adequately represented in the halqa panchayat, it may nominate such number of women to be members thereof, as it may deem fit. Provided further that their number does not exceed 33 per cent of the total number of panches.
- The village level worker (VLW) shall be the Secretary of the halqa panchayat.
- If, in the opinion of the Government, a halqa panchayat is incompetent or persistently makes default in the performance of duties imposed on it by or under the Act, the Government may by notification supersede such a halqa panchayat.

The Act provides for such powers and functions to the halqa panchayat which can enable it to become the cutting edge of all the development efforts, but all this is subject to availability of funds as its disposal. There is hardly any development activity left out which does not fall within the purview of the halqa panchayat.

BLOCK DEVELOPMENT COUNCIL

The Act provides for the constitution of Block Development Councils consisting of:

- (i) a Chairperson,
- (ii) all Sarpanches of halqa panchayats falling within the block, and
- (iii) Chairpersons of Marketing Societies within the jurisdiction of the block.

However, if the prescribed authority is satisfied that women or scheduled castes or any other class are not represented in the Council, it may nominate not more than two persons to be the members of the Block Development Council. The Block Development Officer shall be the Secretary of the Block Development Council.

The main functions of the Block Development Council include construction,

maintenance and supervision of an inter-halqa panchayat communication system. It will also provide administrative and technical guidance to the halqa panchayats and supervise and monitor planning and implementation of various development programmes. The Act proposes to constitute a Block Development Council Fund comprising grants made by the government on per capita basis and revenue assigned by the District Development and Planning Board.

One of the important features of the Block Development Council under the Act is that the chairperson shall be elected by the electoral college comprising elected panches and sarpanches. No member of the State Legislature or Parliament can hold any office in the Block Development Council.

DISTRICT PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT BOARD

Further, the Act provides for the constitution of a District Planning and Development Board (DPDB) comprising:

- (i) Chairpersons of the Block Councils of the District;
- (ii) Members of Parliament representing the area;
- (iii) Members of the State Legislature representing the area;
- (iv) Chairperson of the Town area Committee at the District; and
- (v) President of the Municipal Council (if any)

The chairperson of the DPDB shall be nominated by the Government from amongst the members of the DPDB. The vice-chairperson shall be elected by the members from amongst themselves. The District Development Commissioner shall be the Chief Executive of the Board to be assisted by district level Heads. The main functions of the Board shall be to: (i) consider and guide formulation of development plans for the district and indicate priorities; (ii) review progress and achievements periodically; (iii) formulate and finalize the plan and non-plan budget for the district; (iv) lay down policy guidelines and approve budgets of the Block Development Councils; and (v) undertake special measures for alleviating poverty and employment generation and extending assistance to halqa panchayats in this behalf.

All the development assistance meant for the development of the district will flow through the District Planning and Development Board. The DPDB shall set up committees to handle specialized jobs. The number and manner in which they shall be constituted shall be decided by the DPDB.

PANCHAYATI ADALAT

The idea of Panchayati Adalat is an innovative one, particularly at the grassroots level. As per the provisions of the Act, the Adalat shall comprise five members to be nominated by the government out of the panel prepared and recommended by the halqa panchayat out of its electorate. The person so recommended for a term of five years shall be literate, shall have attained the age of 30 years, not be a Sarpanch or a Panch and not be in the employment of the government or local body or corporation.

The members of a Panchayat Adalat shall elect any member from amongst themselves as the chairperson. The Secretary of the halqa panchayat shall serve as the judicial clerk to the Panchayat Adalat. Every member of the Adalat including chairperson shall be deemed to be a public servant within the meaning of Section 21 of the Ranbir Penal Codes¹³ Samvat 1989 (corresponding to year 1940). The Panchayati Adalat shall not be competent to impose on any person convicted of an offence tried by it, any sentence other than a sentence of fine not exceeding one thousand rupees. The chairperson and members of the Panchayati Adalat will be entitled to a sitting fee as may be decided by the government from time to time. The government may remove the chairman or any member of a Panchayati Adalat after giving him the opportunity of being heard, or after such enquiry as the government may deem necessary if such chairman or member in the opinion of the government has been guilty of misconduct or neglect or refusal to perform or is incapable of performing the functions of the Panchayati Adalat.

JURISDICTION OF PANCHAYATI ADALAT

The Panchayati Adalats enjoy both criminal and civil jurisdictions. The criminal jurisdiction is extensive and covers a substantial range of offences under the Ranbir Penal Code, Samvat 1989 as well as the special statutes. Civil jurisdiction is confined to claims of the value of Rs. 3,000 involving suits for ascertained sums, for damages for breach of contract not effecting immovable property, and compensation for wrongly taking or injuring immovable property. A Panchayati Adalat shall not be competent to impose on any person convicted of an offence tried by it, any sentence other than a sentence of fine not exceeding one thousand rupees. The government is empowered to enhance the jurisdiction in civil cases up to Rs. 2,000.

The constitution of Panchayati Adalat at halqa level is a very welcome development,

¹³ The Ranbir Penal Code is the equivalent of the Indian Penal Code and applies only to J&K State.

provided other measures are taken to make it instrumental. No doubt, these Adalats will provide great respite to the rural poor from running from pillar to post in hostile townships, but it is equally important that they should also provide impartial justice. In order to achieve this, the following questions will have to be addressed

- (i) What measures are envisaged to train Panchayati Adalat members in administering justice according to the law?
- (ii) Is there a need for legal literacy programmes to be organized for the general masses so that they can take full advantage of these Adalats?
- (iii) Is it fair to load the secretary of the halqa with the additional responsibility of secretary of Panchayati Adalat?

PANCHAYAT ELECTIONS

Despite inhospitable security environment and desperate attempts from many to thwart the attempts of the Government to hold Panchayat elections, the State Government succeeded in conducting Panchayat elections during the first quarter of 2001 after a very long gap of 22 years. The election to the 2700 Sarpanch and 20500 Panch constituencies was conducted in a staggered electoral process by the State Election Authority on non-party basis and with a high degree of transparency, impartiality and fairness¹⁴.

The results of the Panchayat elections held present an interesting picture as given in Table III.99.

14 Sadhotra Ajay K. "Panchayats & J&K" National Convention of Panchayati Raj Representatives, 22-23 Dec., 2001, ISS, New Delhi.

Table III.99
Information regarding Panchayat Election J&K, 2001

District	No. of Blocks	No. of Pys.	No. of Sarpanches elected	No. of Sarpanch vacancies	Total No. of Panches to be elected	No. of Panches elected	No. of vacancies of Panches	No. of Pys. Notified by Govt.	No. of Pys. yet to be notified
A. Kashmir Division									
Kupwara	9	224	168	58	1471	915	556	95	129
Baramulla	14	276	162	114	2148	902	1246	93	178
Leh	6	68	68	-	448	448	-	67	1
Kargil	7	65	65	-	453	453	-	65	-
Budgam	8	199	61	138	1444	315	1129	25	174
Srinagar	4	93	67	26	666	247	419	21	72
Anantnag	10	309	251	58	2242	1191	1051	121	188
Pulwama	6	236	202	34	1586	684	902	26	210
TOTAL	64	1470	1042	428	10458	5155	5303	518	952
B. Jammu Division									
Jammu	11	295	294	01	2448	2443	05	295	0
Kathua	08	183	182	01	1394	1391	03	182	1
Poonch	05	115	115	-	1028	1026	02	114	1
Udhampur	12	215	212	03	1840	1792	48	210	5
Doda	14	262	216	29	2004	1698	306	216	46
Rajouri	07	160	160	-	1376	1364	12	160	0
TOTAL	57	1230	1196	34	10090	9714	376	1177	53

Source : Reconstructed from the information received from Directorate of Rural Development, Srinagar/Jammu

The analysis in Table III.99 reveals that there are 1470 panchayats in Kashmir Division against 1230 in Jammu Division. It is very interesting to note that there are 952 Panchayats out of total of 1470 in Kashmir Division against 55 out of 1230 in Jammu Division which are yet to be notified by the Govt. Similarly there are 428 Sarpanch vacancies in Kashmir Division against 34 in Jammu Division. More interestingly, Kashmir Division has 5303 Panch vacancies out of a total of 10458 against 376 out of 10090 in Jammu Division. As such it does not present an encouraging picture particularly for Kashmir Division where more than 50 per cent panch seats are vacant. The Jammu Division seems to be much more comfortably placed.

Table III.100
Number of women elected Sarpanches & Panches (Jammu Division)

District	No. of women elected (Sarpanch)			Total	No. of women elected (Panch)			Total
	SC	ST	Others		SC	ST	Others	
Jammu	-	-	01	01	11	03	28	42
Kathua	-	-	01	01	06	01	16	23
Poonch	-	01	-	01	-	06	07	13
Udhampur	-	-	03	03	05	08	25	38
Doda	-	-	01	01	-	-	26	26
Rajouri	-	-	-	-	03	03	18	24
TOTAL	-	01	06	07	25	21	120	166

Source : Reconstructed from the information received from Directorate of Rural Development, Srinagar/Jammu .

The information in respect of number of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Women candidates returned through elections is available only for Jammu Division (Tables III.100 & III.101).

Table III.101
Number of SC/ST elected Sarpanches & Panches (Jammu Division)

District	No. of Sarpanch elected				No. of Panches elected			
	SC	ST	Others	Total	SC	ST	Others	Total
Jammu	57	14	223	294	682	127	1634	2443
Kathua	11	03	168	182	181	83	1127	1391
Poonch	-	52	63	115	-	425	601	1026
Udhampur	17	24	171	212	270	268	1254	1792
Doda	12	14	190	216	155	164	1379	1698
Rajouri	06	45	109	160	64	465	835	1364
TOTAL	103	152	924	1179	1352	1532	6830	9714

Source : Reconstructed from the information received from Directorate of Rural Development, Srinagar/Jammu.

An analysis of the information given in Table III.100 in respect of Jammu Division reveals that the picture in respect of women candidates elected is quite dismal, ranging from 0.5 per cent in respect of Sarpanches to 1.70 per cent in respect of panches. As far as election of SC/ST candidates is concerned, there are 29.68 per cent of them elected as Panches from SC/ST category against 21 per cent Sarpanches (Table III.101). It makes a strong case for reservation of women and SC/ST in panchayats.

The information collected through informal sources reveals that panchayats are not at all in a comfortable state of affairs on various counts. These, among others, include:

- ❑ A number of panches and sarpanches have become target of militancy and lost their lives, thus spreading a fear psychosis among others.
- ❑ In Kashmir Division more than 50 per cent panch seats are vacant and those in place hardly function.
- ❑ The panchayats as such are starved of funds and development schemes continue to be implemented by departmental functionaries.
- ❑ The devolution and delegation of power and authority to panchayats has not taken place, keeping them in a dysfunctional state of affairs.

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

The Panchayati Raj in Jammu & Kashmir presents a number of challenges inherent in them are the opportunities. These are:

1. *Functional devolution*

There are two major aspects of functional devolution viz., administrative and financial.

- (a) Administrative: The concept of self-governance cannot be understood unless the conflict between the developmental role now performed by the administrative machinery and the role envisaged for panchayats under the State Act is resolved. If panchayats are assigned a developmental role and greater autonomy, it would be necessary to introduce changes in the pattern of field administration. Many statutory powers now exercised by the field level bureaucracy may have to be transferred to the panchayats.
- (b) Financial : Local self-government carries no substance if the panchayats do not have at their command adequate resources to discharge various functions. Autonomy is closely related to economic independence. Panchayats have meagre incomes. No institution of self-government can perform any meaningful activity with such meagre resources. This is all the more necessary for a State like Jammu & Kashmir, where resources are scarce and they have to be spent in such a way, which will create a favourable impact on the development scenario in general and on the quality of life of the people in particular.

2. *Panchayats as Institutions of Local Self-Government*

An analysis of the State Act reveals that panchayats may emerge more as quasi-government institutions rather than instruments of vigorous local self-government. The supersession of halqa panchayat under Section 9 of the Act and removal of the chairperson and members of Panchayati Adalat under Section 52, relegates them to a subordinate position. The question arises as to what the parameters of competency are and why they are left to the opinion of the government. Why not let people or a higher tier of panchayat decide on such matters?

Similarly, not a single member of the District Development Board is directly elected. The government nominates the chairperson while MPs and MLAs are ex-officio members. Others include chairpersons of Block Development Councils, Town Area Committees and Municipal Councils. The impression one gets is that this important tier of Panchayati Raj at the district level is more like an extension of the government machinery than a real local self-government institution. To add credence to the institution of local self-government a provision can be made for the conduct of the election of the chairperson of DPDB.

3. *Provision of nomination by the State Government*

One fails to understand the necessity of retaining nomination quotas in the Act. Reservation of seats for marginalized groups has proved very successful throughout the country. If this is local self-government, why not leave it to the wisdom of the people to choose their representatives rather than impose government-nominated people?

4. *Multiple role of the VLW*

The Village Level Worker (VLW) has not only been made secretary to the halqa panchayat but also secretary of the Panchayati Adalat. On the one hand, the Act envisages the transfer of a number of development activities for planning and implementation to the halqa panchayat, but on the other there is hardly any planning apparatus available at the halqa panchayat level except in the person of the all-in-one VLW.

There is a provision under Rule 83 of the J&K Panchayati Raj Rules, 1996, for formation of committees comprising a panch and a professional departmental officer to advise and guide with regard to matters specified by the panchayat. The advice and guidance does not replace the main planning functioning. Therefore, there is a need to strengthen the planning apparatus at halqa panchayat level on one hand and to reduce the workload of the VLW on the other.

2. POVERTY AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN J&K

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT- A RETROSPECT

Rural India encompasses three-fourth of the country's population and is characterized by low-income levels and social and economic deprivation. Through the launching of Community Development Programme in 1952, rural transformation was given a direction in favour of increasing levels of production, distributing the gains of economic development more equitably and initiating institutional and attitudinal changes in favour of modernization. "The main focus of rural development in India in 1950s was on institution building in the form of cooperatives, panchayats etc. Cooperatives were thought to be the vehicle of socio-economic change. Promotion of agriculture, development of education and health, the principles of self-help, self-reliance and community spirit were the main elements of Community Development Programme (CDP)."¹ It was soon realized, however, that covering the entire country under CDP was not possible through shortage of funds and personnel. Hence, as recommended by GMFIC, the National Extension Service (NES) was launched in October 1953 with a reduced number of personnel and financial provisions so that development work proceeded essentially on the basis of self-help. After three years, the blocks covered under NES were converted into CDP blocks.

The State of Jammu & Kashmir joined the rest of the country in introducing these programmes. With the introduction of the Big Landed Estates Abolition Act, 1950, the State had already created a conducive structural environment for a major development intervention. It was expected that all these processes of change would lead to higher levels of living, especially of the poverty groups and in the general improvement of their quality of life. All these development initiatives received a setback with the summary dismissal of the State Government in 1953. However, the programmes continued to be implemented and raised a lot of expectations. It is true that CDP was the first comprehensive programme for socio-economic transformation of rural areas. It is also a fact that it succeeded in establishing, for the first time an organized administrative set-up at the national, state, district, block and village levels

1 Report on Rural Development in CIRDAP Member Countries-1992-93, CIRDAP, Dhaka.

for implementation of development programmes. It is equally true that the objective of self-reliance and people's participation could not be achieved for CDP also did not pay adequate attention to the objective of developing responsible and responsive leadership. In the State of Jammu & Kashmir, implementation of CDP gave rise to a new rural political elite who took full advantage of this development intervention. CDP was considered as an extension arm of the Government. As the Balwantrai Mehta Committee reported in 1959, CDP was a government programme with people's participation and not vice versa.

CDP TO IADP- A PARADIGM SHIFT

The crises in the economy in the early 1960s and lagging agricultural production necessitated a shift in emphasis in rural development from a comprehensive rural development as advocated under Community Development Programme to enhanced agricultural production. The result was the adoption of the Intensive Agricultural Development Programme (IADP) in 1960-61 and Intensive Area Programme (IAP) in 1964.² This also marked a shift in the IRD strategy from institutional dimension to technological dimension. As a result, food production of the country increased tremendously and India became self-sufficient in food. In the state of J&K, IADP was adopted in selected districts along with other states in the country, although it had to face its own peculiar problems in the adoption of new technology and subsequent mechanization of agriculture. "Agriculture in the State was practised on conservative lines. There were no real and serious efforts on the part of the cultivators to adopt new methods of cultivation or even to use high yielding varieties of seeds. The State Government's Agriculture Department introduced a scheme of 'improved agriculture implements' in the mid-sixties. It was realized that improved agriculture implements, machines and tools designed elsewhere in the country could not be adopted in local conditions without necessary modifications. In this connection, a number of such implements were brought from outside the State. It thus became evident that a rationale approach to the problem of designing and developing the improved implements suitable for the rugged topographical conditions of the State, is to develop the implements and machines incorporating the good features of those designed elsewhere and the indigenous ones if they had any".³

2 State of the Art – Integrated Rural Development in Asia and the Pacific (1987), CIRDAP, Dhaka.

3 Aslam, M. (1981) 'Social Implications of Technological Changes in Rural Kashmir', Inter-India Publications, Delhi.

The correctness of the approach was established when the first few improved implements developed on these lines, for instance, Shalimar Plough, Shalimar Puddar and Arched Ladders gave encouraging results. "Thereafter, a number of implements, tools and machines were designed, developed, tested at Government Agricultural Implements Workshop, at Shalimar in Srinagar. The highly undulating topography, crop growth, soil condition and management system demanded a careful designing of the implements as most of the conditions were different from other parts of the country. All these efforts to a large extent succeeded in meeting basic objective of increasing the agricultural production. As a result, the production of food grains in 1972-73 touched 9.2 lakhs tons. The area under high yielding varieties reached 2.57 lakhs hectares and the area under horticulture 57,000 hectares in 1972-73".⁴ The constraints of topography and small holding size, landlord-tenant relationship and other factors stood in the way of rapid advances in the sector and the benefits of modern technology, like improved variety of seeds, fertilizer and mechanization, could make their impact only in some areas. Further, the small and middle farmers could not take full advantage of the green revolution technology. The consequences were widening inequalities and a rising poverty incidence. Further, agricultural prosperity could not trickle down to disadvantaged groups of society. It called for a target group approach to developmental intervention. "It is claimed that the target group oriented policies introduced during the Fourth Five-Year Plan period (1969-74) were in fact the pace setter of the equity oriented rural development policies of the seventies and the eighties"⁵.

FROM TARGET GROUP TO EQUITY-ORIENTED APPROACH

The beginning of the 1970s therefore, witnessed in J&K the introduction of the Marginal Farmers and Agriculture Labourers Development Agency (MFAL) and the Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) programmes to provide credit and other technical assistance to the disadvantaged groups. This was followed by the Food For Work (FFW) programme in 1977, Integrated Rural Development Programme in (1978) National Rural Employment Programme (1980), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme, Training of Rural Youth in Self Employment (TRYSEM), etc. All these were initiated and run in the state of J&K to improve the socio-economic conditions of various disadvantaged groups and backward areas. Poverty

4 Ibid

5 Report on Rural Development in CIRDAP Member Countries-1992-93, CIRDAP, Dhaka.

remained, as in other parts of the country, a major concern in the development arena of the State. At the national level it was witnessed that during the Sixth (1980-85) and the Seventh (1985-90) Five-Year Plans, rural development was considered synonymous with poverty alleviation. Achievement of growth, self-reliance, reduction of poverty and unemployment remained the broad goals of the development planning. A number of development interventions were made through self-employment programmes, provision of credit, extension support and subsidies. All these programmes and schemes were also introduced in the State of Jammu & Kashmir as in other parts of the country. Keeping in view the peculiar socio-economic and geographical conditions of the State, other State-specific development programmes were also undertaken by the State Govt. to develop rural physical infrastructure, improve health and sanitary conditions and to provide education to the deprived sections of the society.

AN ANALYSIS OF PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION

It will be useful to attempt an analysis of major rural development programmes mostly centrally sponsored, introduced in the State from time to time. This analysis is constrained by lack of information on the one hand and gaps and inconsistencies found in the data/information gathered from concerned departments of the State Government, on the other. It is also handicapped as no primary empirical data could be collected to substantiate findings to facilitate drawing of inferences. The report has depended on the outcome of available studies, although some of them could well be considered outdated in terms of time frame.

The rural development intervention has been mostly in the form of centrally sponsored schemes/programmes which have been subjected to extensive re-structuring and revamping during the past couple of years, particularly after 1999. The 1990s also witnessed introduction of number of new schemes, along with revamping of old ones. In some cases it created more confusion than clarity in the process of rural development. The State Development Report for Jammu & Kashmir being the first attempt of its kind, it was considered desirable to provide a contextual background of the rural development programmes/schemes (wherever available) along with their achievements to facilitate analysis.

CLASSIFICATION OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

Since the commencement of Ninth Five-Plan in 1997-98, as many as 11 poverty alleviation schemes were found to be implemented in J&K State. These schemes could be categorized into five broad categories as follows:

- (a) Self-employment (Credit/Subsidy) Programme consisting of the following six schemes now revamped and re-structured into one programme called Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY).
 - ❑ Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)
 - ❑ Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM)
 - ❑ Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA)
 - ❑ Million Wells Scheme (MWS)
 - ❑ Supply of Improved Toolkits for Rural Artisans (SITRA)
 - ❑ Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY).
- (b) Employment Programme consisting of two schemes, namely, Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY), now renamed as Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojana (JGSY) and Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS).
- (c) Rural Housing Programme consisting of only Indira Awas Yojana (IAY).
- (d) Area Development Programme consisting of two schemes, namely, Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) and Desert Development Programme (DDP).
- (e) Land Reforms.

(a) Self-employment Programmes

The programme comprises four sub schemes, viz. IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA and Establishment of Mini ITIs being funded on a 50:50 basis between centre and state in the district sector. Since April 1999, the schemes under self-employment programme including IRDP have been restructured and a new programme known as Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) has been launched. Unlike previous self-employment schemes, the benefit of SGSY will now be available only to Self-Help Groups. The unspent balances as on 01-4-99 under the erstwhile self-employment schemes will be pooled under the new SGSY and utilized as per the new guidelines aimed at Self-Help Groups to be formed and trained. Therefore, in the analysis on self-employment programmes, various components of self-employment programmes, i.e., IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, MWS, etc., which were in operation till April 1999 will be discussed and thereafter replaced by SGSY.

Table III.102
Self-employment Programmes Plan Targets & Achievements
(8th & 9th Plans)

Programme	J a m m u		K a s h m i r			
	8 th Plan Period (1992-97)		9 th Plan Target (1997-2002)	8 th Plan Period (1992-97)		9 th Plan Target (1997- 2002)
	Target	Achievement		Target	Achievement	
IRDP (No. of beneficiaries) (Thousands)	73.5	27.56	52.00	45.00	25.92	50.00
TRYSEM (Candidates Trained) (Thousands)	11.40	8.65	11.00	10.00	8.85	10.00
DWCRA (Groups Formed)	2168	1238	1320	2000	1662	2000
JRY Mandays generated (in lakh.	180.00	125.21	125.00	180.00	101.12	190.00
No. of works completion	-	21338	23000	-	16794	20000
IAY No. of houses completed	4400	7301	15000	15000	16749	12000
MWS No. of Works	-	7024	6500	-	2173	2000
EAS Mandays generated (in lakh)	-	183.88	475.00	-	97.24	300.00
Works completed	-	14849	15,000	-	11665	20,000

Source : 9th Five-Year Plan, Jammu & Kashmir

Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)

One of the major rural development interventions during the late 1970s has been introduction of Integrated Rural Development Programme commonly known as IRDP. The scheme was introduced in the State on 2nd October 1980 on a 50:50 sharing pattern. It envisaged creation of productive assets and inputs in the primary, secondary and territory sectors through financial assistance by way of government subsidy and term credit from financial institutions. The basic objective was to bring the rural families living below the poverty line (BPL) above the poverty line by taking up different activities of income generation. Under this scheme, subsidy was provided to small and marginal farmers, Scheduled Caste/Scheduled Tribe, educated unemployed youth (8th pass or fail) at different rates. Besides, 50 per cent of the project cost subject to a maximum of Rs. 1.25 lakh was also admissible for group ventures of 5 persons belonging to BPL families. As per the results of the survey conducted with 1991-92 as the reference year, a total of 7.86 lakh families

(including the Ladakh region) fell under the category of 'below poverty line' as per the normative basis of income level of Rs. 11,000/- per annum which works out to 57 per cent of the total households.⁶ This is quite a substantial number, although there are contradictory figures available, an issue will be discussed in the later part of this chapter.

As far as development assistance under IRDP is concerned, the available data does not provide an encouraging picture (Table III.102). In terms of the number of beneficiaries covered under the scheme, the data reveals that against the target of 73,500 for 8th Plan period in Jammu, only 27,560 beneficiaries were covered. The target for 9th Five-Year Plan was fixed to cover 52,000 beneficiaries. Similarly in Kashmir Division, against a target of 45,000 for the 8th Plan period, only 25,920 beneficiaries were covered. The target for the 9th Five-Year Plan period was fixed at 50,000 beneficiaries to be covered during the 9th Plan period.

There were a lot of gaps and inconsistencies in the information and data provided by the concerned departments about the actual expenditure and physical targets of various self-employment programmes implemented in the Jammu & Kashmir State. In order to maintain possible consistency in figures, data and information given in the plan document were used here. Table III.103 provides outlays, expenditure and target achievement in respect of IRDP in both Jammu and Kashmir Divisions. It is very interesting to note that in both these divisions although expenditure was slashed down to 1/3rd and 1/4th in 1998-99 for Jammu and Kashmir respectively, the physical achievements in terms of beneficiaries assisted have been more than the target fixed, a peculiar situation indeed. When the data supplied by the respective Directorates of Rural Development was looked into, it created further confusion about implementation of these important programmes.

6 9th Five-Year Plan for Jammu & Kashmir, Planning Department, J&K.

Table III.103
Outlay-Expenditure and Physical Target-Achievement
Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)

A. Jammu

Year	Outlay* (Rs.)	Expenditure* (Rs.)	Beneficiaries Assisted	
			Target	Achievement
1996-97 base level ach.	--			5,524
1997-98	376.00	283.82	10,000	10,000
1998-99	376.00	101.66	5693**	9,000

B. Kashmir

Year	Outlay* (Rs)	Expenditure* (Rs)	Beneficiaries Assisted	
			Target	Achievement
1996-97 base level ach.	--			25,916
1997-98	287.00	268.77	10,000	7,448
1998-99	327.34	79.79**	10,000	11,600

Source: Annual Plan 1999-2000 , Jammu & Kashmir.

* Outlay & expenditure is for IRDP and allied programmes.

** It seems inconsistent.

Training of Rural Youth for Self-employment (TRYSEM)

The objective of the scheme was to provide and upgrade basic technical and managerial skills of rural youth who fell below the poverty line, to enable them to take up self-employment and wage-employment in agriculture, industries, service and business activities. Under this scheme, training to rural youth, both men and women, in the age-group of 18-35 belonging to identified BPL families, was provided for a period of six months in Govt., other Govt. recognized institutions and through master craftsmen. The age limit in respect of inmates of orphanage was 16 to 45 years. The trainees were paid a stipend at various rates depending upon their residence. As per guidelines, 50 per cent of the trainees were to be SC/ST and 3 per cent disabled persons.

The analysis of the data reveals that against a target of 11,400 for the 8th Plan period, only 8650 youths were trained during the said period in Jammu Division. The target for the 9th Plan period was to train 11,000 youth. Similarly, in the Kashmir Division, against a target of 10,000 for the 8th Plan period, only 8850 youth were trained and the target for the 9th Plan period was to train 10,000 youth under the scheme.

Table III.104
Outlay-Expenditure and Physical Target-Achievement Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM)

A. Jammu

(Rs. in lakh)

Year	Outlay (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)	Youth Target	Trained Achievement
1996-97 base level	--	--	--	2670
1997-98	50.00	25.09	2700	2700
1998-99	33.45	8.97	1640	2700*

B. Kashmir

1996-97 base level	--	--	--	8,853
1997-98	57.00	57.00	2,000	1,100*
1998-99	29.57	8.05	2,800	1,139

Source: Annual Plan 1999-2000, Jammu & Kashmir.

*It sounds inconsistent with expenditure figures.

Despite efforts to get a comparative data for both the divisions, what was available was only plan document which provided some information consistent for both the divisions. The analysis of Table III.104 also does not provide any logic for inherent inconsistencies. During 1997-98 the target for Jammu Division had been met by half of the financial outlay, while as in Kashmir Division, even after spending the full financial outlay, only half of the target had been achieved. The figures given for 1998-99 create further confusion. In the case of Jammu, the physical achievement was double the target while expenditure was one-third of the financial outlay. Obviously, there is some discrepancy either in the figures or in the implementation itself.

Development of Women & Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA)

DWCRA, a sub-scheme of IRDP, was started in 1983-84 with the primary objective of focusing attention on women members of rural families. It was a thrust area programme for the upliftment of rural women hailing from identified families living below the poverty line. Earlier, up to 1993-94, the scheme was under implementation in selected districts only. Subsequently, the coverage of the scheme was extended to cover all the districts though women field staff was not created for all the districts during the 8th Plan period but was proposed to be created during the 9th Plan period. Under this scheme, women groups were organized and imparted training in different traditional activities out of TRYSEM funds. These groups are encouraged to take up

income-generating activities for which a revolving fund at the rate of Rs. 25,000/- per group is provided. Under the scheme, childcare activities have also been included. Activities include filling up critical gaps in the area of immunization, nutrition, etc., for the children of DWCRA group members with special focus on the girl child to reduce gender disparity. The analysis of the data reveals that against a target of 2,168 groups, only 1,238 groups were formed during the 8th Plan period in Jammu Division and the target for the 9th Plan period was fixed at 1,320. Similarly, in Kashmir Division against a target of 2,000 groups to be formed during 8th Plan period, only 1,662 groups were formed and the target for 9th Plan period was fixed at 2,000.

Table III.105
Outlay-Expenditure and Physical Target-Achievement
Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA)

A. Jammu (Rs. in lakh)

Year	Outlay (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)	Groups Formed	
			Target	Achievement
1996-97	--	--	--	406
1997-98	40.05	27.00	336	340
1998-99	32.00	12.69	340	370*

B. Kashmir

1996-97 base level	--	--	--	1662
1997-98	39.00	39.00	300	619*
1998-99	48.75	48.75	600	445

Source: Annual Plan 1999-2000, Jammu & Kashmir.

* inconsistent with expenditure figures.

A look at Table III.105 further strengthens the belief that there is considerable inconsistency in terms of expenditure on the one hand and the targets achieved on the other.

Million Wells Scheme (MWS)

The objective of the scheme is to provide assistance for digging of irrigation wells to the poor, small and marginal farmers living below the poverty line, especially persons belonging to SC/ST and freed bonded labourers. This is a beneficiary-oriented scheme being implemented in J&K wherein up to Rs. 30,000/- is provided as subsidy for digging up open wells. In the areas where digging of wells is not feasible due to geographical factors, the amount available under the MWS is utilized for other schemes of minor irrigation like irrigation tanks, water harvesting structures,

land improvement, etc., for the benefit of poor, small and marginal farmers. As per the information available, 7024 works were completed during the 8th Plan period under the scheme in Jammu Division and a target of 6,500 works was set to be achieved during 9th Plan period. Similarly, in Kashmir Division 2173 works were completed during the 8th Plan period and a modest target of 2000 works was set for the 9th Plan period. The targets achieved in Kashmir Division till 1999 are given in Table III.60.

Table III.106
Million Wells Scheme (Kashmir)

(Rs. in lakh)

S. No.	Period	No. of wells constructed	Area covered Hectt.	Expenditure Incurred (Rs.)
1.	1996-97 (9/1996-3/1997)	423	120.80	94.45
2.	1997-98	635	317.00	135.27
3.	1998-99	797	463.50	151.02
4.	1999-2000	359	228.03	34.50
Total		2214	1129.33	415.24

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Kashmir.

Table III.106 shows the number of wells, constructed area covered and the expenditure incurred in respect of Kashmir Division. It is evident that there has been a sharp decline between 1998-99 and 1999-2000, possibly because of revamping of the scheme and its restructuring from April 1999. Separate information about Jammu Division was not available, although MWS was made an independent scheme along with IAY.

Ganga Kalyan Yojana (GKY)

The scheme was launched in all the districts of the country w.e.f 18 February 1997 as a new scheme under the IRDP. From 1997-98 it was made an independent scheme. With the introduction of this scheme, bore-wells/tube-wells scheme under IRDP and MWS was subsumed under Ganga Kalyan Yojana and all the bore-wells/tube-wells schemes were to be funded under this scheme. An allocation of Rs. 6 lakh was proposed under the scheme for the provision of subsidy for the year 1999-2000 for Kashmir Division. In Jammu Division no allocation was proposed as the scheme had not taken up because of its non-viability. The scheme now has become part of the SGSY.

Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY)

There were a number of schemes being implemented under the self-employment category. These were viewed as separate programmes in themselves. This resulted in a lack of inter-programme interaction, absence of desired linkages among these programmes inter se and their implementation diverted attention to achieving individual programme targets rather than focusing on a substantive issue of sustainable income generation. To rectify the situation, the Govt. of India decided to re-structure the self-employment programmes. A new programme known as Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) was launched from April 1999. This is a holistic programme covering all aspects of self-employment like organization of the poor into self-help groups, training, credit, technology, infrastructure and marketing. The earlier programmes like IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA, MWS and GKY are no longer in operation.

Table III.107
Financial Outlay and Expenditure SGSY (Jammu)

(Rs. in lakh)

Year	Outlay			Releases		Total Availability including UBS & Misc. Recpt	Expdt.
	CS	SS	Total	CS	SS		
1999-2000	286.91	95.64	382.55	181.41	61.12	433.80	200.15
2000-2001	292.48	97.49	389.97	30.74	92.39	372.20	286.30
2001-2002	169/25	62.88	232.13	133.46	37.71	290/513	265.942

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Jammu.

Table III.108
Physical Target and Achievement, SGSY (Jammu)

(Rs in lakh)

Year	Target	No. of cases sponsored to bank	No. of cases sanctioned	Unit established		Rev. fund provided by		Credit mobilization		
				Individual	SHG	Deptt.	Bank	Credit	Subsidy	Total
1999-2000	3795	3057	1126	1109	-	-	-	-	-	270.95
2000-01	2765	4553	1742	1166	2	312	-	966.84	95.52	562.36
2001-02	2765	4623	1977	936	1955	302	-	683.478	142.17	825.648

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Jammu.

During 2000-2001 and 2001-2002 (up to December 2001) a total of 459 and 872 Self Help Groups respectively have been framed, out of which 135 SHG have passed Grading-II. However, it has been reported that banks provided credit only to

16. It has been observed that banks do not come forward for providing credit to the cases sponsored by the Department, which has greatly effected the achievements.

Under infrastructure development, an amount of Rs. 69.35 lakh and Rs. 18.97 lakh was provided during 2000-2001 and 2001-2002 (up to December 2002) respectively.

Table III.109
Achievements and Expenditure, SGSY (Kashmir)

Period	Total Benf. covered	SHGs formed	Loan raised	Subsidy	Exp. Incurred Others	Total
1999-2000	4513	-	456.64	219.56	175.37	404.93
2000-01	3829	-	933.03	256.18	56.71	312.89
2001-02	3973	2542	1265.68	328.19	121.35	449.54

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Kashmir.

Table III.109 shows that 2,542 self-help groups were formed during 2001-2002. The credit mobilization under loan raised has shown substantial progress. It seems to be just the reverse of what has been reported for Jammu.

b) Wage-employment Programmes

Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY)

The scheme was introduced in the State during April 1989 with a funding pattern of 80:20 between Centre and State. Up to the year 1996, IAY and MWS were part of JRY. Thereafter these schemes were segregated from JRY and treated as independent schemes, the objective remaining to generate gainful employment for underemployed and unemployed men and women in rural areas and to create community and social assets particularly in favour of the rural poor for their direct and continuing benefits. As per the data available, against a target of generating 180 lakh mandays during the 8th Plan period only 125.21 lakh mandays were generated in Jammu Division. The target for the 9th Plan period was fixed at 1.33 lakh mandays. Similarly, for Kashmir Division against a target of 180 lakh mandays only 101.12 lakh mandays were generated during the 8th Plan period and the target of 108 lakh mandays was fixed for the 9th Plan period.

Table III.110
Financial Outlay and Expenditure, JGSY (Jammu)

(Rs. in lakh)

Year	Outlay		Releases		Total Availability Including UBS & Misc. Recpt	Expenditure
	CS	SS	Total	CS	SS	
1997-98	483.80	113.80	597.60	681.01	103.18	820.78
1998-99	617.88	154.47	772.35	420.14	181.25	705.53
1999-2000	492.01	164.00	656.01	261.85	37.92	362.71
2000-2001	460.74	153.58	614.32	465.61	189.84	695.30
2001-2002	523.78	164.00	687.78	523.75	260.75	806.00
						727.09
						600.93
						329.86
						663.22
						802.033

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Jammu.

As far as financial outlay and expenditure for JGSY (earlier JRY) for the Jammu region is concerned, Table III.110 shows that expenditure against availability of funds has been more than 90 per cent, which is a healthy trend. It has, to a great extent, been substantiated by the physical achievements as shown in Table III.111.

Table III.111
Physical Achievements, JGSY (Jammu)

Year	No. of works take up	No. of works completed	Mandays generated (in lakh nos.)
1997-98	4748	4115	12.99
1998-99	4143	3032	9.44
1999-2000	1955	1400	4.56
2000-2001	3454	2729	7.88
2001-2002	5924	5747	12.78

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Jammu.

During 1997-98, the number of mandays generated reached 12.99 lakhs, but fell to 4.56 lakh during 1999-2000. It again started picking up and reached 12.78 lakh mandays during 2001-2002.

As far as implementation of JGSY in the Kashmir Division is concerned, the number of mandays generated and expenditure incurred is shown in Table III.112.

Table III.112
Achievements and Expenditure, JGSY (Kashmir)

Period	Total Works Compl.	Exp. (Rs.) in lakh	Man-days generated
1996-97 (9/1996-3/97)	2367	421.68	14.89
1997-98	2934	749.59	18.92
1998-99	3567	872.37	18.54
1999-2000	1559	466.20	9.03
2000-01	1997	839.56	8.78
2001-2002	2573	886.53	8.73
Total	14997	4235.93	78.89

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Kashmir.

The table shows that there has been consistency in terms of generation of mandays during 1997-98 and 1998-99 when it touched 18,92. It came down sharply to 9.03 in 2000-2001 and further down to 8.73 lakh mandays in 2001-2002, although expenditure remained at the 1998-99 level. This is something which needs to be studied in detail to arrive at conclusive inferences.

Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS)

The scheme was launched during the year 1993-94 in the state. Initially, 22 blocks of Udhampur and Doda districts in Jammu Division and 12 blocks of Kashmir division were covered. Subsequently during 1996-97, it was extended to all the 119 blocks including 12 blocks of Leh and Kargil. Under the scheme, 100 days employment was to be assured to two members of a family (man and woman) in the age group of 18-60 years from amongst the people living below the poverty line in rural areas during lean agriculture season. Under the scheme, registration of beneficiaries was carried out to cater to the most backward areas where alternative means of avocation were conspicuous by their absence.

The Govt. of India had agreed to some relaxation in regard to the weightage to be accorded to the various sectors, keeping in view peculiar conditions prevailing in the State. Besides construction of primary schools, anganwadis, link roads, irrigation khuls, afforestation and horticultural programmes, efforts were made to construct building for other sectors like that of health, sub-centres, panchayat ghars, ISM centres, veterinary centers, etc. As per the information and data available, there were 183.88 lakh mandays generated during the 8th Plan period under the scheme in Jammu division. The target for the 9th Plan period was fixed at 475 lakh mandays. In Kashmir Division 97.41 lakh mandays were generated during the 8th Plan period and the target for the 9th Plan was fixed at 3000 lakh mandays. The financial outlays, expenditure and physical achievements of EAS in Jammu Division from 1997-2002 are given in tables III.113 and III.114.

Table III.113
Financial Outlay and Expenditure, EAS (Jammu)

Year	Outlay			Releases		Total Availability	Expenditure
	CS	SS	Total	CS	SS		
1997-98	4560.00	1250.00	5810.00	3140.00	1199.85	4492.08	4407.83
1998-99	4560.00	1165.60	5725.60	2280.00		2386.65	2378.73
1999-2000	2280.00	570.00	2850.00	766.32	285.00	1196.88	1144.78
2000-2001	338.26	112.76	451.02	917.63	115.25	1095.82	1020.78
2001-2002	596.31	570.00	1166.31	596.31	443.00	1150.826	1141.027

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Jammu.

Table III.114
Physical Achievements, EAS (Jammu)

Year	No. of works take up	No. of works completed	Mandays generated (in lakh nos.)
1997-98	15419	10676	74.35
1998-99	12439	7346	35.88
1999-2000	5535	2654	15.49
2000-2001	4175	2950	13.04
2001-2002	5066	4555	12.53

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Jammu.

The Scheme was supposed to play a predominant role in generating wage employment and in the creation of durable assets like school buildings, community centres, passenger sheds, link roads, etc. Tables III.13 and III.14 show that although there has been consistency as far as availability of funds and expenditure was concerned, there seems to a big gap between total outlay and availability of funds. During 1998-99, it seems that the scheme was implemented without state share. As far as physical achievements are concerned, Table III.14 shows a sudden fall in terms of mandays generated from 35.88 lakh in 1998-99 to 15.49 lakh mandays in 1999-2000 and since then it has been going down. The achievements and expenditure of EAS in Kashmir Division are shown in table III.115 below.

Table III.115
Achievements and Expenditure, EAS (Kashmir)

Sl. No	Period	Works Completed	Exp. (Rs.) in lakhs	Man-Days generated
1.	1996-97 (9/1996-3/97)	4807	2187.00	32.41
2.	1997-98	10825	4892.34	56.82
3.	1998-99	9006	3257.22	38.44
4.	1999-2000	4518	1058.77	10.77
5.	2000-01	3328	1219.44	12.71
6.	2001-2002	3108	1243.35	10.30
	Total	35592	13858.12	161.45

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Kashmir.

There appears to be a lot of similarity in terms of mandays generated between the two divisions of the State of Jammu & Kashmir. In both cases the generation of mandays has sharply declined from 1999 to 2000. In the case of Kashmir Division, the data in the table show that it dropped from 56.82 lakh in 1997-98 to 38.44 lakh in 1998-99 and further down to 10.77 lakh in 1999-2000. In the absence of the target figures, it is difficult to draw inferences in terms of target—achievement ratio. However, it is established that there is a declining trend.

Sampoorna Gramin Rozgar Yojana (SGRY)

The programme, a merger of EAS and JGSY, will be implemented as a centrally sponsored scheme on a 75:25 sharing basis. Food-grains are to be provided under this scheme free of cost but cost of their transportation is expected to be borne by the state Government.

The objective of the scheme is to provide wage employment in rural areas and food security along with creations of durable community social and economic assets and infrastructure development.

The SGRY will be available for all the rural poor who are in need of wage employment. Preference is to be given to the poorest among the poor, Scheduled Caste/Scheduled Tribes and parents of child labour withdrawn from hazardous occupations.

Under the scheme, 5 kg of foodgrains are made available per manday at BPL rates and balance wages are paid in cash. During 2001-2002 the Jammu division has been allotted foodgrains worth Rs.15 crore. The district-wise lifting from FCI godowns from District head quarters has already started.

c) *Rural Housing Programme*

Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY)

Originally, the scheme aimed at providing shelter to the houseless rural poor belonging to SC/ST communities only. Later, during 1993-94, the scheme was also extended to cover other weaker sections below poverty line. In the State of J&K, the resources available under the state rural housing scheme are also dovetailed with IAY for provision of houses free of cost to the poorest of the poor houseless families belonging to SC/ST and other weaker sections. In terms of physical achievements, the analysis of the data shows that against a target of 4,400 houses to be built during the 8th Plan period in Jammu, 7301 houses were built and the target for the 9th Plan period was fixed at 15000. Similarly, in Kashmir Division, against a target of 15,000 houses to be built during the 8th plan period, 16,719 houses were built. A target of 12,000 houses was set for the 9th Plan period. It seems that this is one scheme where State has exceeded the target, perhaps by dovetailing the resources available with the State Rural Housing scheme with IAY.

Table III. 116
Outlay, Expenditure and Achievements Indira Awas Yojana (IAY)-Jammu
(Rs. in lakh)

Year	Outlay			Releases		Total Availability including UBS & Misc. Recpt	Expenditure	No. of houses constructed
	CS	SS	Total	CS	SS			
1997-98	300.45	213.87	514.32	420.39	189.62	623.92	433.05	2297
1998-99	469.70	279.99	749.69	328.79	173.49	703.56	703.56	1770*
1999-2000	300.45	213.87	514.32	--	67.37	381.21	328.55	2136
2000-2001	300.45	100.15	400.60	26.83	71.29	157.49	139.99	1074
2001-2002	294.88	100.15	395.03	355.80	100.15	475.082	472.276	2382

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Jammu.

* Inconsistent with expenditure.

Table III.117
Achievements and Expenditure Indira Awas Yojana
(Kashmir Division) (1996-2002)

(Rs. in lakh)

Year	Houses Constructed			Expenditure Incurred
	SC/ST	Other BPL	Total	
1996-97 (9/1996-3/1997)	365	4300	4665	558.09
1997-98	751	3975	4726	536.29
1998-99	292	4572	4864	461.36
1999-2000	210	3590	3800	409.17
2000-2001	641	2481	3122	210.50
2001-2002	1335	3113	4448*	600.60

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Kashmir.

* Not consistent with expenditure.

Tables III.116 and III.117 show achievements in terms of houses constructed and expenditure incurred. There is an evident inconsistency in the number of houses constructed and the expenditure incurred. This can be seen for 1998-99 in respect of Jammu and 2001-2002 in respect of Kashmir Division. It assumes significance because the amount provided under IAY to BPL families for constructing houses is fixed.

Credit-cum-Housing Subsidy Scheme

This is a new scheme launched during 1999-2000 by Govt. of India. The aim of the

scheme is to cover households (BPL and above it) who have not been covered under IAY as either they do not fall within the range of eligibility or due to the limits imposed by the available budget. The scheme has been introduced based on part credit and part subsidy.

The target groups under the scheme are rural households having an annual income of up to Rs. 32,000/-. However, there is special preference to the BPL families. Kathua and Poonch have been selected in Jammu Division to implement the scheme in the first phase. The Additional Deputy Commissioner of the district has been nominated as overall incharge of the scheme. The details of its achievements in two selected districts of Jammu Division are given in Table III. 118.

Table III.118
Credit-Cum-Housing Subsidy Scheme Details of
Achievements in Kathua & Poonch Districts

District	Releases			No. of cases identified	No. of cases sanctioned
	CS	SS	Total		
Kathua	1.20	3.66	4.86	82	4
Poonch	2.35	0.78	3.13	120	20*

Source: Directorate of Rural Development, Jammu.

* Inconsistent with availability of funds.

The data given in the table shows a wide gap between number of cases identified and the number of cases sanctioned. It is difficult to attribute it to lack of funds, because of inconsistency in the number of cases sanctioned and availability of funds in respect of Poonch.

(d) Area Development Programme

Drought-prone Area Programme (DPAP)

The Drought-prone Area Programme aims at making concentrated efforts to prevent drought and soil erosion through an integrated approach involving protective and preventive measures on watershed basis. In Jammu and Kashmir State, the programme is implemented in all the 14 CD Blocks of Doda District and in eight out of 12 CD Blocks of Udhampur District. It is a centrally sponsored scheme and is shared on a 50:50 basis by Government of India and State Government, to be implemented as per guidelines and expenditure norms evolved by the Ministry of Rural Development.

Drought-prone Area Programme, Udhampur

It is very interesting to note from the information provided about DPAP Udhampur that during the 8th Plan period, 13 watersheds were completed and an almost equal

number (14) remained incomplete. Since the inception of the programme, an area of 23,197 hectare up to 1996-97 stands treated, of which 6,977 hectare was treated under the scheme, e.g., Soil Moisture and Water Conservation Forestry and Pasture Development, Water Resource Development, Social Forestry, Horticulture and Sericulture.

There were 82 watersheds covering eight DPAP Blocks proposed for the Ninth Five Year Plan but keeping in view the financial ceiling, it is reported that initially the work was executed in 32 watersheds, besides completing the balance work in 12 old incomplete watersheds. An amount of Rs. 562 lakh was allotted for the Ninth Plan of which Rs. 460.00 lakh was capital component and Rs. 102 lakh revenue component. As per the planning document, the following physical targets were fixed for the 9th Five-Year Plan:⁷

Schemes Area proposed to be treated /covered:

- (a) Soil, Moisture & Water Conservation; (7980 hectare)
- (b) Water Resources Development (3240");
- (c) Forestry (4320);
- (d) Pasture Development (2160");
- (e) Raising of Nurseries (660");
- (f) Horticulture Development (1728");
- (g) Sericulture Development (1512").

(Figures in brackets indicate physical targets)

During 1997-98 the concerned agency was authorized to execute the DPAP works on old guidelines operative prior to 1.4.95. Against the approved allocation of Rs.296.79 lakh, an amount of only Rs.158.62 lakh was reportedly spent during 1997-98. This was because the approved funds were, reportedly, not fully released and Rs.97.12 lakh remained balance to be paid as liabilities during 1998-99. During 1998-99 the concerned agency was again authorized to execute the DPAP works on old guidelines operative prior to 1.4.95. Accordingly, the DPAP plan for 1998-99 to execute DPAP works in 32 watersheds located in 8 DPAP blocks was formulated.

For the year 1999-2000, DPAP plan amounted to Rs. 107.15 lakh (state share only) out of which Rs. 19 lakh was proposed under project administration and Rs.109.58 lakh for execution of works in ongoing 32 micro watersheds.

7 9th Five Year Plan & Annual Plan, 1999-2000, J&K Government

Drought-prone Area Programme, Doda

In Doda district, during the Ninth Plan, it was envisaged to cover 96 watersheds in four blocks with a provision of Rs. 890.30 lakh. It is reported that there was an amount of Rs. 90.30 lakh as unspent balance available with the DPAP Agency and Rs.126 lakh for Project Administration.

‘After 1/4/1996 an attempt was made to implement the programme through WDTs/ Committees and a number of WDTs/Committees were constituted in 4 blocks of the District namely Bhaderwah, Thathri, Bhallessa and Doda. It is reported that an amount of Rs. 30.00 lakhs was also advanced to the WDTs Bahderwah and Thathri blocks for implementation of the programme as per Revised guidelines. Due to the weak NGOs system and non availability of qualified technical personnels in rural areas, the programme reportedly failed badly at the grass root level and the money was misutilised. Subsequently, the WDTs/Committees were superseded by the then Chairman DPAP agency Doda (District Development Commissioner Doda)’⁸.

It is further reported that for the year 1998-99, the Government of India again permitted implementation of the DPAP Programme as per guidelines operative before 1.4.1995. The Planning and Development Department accordingly allocated Rs. 151 lakh for the year 1998-99. Reportedly, the plan was formulated for Rs. 309.28 lakh and placed before the governing body for its approval, which agreed to 6 blocks instead of 14 blocks. Against this a state share of Rs. 51 lakh only was released. It is reported in the planning document that the Central Government neither released its share for 1998-99, nor 2^d instalment of Rs. 72.50 lakh for the year 1997-98. The result was that the targets fixed for 1998-99 were achieved to the extent of 50 per cent only. It is necessary to know the reasons for non-release of funds by the Central Government, the mis-utilization of funds as reported above being one, an area which needs to be addressed.

(e) Land Reforms

The Jammu & Kashmir State has the distinction of introducing land reform measures of far-reaching consequences as back as 1951. This created a congenial atmosphere for subsequent reforms. In order to sustain these reforms, there was a need to strengthen the system of updation of land records. As against the stipulated

⁸ Annual Plan for 1999-2000, Jammu & Kashmir P.275

requirement for carrying out settlement operations at an interval of 20 to 25 years, this work has fallen in arrears and no settlement had taken place for about 70 years in the State. A scheme for carrying out settlement operations was approved under the 8th Five-Year Plan. Due to the intricate nature and the wide expanse of activity entailed in the settlement operations, particularly in hilly areas, the whole scheme was expected to take more than a decade. As per records, the settlement operations had commenced in 10 out of 59 tehsils in 1991 as a first phase. Subsequently, two more tehsils were notified for settlement operations during 1992-93. The tehsils covered are: Jammu, R.S. Pora, Hiranagar, Udampur and Ramban in Jammu Division and Pulwama, Budgam, Chadora, Kulgam, Ganederbal, Leh and Kargil in Kashmir Division. Due to the adverse law-and-order situation in the State, the progress in the initial years was quite tardy. This process of settlement operation reportedly got accelerated from the year 1994-95 after training the staff at different levels of operations.

Since the settlement operations engaged major attention during the 8th Plan period, the major thrust of the strategy envisaged for the 9th Plan was obviously to lend speed to the settlement works in order to cover the whole of the state within a period of 10 years. It was also proposed to extend the work of settlement to cover all the Districts in a phased manner by organizing special teams to carry out the measurement work which was considered the most critical component of the scheme. The record work could have been taken up so as to complete the settlement within two Plan periods. The process of computerization of the data was initiated simultaneously so that durability and authenticity of records could be ensured. The major components of the scheme of settlement included building of infrastructure facilities for training, upgradation of the Training Institutes and the Record Rooms, provision of facilities to Patwar Khannas at Patwar halqa level and to provide a backup of logistic arrangements for these institutions. The scheme of strengthening of Revenue Administration and land Records was funded on a 50:50 basis. It is reported that the Revenue component was fully borne by the State Government. Other components of strategy included Aerial photographic Survey, use of imagery Satellite and introduction of palm-top and Note Book computers.

The proposed outlay for the 9th Plan was Rs. 31.20 Crore. The outlay for 1999-2000 was Rs. 931.53 lakh out of which Rs. 664.96 lakh was earmarked as capital component. The schemes expected to be taken up included the following:⁹

Direction and Administration: It was considered essential to position additional staff for efficient conduct of settlement operations in a phased manner. The outlay on salaries for the 9th Plan was Rs. 2337.00 lakh. Keeping in view the necessary requirements, an amount of Rs. 664.96 lakh was earmarked for the year 1999-2000.

Construction of Patwar Khannas: It is reported that out of 1491 halqas in the State, 150 were provided buildings of their own. As a step towards upgradation visualized under the centrally sponsored scheme, the construction of patwar Khannas was taken up. The scheme was implemented on sharing basis between the State Government and Government of India. An amount of Rs. 72 lakh was approved during the financial year 1999-2000.

Purchase of Survey equipment/machinery: As a step towards modernization, it was planned to deploy new techniques of mapping by introducing the theodolite system. It is reported that currently 28 E.T.S. (Electronic Total Stations) are in operation in the field. This scheme is also under execution on a sharing basis between Central Government and State Government. An amount of Rs. 45 lakh was earmarked during the financial year, 1999-2000.

Revenue Record Rooms and Upgradation Grants: The availability of adequate infrastructure plays an important role in the successful implementation of any scheme. In order to build up the infrastructure facilities at the District level by way of building quarters for Revenue Officers, construction of Court Rooms, construction of Inspection halls, construction of conference Halls, construction of Nayabat Offices and renovation/upgradation/extension of existing revenue buildings, the proposed outlay under capital component for District Sectors was Rs. 180 lakh for the 9th Five-Year Plan on sharing basis. An amount of Rs. 55.23 lakh was earmarked for the year 1999-2000.

In addition, there were plans to construct Tehsil building at Surankote to strengthen the revenue complex and an amount of Rs.17.86 lakh was earmarked for the same during 1999-2000. Similarly, the Tehsil building at Kulgam which was gutted was

9. 9th Five-Year Plan for Jammu & Kashmir, pp.294-295.

planned to be reconstructed and an amount of Rs.15 lakh was earmarked for 1999-2000.

(f) Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana

Under the scheme, Ministry of Rural Development, Govt. of India had approved 12 road projects for Jammu division during 2000-2001. For this purpose an amount of Rs.10 crore has also been released and the works have been taken up by the executive engineers, REW. Against the release of Rs. 100.00 lakh during the year 2001-2002 an expenditure to the tune of Rs. 334.83 lakh were reportedly undertaken up to the end of March 2002. Out of this, Rs. 101.45 lakh were spent on earthwork and Rs. 33.38 lakh utilized on material component.

The foregoing analysis of various development initiatives presents a mixed picture of hope and fear. The hope comes out of the optimism that if these development interventions are allowed to be implemented with sincerity, the days of rural prosperity are not far. The fear comes from the assumption that if the shortcomings, which these schemes have suffered during the process of implementation are not addressed, what will be the condition of our rural areas. In order to substantiate our hopes and fears, it was considered to either conduct some empirical studies or to have a look at the existing ones. Since the time-frame fixed did not allow to undertake some empirical studies, there was no option but to rely on existing ones.

DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES IN LADAKH REGION

There is some confusion as to whether two districts of Ladakh region, namely, Leh and Kargil are included in the presentation of data given in the planning document about various rural development programmes and schemes of Jammu and Kashmir regions. On the one hand, the planning document is silent about it and on the other hand it has provided separately a brief description about development activities being carried out in these two districts. Further, through the establishment of 'Autonomous Hill Development Councils and an Inter-District Advisory Council' in the Ladakh region in June 1995, the formulation of development programmes in respect of District Component Schemes to review their progress and achievements have been vested with these councils. The councils are also expected to lay down guidelines for implementation of development schemes at the grassroots level. It will be useful, therefore, to present a brief account of development activities as provided in the planning document for Leh and Kargil districts.

Leh: The Leh district is situated in the eastern portion of the Ladakh region of Jammu and Kashmir state. The population of the district is 1,17,637 (2001 Census) of which about 85 per cent are Buddhists and 15 per cent Muslims. More than 95 per cent of the population belongs to the Scheduled Tribe category. The population density of 2 persons per sq. km works out to be the lowest in the country. The total geographical area of the district is 44,479 hectare of which the total cropped area is 11,250 hectare and the main crops are grim, wheat and fodder. Apricots and vegetables are also grown in some parts of the district.

The Ladakh Autonomous Hill Development Council was formed in September 1995. It consisted of 26 elected and 4 nominated members and an Executive Council with a Chairman-cum-Chief-Executive Councillor and four Executive Councillors. The Council has been vested with Executive powers in the districts to formulate, implement, review and monitor all development programmes including five-year and annual plans and the annual budget, both Plan and non-Plan. The 9th Five-Year Plan of the district unfolded a broad strategy aiming at both intensive and extensive development of primary sector, development of infrastructure, providing of basic minimum services, combating poverty and creation of employment opportunities. During the 8th Five-Year Plan it was reported that an amount of Rs.9159.66 lakh was spent. As against this the 9th Plan allocated an amount of Rs. 19000 lakh including Rs. 3200 lakh approved for 1996-97. This did not include allocations in the State sector plan schemes, which were substantial in respect of PDD, higher education, etc.

A look at the Table III.119 presents a mixed picture about the progress of implementation of various rural development programmes/schemes. Although the expenditure pattern has remained more or less normal, physical target achievement has been uneven. It also indicates that establishment of Hill Autonomous Councils have not brought about any appreciable change in the process of implementation of development programmes.

Table III.119
Financial and Physical Progress under EAS, JRY, IAY &
MWS during 1997-98

(Leh) Ladakh)

Financial					Physical			
1997-98	Allocation Total Availability		Expenditure	Target	No. of works taken up	No. of works completed	Mandays Target	Mandays Generated
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1. EAS	500.00	465.427	437.269	650	585	462	3.320	1.698
2. JRY	48.38	112.708	107.540	182	124	100	0.947	6.723
3. IAY	8.78	79.722	43.45	529	512	503	0.070	0.043
4. MWS	4.05	2.459	2.408	12	12	11	0.102	0.436
FINANCIAL AND PHYSICAL PROGRESS UNDER EAS, JRY, IAY & MWS DURING 1998-99								
1. EAS	300.00	280.161	263.32	525	484	315	3.993	2.22
2. JRY	68.28	106.101	98.709	226	195	143	1.328	1.15
3. IAY	13.96	8.109	7.870	68	66	66	0.105	0.97
4. MWS	4.47	4.552	3.239	10	10	09	0.032	0.031
FINANCIAL AND PHYSICAL PROGRESS UNDER EAS, JGSY, IAY DURING 1999-2000								
1. EAS	152.80	170.52	164.009	555	390	184	4.018	1.315
2. JGSY	57.49	48.408	46.420	213	166	65	0.99	0.410
3. IAY	9.57	14.501	14.330	107	107	107	-	-
2001-2002								
1. EAS	92.27	133.938	126.968	197	197	158	1.463	0.943
2. JGSY	56.45	65.675	58.09	121	121	101	0.65	0.517
3. IAY	10.26	10.617	10.32	75	75	71	-	-
Normal								
4. IAY Add.	27.50	13.75	13.75	100	100	85	-	-

Source: Office of the Assistant Commissioner, Development, Leh.

Kargil: Kargil district was carved out of erstwhile District Ladakh in 1979. It lies in the north-east of Kashmir Valley and has an area of 14,036 sq. km. The whole area is composed of rocky mountains at high altitude (ranging from 800 feet to 18,000 feet above sea level), almost totally devoid of natural vegetation. The population of the district was 1,15,227 as per 2001 Census. The density of population is only 5 per sq. km. The District has 129 villages consisting of 461 habitations. The habitations comprise a number of households settled near available irrigation facilities and thinly spread over a large distance.

In Kargil District the scheduled tribes of Ladakh origin constitute about 99 per cent of the total population of the district. Thus the benefits of the plans in the district squarely flow to the scheduled tribes.

During the 8th Five-Year Plan, an amount of Rs. 8994.93 lakh was spent under

district plan in Kargil District. For the 9th Five-Year Plan, an amount of Rs. 19,000 lakh (with Rs. 13024.87 lakh as capital component) was to be spent, including Rs. 3200 lakh as revised approved outlay for annual plan 1997-98. Some of the important rural development schemes in operation during the 9th plan period were as under:

(a) *J.R.Y*

Under JRY an amount of Rs. 100 lakh was proposed as State share for achievement of targets for construction of 50 khuls, 70 foot bridges, 40 tanks, housing subsidy for 165 houseless persons and construction of 5500 poly greenhouses during the 9th Five-Year Plan period.

(b) *I.R.D.P*

An amount of Rs. 160 lakh was proposed under IRDP during the 9th Five-Year Plan period. About 1,000 youth were provided training under TRYSEM programme and 200 groups formed under the DWCRA scheme during 1997-2002.

(c) *E.A.S.*

An amount of Rs. 700 lakh was proposed as the State share for implementation of EAS. The scheme envisaged a physical target of 100 motorable roads, 450 foot tracks, 30 bridges, 96 primary school buildings, 100 latrines, 100 khuls, 90 water storage tanks 400 community beats and 400 protection bunds during the 9th Five-Year Plan period.

EVALUATION STUDIES

No comprehensive evaluation studies have been taken up to determine the drawbacks and impact of various development interventions made in the State. However, a couple of studies, although limited in scope, have been undertaken from time to time by various agencies to study one or other aspect of various development schemes implemented in Jammu & Kashmir State for the past few decades.¹⁰ The findings of these studies have been summarized in the 'Report of the Committee on Economic Reforms for Jammu & Kashmir' August, 1999.'The following are the main highlights based on the findings of these studies:

10 These studies include: Evaluation of IRDP in two districts of Udhampur & Anantnag, NIRD-1986; Evaluation Study of IRDP by the Directorate of Economics & Statistics of J&K Govt; Bhat, Bakshi- Evaluation of IRDP in Ganderbal Block of Srinagar district, 1988-89; Post-evaluation report of TRYSEM scheme, and Evaluation study of EAS in Udhampur district-1994-95.

- ❑ One of the factors responsible for the ineffectiveness of various development programmes/schemes as highlighted by more than one study relates to identification and selection of beneficiaries. The analysis of the findings reveals that identification/selection of beneficiaries for various rural development schemes was not carried out in strict accordance with guidelines. A number of families identified/selected did not belong to below poverty line segment of population. In some cases, it was also found that the poorest of poor, who should have received priority among BPL families, were left out. It seems that this trend continues even now. One of the reasons is that in some cases, VLW was found to be main source for identification of beneficiaries rather than BPL survey/register. This is a very unhealthy trend and needs to be checked.

- ❑ The aforementioned findings are substantiated by the fact that in a number of cases, no baseline survey was undertaken for identification/selection of beneficiaries. In some cases where these surveys were taken up, the results contradict both national as well as planning department estimates. Some studies have attributed it to the indifferent attitude of top-level executives at State level towards such surveys.

- ❑ The State of Jammu & Kashmir, because of its geo-physical features, has many remote and far-flung area, which deserve special attention in terms of development interventions. The studies show that these areas of the State did not receive adequate attention in the coverage of various development schemes as was originally envisaged.

- ❑ The implementation of development schemes/programmes in the State has been sluggish and falling short of the targets. The studies reveal that in a number of cases, the actual achievement has been only to the extent of one-third of the target set in the beginning.

- ❑ A major lacuna which rural development organizations suffer from relates to inadequate database. The database/information available about various development schemes/programmes, their coverage and achievements, suffer from serious gaps and inconsistencies. Even in the preparation of the State Development Report, such gaps and inconsistencies were encountered which at times made it difficult to draw any inferences.

- ❑ The schemes/programmes perform well and have high chances of sustainability if proper backward and forward linkages are established. The studies have found that development schemes/programmes in the state have not been able to establish such linkages, which has adversely affected their performance and sustainability.
- ❑ Training is not a short exercise. Further, it gains value if knowledge and skills acquired through it are properly utilized. This is particularly true of schemes/programmes with a heavy training component, e.g., TRYSEM. The findings of the studies reveal that not more than 10 per cent of the trained youth under TRYSEM have utilized their training.
- ❑ Monitoring plays an important in the effective implementation of various development schemes/programmes. It is therefore, necessary that adequate monitoring mechanisms are kept in place. The studies have shown lack of adequate monitoring mechanism in the implementation of development schemes in the State.
- ❑ A number of rural development schemes have creation of durable assets as one of their objectives. The success of the programme/scheme depends upon how well these assets are maintained. The studies reveal that the maintenance of assets created through various development schemes was very poor.
- ❑ The durability of assets created depends, to a large extent, on the quality of material used. As per some of the studies, the quality of material used and quality of work done leaves a lot to be desired.
- ❑ Some studies have pointed out very interesting and significant aspects of the process of implementation of various schemes. In number of projects/works, the physical targets were not achieved, though the earmarked expenditure was shown to have been incurred. These are significant aspects having long-term implications, if not addressed immediately.
- ❑ The beneficiaries are at the receiving end of the development process. They face their own problems during their encounter with development interventions.

The studies show that the main difficulties faced by the beneficiaries include lack of knowledge about management of assets, lack of marketing facilities, official delays particularly in processing of applications and, in some cases, lack of veterinary facilities, etc.

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

Poverty and rural development in the state of Jammu & Kashmir is full of challenges and opportunities. Rural development is one of the most significant sectors having a bearing on all other development sectors. In a state like Jammu & Kashmir, which is predominantly rural in character, any rural development intervention has to be carefully planned and implemented. All available evidences-whether in the form of evaluation studies, physical targets and achievements or outlays and expenditure, reveal that rural development interventions made in the state were not well implemented. An overview of such interventions indicate that they contributed only to some extent in improving the conditions of the rural poor in the State. There are a number of factors which seem to have contributed to such a state of affairs, which will be discussed later.

LACK OF ADEQUATE AND RELIABLE DATABASE

One of the basic and crucial problems, which one encounters while taking stock of various development activities initiated in the state is lack of adequate and reliable data base. The information and data collected from various sources vary considerably even on similar parameters, making it difficult to draw any inferences. These gaps and inconsistencies in data, even within various government sources, were found to be so wide it becomes difficult to justify them. It is hard to believe that even the planning documents have inbuilt gaps and variations which hinder knowledge about the actual magnitude of the problem. It is, therefore, necessary that an adequate and reliable data base is built on an urgent basis as a first step to know the magnitude of problems on one hand, and development assistance needed on the other.

ESTIMATION OF BELOW POVERTY LINE (BPL) POPULATION

There cannot be a better example of inadequate data base than estimation of population living below poverty line in J&K State. The Planning Department document has provided a figure of 57 per cent based on results of the survey conducted with 1991-92 as the reference year. They claimed in their 9th Plan document that 7.86 lakh families (including Ladakh region) fall in the category of "below poverty line" as per the normative basis of income level of Rs. 11,000 per annum (or 57 per cent of total households). They also admit in the same document

that these figures are higher than the Planning Commission figure of 25 per cent, which, according to them, has been worked out by the expert group of the Planning Commission on the basis of studies. Then there is poverty line data given by State Governments Information Department which puts the figures at 3.98 per cent. These are also figures which are very close to a recent estimation of Planning Commission, (Saxena, N.C Poverty estimation for 1999-2000) which puts it at 3.48 per cent with a 30-day recall period. How can one reconcile 57 per cent on the one hand and 3.98 per cent on the other? It seems that none of them is correct, if one looks at the data and information provided by the Directorates of Rural Development in Jammu & Srinagar who are responsible for implementing poverty alleviation programmes in the state. According to their estimates in the Kashmir Division, it ranges from 49 per cent in Pulwama district to 73 per cent in Srinagar district. With all these estimations the picture which emerges is quite confusing.

It is therefore, essential that all necessary steps are taken for realistic estimation of people and families living below the poverty line in the state. It will be futile to continue pumping money into the state for poverty alleviation programmes without having a realistic estimation of poverty in the State.

INTEGRATION AND CONVERGENCE OF POVERTY ALLEVIATION PROGRAMMES

Poverty alleviation programmes are being implemented without exploring possibilities of integration or convergence at the grassroots level. It seems that the implementation machinery remains more pre-occupied with achievement of individual targets rather than working towards the cumulative impact of these programmes. There is great scope for high degree of convergence which can be attempted at district level by integrating various developmental interventions having more or less similar objectives. For example, in the state of Jammu & Kashmir, the Govt. of India through the Ministry of Human Resources Development has recently introduced a scheme called 'Sawadhar'. This is meant for socio-economic and psychological rehabilitation of militancy-hit, traumatized and other women in distress. The basic idea is to provide shelter, food, clothing and care to the marginalized women and girls, ensuring their socio-economic rehabilitation through education and vocational training for skill upgradation. There is great scope for integration and convergence of this scheme with rural development schemes being focused on women. In the state of Jammu & Kashmir, the concept of 'District Development Board' still exists, which can make such convergence possible. There are a number of other schemes providing similar scope for integration which need to be identified. The convergence needs to be attempted.

ACCOUNTABILITY AND FUND UTILIZATION

A modest attempt at analyzing the implementation of various rural development programmes provides a very sad picture in terms of accountability and fund utilization. A number of poverty alleviation programmes with a large volume of resources have been implemented in the state from time to time. It seemed that these programmes have suffered from numerous defects including poor identification and selection of beneficiaries, absence of linkages between various centrally sponsored development interventions and state specific/funded programmes, inadequate data base, lack of effective monitoring mechanism and large leakages of funds. All these can be attributed to lack of accountability. The Report of the committee on Economic Reforms for J&K in its concluding remarks on analysis of various evaluation studies on poverty and rural development states, "These illustrative cases bring out the severity of the problem. It can be seen that in spite of large government expenditure the impact on the ground has been minimal. The weaknesses are in policy formulation and its execution. The design of schemes and programmes leaves a great deal to be desired. There are severe weaknesses and gaps in the implementation programmes. The supervision over field organizations has deteriorated. There are large leakages of funds."

A disturbing feature of the rural development interventions in the state is the implementation mechanism adopted for the major poverty alleviation programmes/schemes and their fund utilization. It seems that instead of helping rural poor to come out of the poverty trap, these interventions have further drifted them into it. These programmes seem to have failed to generate adequate levels of income to bring the rural poor above poverty line on a sustainable basis. In a state where majority of rural poor are at the poverty line rather than far below it, the amount of money pumped in through various development programmes should have resulted in complete rural prosperity. Instead, it seems that the number of people below poverty line is on the increase. There is thus a strong need to have a serious look at the entire implementation mechanism and fund utilization before more money is pumped in.

3. IMPROVEMENT IN GOVERNANCE OF DEVELOPMENT

The term ‘governance’ is widely used by various agencies in a broad perspective. The dictionary meaning of the term, is, ‘the act or manner of governing’ (Oxford English Dictionary), but now its definition has been widened to cover much more. A UNDP policy document states that “governance includes the state, but transcends it by taking in the private sector and civil society. All three are critical for sustaining human development. The state creates a conducive political and legal environment. The private sector generates jobs and income. And civil society facilitates political and social interaction-mobilizing groups to participate in economic, social and political activities.”

The World Bank defines governance as the “manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social resources for development.” It covers three distinct aspects of governance:

- (i) the form of political regime,
- (ii) the process by which authority is exercised in the management of the country’s economic and social resources; and
- (iii) the capacity of the government to design, formulate and implement policies and programmes and discharge its functions.

In fact, some of the definitions even talk in terms of good governance and bad governance. The World Bank defines good governance and bad governance thus:

‘Predictable, open and enlightened policy making, a bureaucracy imbued with professional ethos acting in furtherance of public good, the rule of law, transparent processes, and a strong civil society participation in public affairs. Poor governance, on the other hand, is characterised by arbitrary policy making, unaccountable bureaucracies, un-enforced or unjust legal systems, the abuse of executive power, a civil society unengaged in public life, and widespread corruption. Good governance fosters strong state capable of sustained economic and social development and institutional growth. Poor governance undermines all efforts to improve policymaking and to create durable institutions. (World Bank, 1997)

Going by these definitions, one can clearly analyze that governance is related to all aspects, be they social, economic and/or political. The question is, how can this

system of governance be improved to get the maximum benefit. Many thinkers have given various indicators from time to time to define the way things are governed, and can be improved. Some of the most important indicators are accountability, transparency, participation of all concerned etc. When we say improvement in governance of development, the basic idea is to spell out the indicators for good governance. Some points which can be kept in mind are:

- ❑ Effective implementation of policies/schemes
- ❑ People's participation
- ❑ Friendly/approachable bureaucracy
- ❑ Simple procedures to access schemes/other benefits
- ❑ Area (where these programmes will be implemented)
- ❑ Feasible schemes (should be according to needs of the area)
- ❑ Involvement of the local governing bodies
- ❑ Check and balance system (through Committees).

One of the most important aspects is that these schemes should be according to the local conditions of the area. At times the schemes are such that their implementation becomes a big burden on the locals, as they are not suitable for the area. As the plans are prepared at the national/state levels, it is not only difficult to keep local conditions in mind but also impractical. That is why, these days the emphasis is on local governance.

People's participation is also important because without it, the implementation becomes ineffective. The procedures of availing the benefits of schemes need to be simple and less time-consuming, otherwise the meaning of such programmes is lost altogether. Plans should be prepared at the village/district level so that they are more suited to local conditions. In other words, they should be more local than universal in nature.

Involvement of local bodies is a must. Implementation of schemes becomes easier if local bodies like PRIs, etc., are involved in implementation of these schemes. However, to minimise the monopoly of a single body in implementing the schemes/plans, a committee can be constituted at a higher level so that monitoring and evaluation become easier.

Good governance requires accountability by public officials: both elected political leaders and civil servants whose public function is to serve the community at large.

Second, good governance requires transparency in public procedures, processes, investment decisions, contracts and appointments. It is not sufficient that information simply be available, it must also be reliable and presented in useful and understandable ways to facilitate accountability.¹

As mentioned earlier, the emphasis nowadays is on local governance. Programmes are now being implemented through local bodies only and people have high expectations from the representatives who have been elected to these local levels. Thus accountability, transparency and participation are the main factors approved of by people as comprising good governance.

Accountability: All elected members should be accountable to the people. In other words, there should be a mechanism by which these representatives can be removed and or penalised in case they fail to perform. They should not misuse their office to acquire special favours or benefits.

Transparency: Information about decisions and actions taken by various authorities concerned should be made public. The right to information is essential for people to judge whether their representatives have done justice to the work assigned to them. This information has to be complete and unbiased.

Participation: This implies the inputs given by authority and includes people's participation. Participation of all is necessary, whether directly or indirectly (through representatives), to make the system more accountable and transparent.²

THE EXISTING PATTERN OF GOVERNANCE IN J&K

The state machinery functions on the pattern which is being followed everywhere in the country. However, one unique aspect here is that it follows the system of Single-line Administration. In this system, planning is done at the district level by the district officials concerned. The MLAs and MPs of that particular area are part of this planning. Funds are earmarked for various development projects and at the end of the year an assessment is done to take an account of the works accomplished. If it is felt that funds need to be diverted or redirected towards some other activities, then those decisions are taken on the spot. The Chief Minister also takes stock of planning done at district level.

1 Source: "Governance: South Asian Perspective" (Ed.), Hasnat Abdul Hye, New Delhi, 2000.

2 Decentralization and Good Governance: A Framework of Decentralization for Sustainable Community Development, Norman Uphoff.

However, everything is not always very smooth. During our visit to the state we interacted with many officials who opined that government machinery has been affected by the militancy in the state. Two-third of the state had been severely hit by militants due to which the outreach of government officials also got affected. As the free movement of government officials has been hampered, they are not as easily accessible to one and all as they should be. This is partly due to security being beefed up after threats by militants. Some of the proactive and development-oriented officials have suffered the most because they have become the direct targets of militants.

The concept of governance in the context of Jammu & Kashmir needs to be elaborated and detailed. Long spells of Governor's rule, suspension of municipalities and other local bodies and non-existence of panchayats have had a bearing on the governance of the state. Above all, prolonged militancy has had an adverse affect on governance. While quite a few states of the Indian Union inherited the system of administration evolved during the British rule, the state of J&K had no such system. As a result, even during normal times, the governance in the state was marked by arbitrariness and lack of systems and precedents. The level of corruption, both at the political and bureaucratic levels, was fairly high. consequently, the benefits of various economic development plans initiated by the state government did not percolate to the poorer sections of the society.

It was brought to our notice that at times militants forcibly siphoned off with the development funds, especially in the border areas. For example, wherever militants dominate, they also availed the benefits of various schemes by registering themselves as beneficiaries and sidelining the real needy by threatening them.

There have also been frequent complaints about regional imbalance in economic development. While the geographical situation, topography and lack of infrastructure have largely been responsible for this imbalance, there has been a widely held belief or perception that there is an urgent need to evolve the political and administrative will to bring about balanced development.

The supervising officers who are supposed to monitor implementation of development schemes fight shy of stepping into the interiors. This is particularly applicable in respect of health schemes, education sector, and road and irrigation schemes. Even in normal times, the dropout rate at schools was comparatively high, as was the number of unfilled posts at primary health centres and other rural-based dispensaries. Militancy has further compounded the situation and reduced the efficacy of administration.

There is need to revive and activate the panchayats and revitalise the administration

at grassroots level. The Secretaries and Head of Departments (HoDs) also need to tour more frequently and intensely than has been the case so far. It would be appropriate to have periodic district-level meetings attended by officers of various departments at district level as well as Secretariat officers and HoDs so that the local problems can be ascertained and their redressal effected within a time-bound period.

In the absence of railways and air service, the only effective and prevalent mode of transport in the state is the road transport. The poor maintenance of roads and bridges and destruction of roads, bridges and other links in the wake of militancy, have rendered the job of administration quite difficult.

To overcome these problems, it becomes imperative to take a few measures that will prove beneficial in the long run. At present, single-line administration is not very successful, there is a need to maintain a balance between the security of officials and attending to people's needs. The security of officials should never become a hindrance in approaching these very officials when people want their grievances to be redressed. Proper follow-up of these complaints/grievances should be done.

The growing distrust between various communities, the increasing disparities in regional development and perceptible alienation and cynicism of the general public are the issues that need to be addressed urgently and imaginatively.