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Mulamkunnathukavu P.O., Thrissur – 680581

Phone: 0487-2207000 (Office), 0487-2201312 (Director), 2201062 (Fax)

e-mail: info@kila.ac.in

Website: www.kila.ac.in



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Editorial

There is a call for 'back to nature' as climate change and natural calamities are on the increase. Unpredicted weather changes either drought or rain has serious impacts on the eco systems and livelihoods. The state of Kerala is also witnessing the severe impacts of climate change with frequent floods, landslides, extreme heat resulting a serious setback at the economic, health and other allied sectors. The local governments in Kerala could play a pivotal role at the grassroot level to accomplish the task of rehabilitation of the affected. Even though legally, local bodies have limited role in disaster management Kerala local governments actively participate in the rescue and rehabilitation process and also for regaining eco system.

This compendium of articles that deals with different aspects of disasters and climate change comes at a time when serious discussion is going across the world about building an eco-friendly development pattern using nature based solutions. There are three articles in this volume relating to this topic. Articles on empowering women and children, innovative practices and social accountability through social audit also have been included. A shift from training to capacity development of local governments is another topic finding a place in this volume. For making local governments more effective these types of different views are essential and KILA is always trying to bring variety of areas for open discussion in this regard.

Chief Editor

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Disaster Management in Bangladesh: Understanding the Role of Local Governments

Over the years, Bangladesh has gained credibility and repute across the world as a defender to disaster management. The Standing Order on Disasters endows the local governments to cope with disaster. Government of Bangladesh has already expressed its commitment to invest more in the risk reduction framework. Government is implementing several programmes to shift the whole paradigm of disaster management from a response and recovery culture to a risk reduction culture. However, an effective emergency response system remains at the forefront of disaster management efforts. This paper converses the epitome of coordination in the comprehensive disaster management approach under the auspices of local governments particularly Union Parishad.

Dr. Mohammad Tarikul Islam*

* Associate Professor, Government and Politics, Jahangirnagar University, Bangladesh, Email: t.islam@juniv.edu

1. Introduction

The disasters are both natural and man-made. But the root causes of some of the seemingly natural disasters may also be certain human activities carried on in utter disregard of their consequences to the nature. Such natural disasters are therefore preventable. Since all man-made disasters and some of the so called natural disasters are preventable, the media can educate people about the consequences of their dangerous actions and operations. More and in-depth education on the subject becomes necessary where the human activities and the natural calamities they lead to, are separated by a period of time (Islam, 2014). The floods, droughts and water logging situations are many times directly traceable to the human activity, while drainage mismanagement, air and water-pollution, environmental degradation and global warming are all clearly on account of the man's misdeeds. Some excavations and destruction of forests are responsible for landslides and mudflows, while according to some experts, some earthquakes are caused by the construction of the large dams and by impounding large quantities of water in them.

According to the definition of International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UN/ISDR) "Disaster is a serious disruption of the functioning of society, posing a significant, widespread threat to human life, health, property or the environment, whether caused by accident, nature or human activity, and whether developing suddenly or as a result of complex, long-term processes." Bangladesh is undeniably the world's most disaster prone country. Recurring disasters demolish the economic resource base of the poor people and drain out the economic potentials. Effective humanitarian coordination aims to ensure the best use of resources to reach the most appropriate and relevant response to the needs of people affected by natural disasters. The impacts and vulnerabilities of disasters could be minimized with the making of proper disaster management planning and by incorporating disaster management activities (risk reduction, response and recovery) with local and national development plan (UNCRD, 1992). It is apparent that, effective coordination is an essential ingredient for disaster management. Bangladesh has gained credibility and repute across the world as a defender to disaster management.

The landscape setting and geographical setting of Bangladesh makes it one of the most disaster-prone countries in the world, highly vulnerable to natural disasters including large-scale and flash flooding, tidal surges, typhoons and cyclones, earthquakes, droughts and suffering due to cold weather in winter season. Every year people are suffering many things by that kind of natural hazards. Among the major natural hazards in Bangladesh, cyclones and floods are very frequent along with riverbank erosion, droughts, flash floods, seasonal storms and tornadoes, as well as a few man-made hazards, such as fires, building

collapses, ferry tragedies, road accidents, etc. Bangladesh is also at risk from earthquakes, tsunamis, the impact of climate changes, along with a new dimension in urban risks due to its fast growing and increasing density of population (Ministry of Food and Disaster Management, 2011). Climate change adaptation issues particularly need consideration both at a national and community level. This has great impact on the hazard frequency and severity, particularly in case of floods and droughts.

Government of Bangladesh has already expressed its commitment to invest more in the risk reduction framework. Government is implementing several programmes to shift the whole paradigm of disaster management from a response and recovery culture to a risk reduction culture. However, an effective emergency response system remains at the forefront of disaster management efforts. In Bangladesh, where about 70% people live in rural area confronted with various natural disasters and threats. As per the revised Standing Order on Disasters (SOD), Union Parishad is the representative body of the local government that plays a vital role to ensure social safety and reduce disaster vulnerability of the people living in rural Bangladesh (Islam, 2018).

2. Defining Disaster Management

Disaster management aims to reduce, or avoid the potential losses from hazards, assure prompt and appropriate assistance to victims of disaster, and achieve rapid and effective recovery. The Disaster management cycle illustrates the ongoing process by which governments, businesses, and civil society plan for and reduce the impact of disasters, react during and immediately following a disaster, and take steps to recover after a disaster has occurred. Appropriate actions at all points in the cycle lead to greater preparedness, better warnings, reduced vulnerability and the prevention of disasters during the next reiteration of the cycle.

The complete disaster management cycle includes the shaping of public policies and plans that either modify the causes of disasters or mitigate their effects on people, property, and infrastructure. The mitigation and preparedness phases occur as disaster management improvements are made in anticipation of a disaster event. Developmental considerations play a key role in contributing to the mitigation and preparation of a community to effectively confront a disaster. As a disaster occurs, disaster management actors, particularly humanitarian organizations become involved in the immediate response, medium and long-term recovery phases. The four disaster management phases illustrated below do not always, or even generally, occur in isolation or in this precise order. Often phases of the cycle overlap and the length of each phase greatly depends on the severity of the disaster.

- [i] Mitigation - Minimizing the effects of disaster. For examples: building codes and zoning; vulnerability analyses & public education.
- [ii] Preparedness - Planning how to respond. Examples: preparedness plans; emergency exercises/training; warning systems.
- [iii] Response - Efforts to minimize the hazards created by a disaster. Examples: search and rescue; emergency relief.
- [iv] Recovery - Returning the community to normal. Examples: temporary housing; grants; medical care.

3. Localizing Disaster Management through Union Disaster Management Committee

The national disaster management institutional structure acknowledges the importance of the institutional presence up to local level for comprehensive disaster management. Union Parishad is the lowest tier of the local government in Bangladesh. It is the representative unit of the local people and is dedicated to serve the rural people in many ways. The existing structure has formal provision of disaster network up to union level. In this structure, the line agencies actually participate under the coordination of either UNO (Upazila Administrative Head) or at union level through the coordination of Union Parishad Chairman (which is an Elected Position).

3.1 Union Disaster Management Committee (UDMC)

As per the revised SOD (Government of Bangladesh, 2008), the composition and functions of UDMC are as follows: Union Parishad Chairman, Members of the Union Parishad, Teacher Representative (Nominated by Chairman), Government officials working at Union Level (Sub-Assistant Agriculture Officer, Union Health and Family Planning Centre in-charge, Union Tax Collector (Tahshildar), BRDB Field Worker, Representative of Social welfare department, Representative of Vulnerable Women (Nominated by Chairman), Representative of the CPP (in appropriate case), Representative of Bangladesh Red Crescent Society (in appropriate case), Representatives of NGOs (one representative each from Local, National and International NGOs nominated by the Chairman), Representative of the Peasant and Fishermen Society (If no society, person will be nominated by Chairman), Socially Reputed Persons or Civil Society Representatives (Nominated by the Chairman), Representative of Freedom Fighter (Nominated by Upazila Freedom Fighters Command Council), Imam/Priest/Other religious leader (Nominated by Chairman), Imam/Priest/Other religious leader (Nominated by Chairman), Representative of Ansar and VDP (Nominated by Upazila Ansar VDP Officer), Secretary,

Union Parishad (as Member Secretary). The Chairperson of the Committee can co-opt a maximum of 3 (three) more members and form groups and sub-groups considering the local situation and special circumstances.

3.1.1. Meeting Calendar of the UDMC

- i. During normal time, the committee will meet once a month.
- ii. During warning phase and pre-disaster period, the committee shall meet more than once a week.
- iii. During disaster period the committee shall meet as and when needed (once daily), at least once in a week.
- iv. In recovery phase the committee will meet once a week.
- v. The committee can meet any time if needed or part of the committee can meet with the other development committees bi-laterally or multilaterally.
- vi. The committee can request any member(s) or specialist(s) of the locality to attend any particular meeting.
- vii. Quorum will be constituted by 1/3rd members of the committee during normal period and post-disaster period. During warning phase and disaster period, quorum will be constituted by 1/4th members of the committee.
- viii. An updated list of members of UDMC will have to be submitted to UzDMC by 15 January of each year duly signed by the chairperson of the UDMC. The list must be submitted irrespective of any changes in the composition of the committee.

3.1.2. Responsibilities of Union Disaster Management Committee

I. Risk Reduction

- Ensure that local people are kept informed and capable of taking practical measures for the reduction of risk at household and community level and also disseminate the success stories of reducing disaster risks at household and community level widely among the local people.
- Hold a hazard, vulnerability and risk analysis at Union level and prepare risk reduction action plan (RRAP) and contingency plan for earthquake and other hazards.
- Prepare a short, medium and long-term vulnerability reduction and capacity building action plan for the identified high-risk people with active participation of the people at risk.
- Raise fund at local level to implement the risk reduction action plan.

- Update the progress of implementation of action plan and other activities and report to the Upazila DMC
- Prepare a Comprehensive Disaster Management Action Plan with a view to enabling local people, Union authority and local organizations to increase the capacity of poor and vulnerable people to enhance their income and other assets for risk reduction and also to take up security arrangement in the perspective of imminent danger-related warnings or occurrence of disaster including the issues already mentioned under this paragraph.
- Take steps for capacity building of relevant persons and institutions, Union authority, volunteers and people in a way that they can forecast and publicize warnings relating to hazards (cyclones, storms, floods, droughts, tidal surge, tsunami, over-rainfall under-rainfall, water logging, high tide, cold wave etc.) in the quickest possible manner and also inform people about their responsibilities of saving their lives and properties from disaster.
- Build the capacity of local institutions, volunteers and people in a way that they can help and motivate people to adapt with disaster resistance in all areas. Determine specific safe centres/shelters where the population of certain areas will go at the time of need and assign responsibilities to different persons for various services and securities at the shelters/centres.
- Train the students, youths, local club members and volunteers on community-based water purification technology. So that during disaster, they can supply water-purifying technology during emergencies in their community until external support reaches the high-risk people.
- Plan for preparing some community-based high land, which can be used as a playground in normal time and can be used as a shelter place during disaster period and where livestock, poultry, emergency food, kerosene, lamp, candle, matches, fuel wood, radio and other important resources could be shifted along with the people.
- Stock emergency life-saving medicines at Union level (Union Health and Family Welfare Centre) for use during disaster.
- Prepare relevant plans for rescue, primary relief operation, and restoration of communication with Upazila Headquarters and local arrangement for rehabilitation of severely affected families.

II. EMERGENCY RESPONSE

Warning Period

- Disseminate warning and security messages, evacuate the

vulnerable people as per evacuation plan, monitor the last moment check of rescue team and its preparation and take effective measures to minimize gaps as a high priority.

- Engage trained institutions, volunteers and people in field for effective and rapid dissemination of early warning messages to the vulnerable community and monitor the whole security and warning message dissemination activities.
- Visit the pre-determined emergency shelter centres and be sure that for essential services and security different organizations and volunteers are alert and ready to provide services.
- Review the practicality of water supply sources nearby the shelters/centres and if necessary, fill the gaps that people can get safe water supply during disaster from these water sources.
- On a minimum scale, conduct a mock or drill to ensure that the trained students, youths, clubs and volunteers can prepare water-purification technology at their locality and can supply to the victims during emergencies and to monitor that adequate materials are ready to prepare such water-purification technology.
- Review the stock of life-saving medicines at Union level and evaluate its adequacy for supply among the victims during disaster.
- To prepare a checklist of emergency works to-do during disaster and be sure that appropriate materials and people are available for use.

During Disaster

- Organize emergency rescue work by using locally available facilities in times of need and if directed assist others in rescue work.
- Prepare water purification technology (tablet) at local level with the help of trained students, youths, clubs and volunteers; and distribute those products at emergency among the people at risk before being caught by diarrhea or other waterborne diseases.
- Coordinate all relief activities (GO-NGO) in the Union in a manner that social justice (on the basis of who needs, what is needed and how much is needed) is ensured in relief distribution.
- Protect people from becoming upset by rumors during hazard period by providing them correct and timely information.
- During hazard, ensure security of local and external relief workers.
- Ensure the security of women, children and person with disability during hazard.
- Take necessary actions to protect environmental degradation by

arranging quick funeral of corpses and burying the dead animal bodies.

- Help people to transfer their essential resources (livestock, poultry, essential food, kerosene, candle, matches, fuel, radio, etc.) to safe places.

Post-Disaster Period

- Collect statistics of loss incurred in disaster in the light of guidelines of DMB and Upazila DMC and send the same to Upazila DMC.
- Take steps for distribution of articles for rehabilitation received locally or from Relief and Rehabilitation Directorate and from any other source following the guidelines from DMB and Upazila DMC.
- Send accounts of materials received to UDMC and donor agency (if the donor provided relief funds).
- Ensure that due to hazard the people who were displaced can return to their previous place. In this case, dispute (if any) regarding the land of the displaced people should not be an obstacle to returning to the place after disaster.
- Arrange counseling for people suffering from psycho-trauma due to the disaster, with the collaborative support of experts and community elites.
- Ensure that the injured people are getting fair and just treatment from health service providers, if necessary; committee can recommend for Upazila and District level assistance.
- Arrange a lesson-learning session with the participation of concern institutions and individuals on learning from during hazard and after hazard.

4. How Effective Union Parishad Disaster Management Committee Is?

The Government of Bangladesh has taken a number of significant steps during the last decades for building up institutional arrangements from national to the union (lower) levels for effective and systematic disaster management. Apart from the institution building, legislative development also facilitates mitigation to the sufferings of disaster victims in Bangladesh. To maintain proper coordination amongst the concerned Ministries, Departments, Line Agencies, Local Government Body and Community People, and also to ensure their proper functioning to diminish sufferings of the people, the Government of Bangladesh has formulated a set of apparatuses from national down to the grass-root levels. For these mechanisms to be best operative,

the Standing orders on Disaster (SOD) act as a guidebook. As per SOD, Disaster Management Committees are found to be in place starting from the National Disaster Management Council headed by the Honorable Prime Minister functioning to the Union Disaster Management Committee (UDMC) headed by the Chairman of the Union Parishad.

In accordance with the SOD, UDMC will be consisting of 36 members while the chairperson of the Committee can co-opt a maximum of 3 (three) more members and form groups and sub-groups considering the local situation and special circumstances. UDMC has been given mandate to act as the rural disaster management entity and it is supposed to play role in disaster preparedness, mitigation, emergency response and post disaster rehabilitation. UDMC must ensure that local people are kept informed and capable of taking practical measures for the reduction of risk at household and community level and also disseminate the success stories of reducing disaster risks at household and community level widely among the local people and will hold a hazard, vulnerability and risk analysis at Union level and prepare risk reduction action plan (RRAP) and contingency plan for earthquake and other hazards. UDMC will facilitate coordination among the development agencies and service providers through quarterly coordination meeting and take decision about implementation of the action plan for risk reduction as well as review the progress of the risk reduction action plan. It will work to raise fund at local level to implement the risk reduction action plan.

Unfortunately, local people particularly of vulnerable groups have a very limited access to UDMC's meeting deliberations and decisions. This largely signifies that the local vulnerable group members have very limited information about the role, mandates and functioning of the disaster management committee in the ground level. There was no evidence of any role being played by UDMC in pre-disaster period. General perception from the community level consultation revealed that, disaster risk management is still a secondary priority and not well integrated into different programmes being implemented by Union Parishad. Persons who manage and lead Disaster Management Committees are not expert in Disaster management but the SOD gave them authority to coordinate and manage disaster management efforts. Political leadership at local level is not involved to lead the disaster management and therefore, people's interest and sense of accountability are not reflected.

People exposed to disaster vulnerability never get access to know disaster management programme executed by the Upazila and District administration in Bangladesh. On the other hand, Union Disaster Management Committee headed by the Union Chairman has been in paper as chairman and other members are not well trained about

the procedure of committee to run. Besides, Upazila Administration particularly Upazila Nirbahi Officer and Project Implementation Officer are not supportive to make the Union level Disaster Management Committee effective as resource allocated for disaster management is handled by both officer of the government.

For effectiveness of the UDMC to address the challenges of disaster preparedness, it must organize UDMC meeting on a regular basis both pre, during and post disaster phases; raise dedicated fund for disaster risk reduction; set up disaster warning station in each UP office; construct and maintain disaster shelter center within the UP complex; formation of volunteer team under each UP for emergency response; initiate training on disaster preparedness and emergency response; create social awareness campaign on disaster management; and ensure rapid and timely coordination. Beside these, community involvement in the process of hazard vulnerability and resources assessment, plan formulation and implementation of the preparedness and mitigation solutions leads to effectiveness of UDMC.

The community participation in UDMC activities builds confidence, pride and capabilities to pursue disaster preparedness and mitigation as well as development responsibilities at the local level. Capacity building and public awareness activities through UDMC enables the communities to increase participation and eventually, to sustain even on their own the preparedness and mitigation activities. Concerned government departments including Department of Disaster Management, NGOs two women in each UDMC does not go far enough to ensure that the needs and capacities of women are represented.

There is no evidence or analysis available on whether women are able to participate and influence the UDMCs. Support and capacity building of UDMCs is unmapped. There are a number of activities to build the capacity of the Disaster Management Committees but it is not possible to access this information or understand where committees are functioning and where they are not. Elected local government representatives at Union and Upazila levels are key actors for all field level Disaster Risk Reduction activities where resources are allocated at the national level through district administration. But in this highly populous country with multiple hazards affecting the communities round the year, the volume of allocated resources is not sufficient to support the initiatives.

5. Conclusion

There is a need to work with the government on establishing good quality information on “disaster events” in order to establish their scope quickly, and any gaps in the government’s capacity to respond. This should include strong advocacy on the importance of sharing

information promptly (regardless of the need for assistance) and on the provision of a forum where information generated by non-government actors can be shared broadly. Effort should be made to consider the legitimacy of initiating coordination by mapping out how to trigger a coordinated approach to an event empowering Union Parishad, the first responder in disaster. The international humanitarian community must keep their efforts continue with more community focused interventions that relate directly to preparedness for coordinated response. However, there is growing momentum to address this situation coming from the UN system, the NGOs and the donor community. An alignment of these efforts is needed.

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KILA JOURNAL OF LOCAL GOVERNANCE

Articles Invited

Articles of theoretical and empirical nature on local governance and related areas are invited from policy makers, academicians, research scholars, professionals, extension workers, etc. for the bi-annual publication "KILA Journal of Local Governance"; Contributors are requested to submit the soft copy of their article together with abstract and CV by e-mail to the Editor at: **journal@kila.ac.in**

The abstract (containing 120 words on an average) should be attached separately.

The detailed CV of the author (s) should also be attached separately.

The articles submitted for publication will be subject to scrutiny by the experts. The editor reserves the freedom to revise the text.

The articles should:

- be in MS word format, typed in 1.5 space on A4 size paper, times new roman.
- be of around 2500 words.
- Avoid tables, pictures, graphs, etc. Tables can be given only if it is unavoidable.
- The main headings and sub heading shall be numbered sequentially.

eg. 1.0. Main Heading, 1.1. Sub heading, 1.2. Sub heading
2.0 Main Heading, 2.1 Sub heading.

- number all footnotes serially at the end of the paper.
- provide references to author and year in the text in parenthesis.

eg. (Santhosh.K.P., 2006)

- have a complete and accurate bibliography, placed at the end of the text in the following order.

Author, year: title of the paper, publisher and place.

Eg. Argyris.G., 1997: Personality and Organisation, Haper and Row, New York.

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From Training to Capacity Development for Municipalities: Lessons from Nepal

Training has been considered as an important component in many development projects implemented by government and development partners, by investing significant amount of budget. On the other hand, the reports on these trainings mainly focus on the number of trainings conducted and the number of participants, etc. But what kinds of behavioral changes have occurred in the workplace as a result of these trainings and how they contributed to the achievement of the project goals have not been reported. The project entitled 'Enhancing Local Governance Training through Capacity Enhancement on Research and Analysis (ILGT-CERA)', has been implemented by MoFAGA, LDTA and JICA since January 2016 in Nepal. The author worked with the project team for the project and tried a training design and implementation based on 'Kirkpatrick's 4 level evaluation', which is well known model of training evaluation for enterprise training and professional human resource development. In this paper, the author shares its achievement, issues, lessons and puts forth suggestions for the future capacity building program for local governments in Nepal.

Dr. Takujiro Ito*

* Chief Advisor, ILGT-CERA Project, Nepal, Phone: +977-982-347-5249, e-mail: takuito@icnet.co.jp

1. Background

Training has been considered as an important component in many programs and projects implemented by Governments and Development Partners in Nepal in the past and a large amount of budget has been invested. But unlikely, in most of these trainings, the results have been reported mainly by inputs such as the number of trainings conducted and the number of participants. The effectiveness as well as the constrain and lesson learned for future improvements are not analyzed. In 16 September 2015, a Record of Discussion (R/D) was signed by MoFALD (Ministry of Federal Affairs and Local Development), LDTA (Local Development Training Academy), and JICA (Japan International Cooperation Agency), and a project to improve the LDTA training mechanism was started for the period of four years from January 2016 to December 2019. In this project the current system and methodology of the training of LDTA was examined. This was based on the principles of the Instructional Design (ID), which is the mainstream of the training and human resource development worldwide. And development and validation of the mechanism and instruments for the effective training for local governance in the context of new federalism in Nepal was implemented. This paper presents the findings regarding the design and evaluation of the training implemented by the project team composed by the LDTA Technical Trainers, Japanese Experts, and national Consultants. The Kirkpatrick's four-level evaluation model, which is currently the most renowned model in training evaluation for private enterprise and professional human resources development, was applied. (Kirkpatrick.D and Kirkpatrick.J, 2006).

2. Implementation Outline

2.1. Setting of Performance-based Goal

As part of the training modules developed by the project, Property Tax (PT) was the pilot modules for the validation of the model. Property tax is an important source of revenue for the Municipalities and was introduced by the Government in 2015 as Integrated Property Tax (IPT) and revised 2018, in addition to the existing land revenue. Suzuki.K pointed that for the application of the 4 levels evaluation, the design of the training must be set according 4 levels. (Suzuki.K, 2015). The project team applied Kirkpatrick's 4 level evaluation model for designing the training goal, as below.

Level 1 (Reaction): Satisfaction of the participants regarding the course
Level 2 (Learning): Degree of learning of knowledge and skills
Level 3 (Behavior): Application of the learning in their workplace
Level 4 (Results): The degree of contribution to the institutional goal and performance

Traditional training sets as training objectives mostly knowledge acquisition and some skills for the implementation. This time the project challenge was to set evaluation goal based on the application of the learning in their workplace and contribution to the performance goal of the Municipality. The project team set the following goals for each level and its methodology for assessment.

Level 1:

The general average of the satisfaction of the learners achieved at least 70 percent viz. general impression, facilitator, handouts, contents and methodology. Assessment method is end of course questionnaire.

Level 2:

Participants acquire necessary knowledge, skills, and attitude for the PT implementation and demonstrate their commitment to start the PT implementation. Assessment method is Pre/Post-tests, skill check sheet, and action plan prepared during the training. The goal of the post-test achievement is 70 percent.

Level 3:

Municipality implement 9 steps specified in the guidelines (LDTA 2019). Assessment method is monitoring the Municipalities, using Monitoring Check Sheet.

Level 4:

The goal is to increase the revenue. Assessment method is interview of Mayor, revenue staff, and analysis of the Annual Financial Report of the target Municipality.

2.2. On-site Training and Follow-up

Traditional training basically conducts lectures and exercises to provide basic knowledge and understanding on the subject, inviting one or two revenue staff from each Municipality. As per the experience of initial validation of the training modules, by the traditional method, the Municipalities could not implement successfully the PT. Some of the reasons identified were as follows:

- a. The Municipal assembly members did not authorize the implementation. Sensitization and awareness activity are necessary to change the attitude of the decision makers.
- b. Preparation of the management procedure needs inputs of different stakeholders of the Municipal assembly members.
- c. Zoning of land and determination of minimum valuation rate of property as well as the categorization of houses were difficult to implement by only revenue staff. Support of the Ward members who have detailed information on their Wards is essential for its implementation.

- d. For the valuation of the property and determination of tax after the collection of property, need support of the experienced personnel.
- e. Annual review and evaluation of the PT is not familiar activity for most of the newly established Municipalities. This requires external support for understanding the objective evaluation.

The project team analyzed the cause of the problem during the implementation and identified the following strategy for the implementation:

- a. Instead of training one or two revenue staff from each Municipality, the trainers should visit the Municipality and conduct on-site workshop involving all the decision makers such as Mayor, Deputy Mayor, Chief Executive Officer, revenue staff from Municipality as well as assembly members such as Ward Chairpersons and elected members.
- b. The workshop will have a role not only to provide the knowledge and skills but also to raise the awareness of the decision makers and implementation staff, facilitating to prepare concrete action plan for the implementation of the PT at their Municipality.
- c. The trainers will monitor and follow up the implementation procedure by visiting the Municipality during the most critical steps where they faced difficulty for the implementation.
- d. The trainers will support the evaluation and reflection of the implementation to identify the results as numerical data and extract lesson learned for improvement of the next fiscal year implementation.

3. The Results

The project team conducted on-site PT training for 22 Municipalities and its follow-up is on-going. In this paper, the results of two Municipalities that started the implementation during the previous fiscal year is presented.

3.1. Sample

The two Municipalities are Beni Municipality in Myangdi District of Province 4 and Bhimad Municipality in Tanahun District of Province 4. Following are the interventions made.

- i. Bhimad Municipality: Training 4-6/9/2017, 1st monitoring and on-site follow-up 1/4/2018, 2nd monitoring 17/8/2018, 3rd monitoring 28/12/2018.
- ii. Beni Municipality: Training 6-8/2/2017, sensitization program for stakeholders 9/9/2017, 1st monitoring and on-site follow-up 17-18/9/2017, 2nd monitoring and on-site follow-up 23-24/1/2018,

3rd monitoring 22/8/2018, 4th monitoring 27/12/2018.

3.2. Evaluation Results

Following are the evaluation results for four levels.

Level 1 Evaluation Results

By the questionnaire filled by the participants at the end of the training, following are the results of the satisfaction of the participants.

- i. Bhimad Municipality: a. General Impression 83%, b. Facilitation 73%, c. Handouts 79%, d. Content 77%, e. Methodology 77%, as average of 5 section are 77.65%.
- ii. Beni Municipality: a. General Impression 76%, b. Facilitation 74%, c. Handouts 74%, d. Content 84%, e. Methodology 68%, as average of 5 section are 75.20%.

Level 2 Evaluation Results

Since the training for Beni Municipality was conducted as group training with other Municipalities, here we will present the results of Pre/Post-tests of Bhimad Municipality. The results show that Post-test average marks is 11.5 out of 16 questions (72%), 56% of participants achieved the goal level of 70% and the average of progress from Pre-test to Post-test was 44%. Both Municipality elaborated an action plan specifying the concrete actions with deadlines and responsible for the implementation, and officialized in the presence of the Mayor and Executive members.

Level 3 Evaluation Results

Monitoring was conducted three times for Bhimad Municipality and four times for Beni Municipality and verified the successful implementation of the step 1 to 9. Since these cases were utilized to verify the indicators and instruments for monitoring, the quantitative data will be collected from the next monitoring.

Level 4 Evaluation Results

The timing of evaluation of the results is not appropriate, since the financial report of the Municipalities will be ready by the end of the Nepali Fiscal Year (July 15). The project team worked with the revenue data obtained during the monitoring of the Beni and Bhimad Municipalities in December 2018. Following are the interim results of the PT implementation.

- i. In case of Bhimad Municipality, comparing with Land Revenue collected during first half of fiscal year 2074/2075 with 66,757.45 NPR, after the implementation of the PT, at end of the fiscal year increased to 2,290,491.00 NPR, which signify the increase of 3.5 times comparing with before the implementation of PT.
- ii. In case of Beni Municipality, comparing with land revenue of

276,810.00 NPR in the financial year 2074/2075, it was increased to 2,327,422.52 NPR after the implementation of the PT at middle of the financial year 2075/2076. This signifies the revenue increase by 8.4 times and projected to be increase by 18 times by the end of fiscal year.

Even this data is just an intermediate assessment and not the final evaluation due to the timing of the data collection. We could observe that the successful implementation of the PT could bring remarkable results for increase of revenue at Municipalities.

4. Experiences and Lessons

The proposing model was tried, analyzed, and revised several times during the actual delivery of the training to the Municipalities and still is in the stage of validation and improvement.

4.1. Strategies

Following are the strategies applied in the implementation by the team to obtain the results.

a. **Need Assessment**

The project conducted need assessment to identify the weakness of the Municipalities regarding the PT. And reflected the same to the design of the module and avoided giving unnecessary lectures on the known subject and contents.

b. **Results focused Goal**

The project team set the goal focusing on improvement of the performance (increase of revenue). And this has increased the interest, motivation, and commitment of the Mayor and all stakeholders. As a result, enable the cost sharing for the implementation with Municipality, as well as active participation during the workshops.

c. **Sensitization of the Stakeholders**

Sensitization of the stakeholders was essential to get commitment of the Municipality as institutional level and secure the implementation.

d. **On-site Training**

On-site training at Municipality area enables the participation of all the stakeholders of the PT decision making and implementation. As a result, concrete action plan was prepared with the commitment of the participants.

e. **Action Plan**

The preparation of concrete Action Plan for the implementation during the workshop helped Municipality for the immediate action after the training.

f. **Monitoring and Follow-up**

Monitoring and on-site follow-up of the trainees enhanced the potential of the Municipalities for the improvement of performance. As a result, both Municipalities could achieve successful increase in revenue.

4.2. Lessons

The lessons from the intervention are given below:

a. **Most Demanding Subject**

Each Municipality is composed by approximately 10 Wards and some Wards are very distant or difficult access road, taking in some case 3 to 4 days to arrive.. If the subject is very relevant and expectation is high, the participants are coming without special incentives from the training service providers. We need to identify, develop, and deliver training to fulfill the urgent and demanded subjects of the Municipalities.

b. **Workload**

The effectiveness increased but efficiency for coverage of the training is low, since the trainers must conduct the training one by one Municipalities. Especially for the follow-up and monitoring of the remote Municipalities takes many days to travel, because of the difficult access to Municipalities in mountain areas. It is necessary to create a methodology for follow-up by distance program using information and communication technology.

c. **Cost Sharing**

By proposing the results-based training, many Municipalities demonstrated high interest and accepted to share the cost for the training implementation. But the negotiation takes time and much dedication by the trainers to convince the Municipality. It is essential that trainers have strong commitment for future sustainability.

d. **Capacity Gap**

From the PT training in 22 Municipalities, it is identified that there is capacity gap of Municipalities, which necessitates to establish different follow-up approach according the capacity level of them. Especially the Municipalities with higher capacity could establish some follow-up system to back up; without on-site field activities such as Internet based Q&A and knowledge site, telephone hotline, help desk, etc.

5. Suggestions

Based on the results of the analysis, the following suggestions for the capacity development of the Municipalities, following type of the performance support services according their capacity:

- i. For the Municipalities that can manage the new activities by themselves after the training, on-site training including sensitization program may be organized.
- ii. For the Municipalities that can manage the new activities with some non-direct support, in addition to above, provide telephone-based support (hotlines), web-based support, and Q&A to most common type of difficulties.
- iii. For the Municipalities that can manage the new activities with non-direct and some on-site support, in addition to the above, provide on-site follow-up services to give necessary guidance and consultation.
- iv. For the newly established Municipalities that need more intensive support to conduct new activities, in addition to the all above, provide some special consultancy services as well as special program for capacity development.

During the pilot project, sensitization program, on-site training for specific Municipality as well as monitoring and on-site follow-up services was validated. But in consideration of cost-performance and coverage of the number of Municipalities, new support system needs to be added such as web-based support system, telephone support hotlines, and other special program focused for most disadvantaged Municipalities.

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Development of Selected Sectors under Democratic Governments in Bangladesh: A Comparative Analysis

Over the last few decades, Bangladesh has made some progresses in the socio-economic and demographic sectors. However, these developments are far behind from the desired levels. Both parties (Bangladesh Awami League and Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP)) make it difficult to continue the development process during their ruling times. Despite some effective policies, the desired progresses have been hindered by the disagreements of the two parties. It is expected that this study will be helpful for the policy makers of the two parties to create a healthy competition between them about development issues concerning the country. The results of this study will contribute to make policies and to take programmes that can improve the development status of Bangladesh. Findings of this study need to be scientifically utilised in developing suitable programmes addressing the causes of slower development in Bangladesh. Otherwise, the aim of comprehensive and inclusive development may remain elusive.

S. M. Akram Ullah*
K.M. Mustafizur Rahman**
Dr.Mohammad Tarikul Islam***

* Professor, Department of Political Science, University of Rajshahi, Bangladesh,
E-mail: akramullah1969@yahoo.com

** Lecturer, Department of Population Science Jatiya Kabi Kazi Nazrul Islam University, Trishal,
Mymensingh, Bangladesh, E-mail: nishan_hrd@yahoo.com

***Associate Professor, Department of Government and Politics, Jahangirnagar University, Bangladesh
and Visiting Scholar, University of Oxford, E-mail: t.islam@juniv.edu

1. Introduction

Bangladesh has emerged as an independent nation in 1971 after a nine months long blood bath liberation war against the Pakistani ruling elites and their cohorts. The West Pakistani ruling elites ruled the East Pakistan for more than 23 years. In this time they suppressed, repressed, exploited the people of East Pakistan in all spheres and made discrimination between the East and West. The people of this area (East) made a strong resist movement against all sorts of suppression, repression, deprivation, exploitation and discrimination and fought against the West Pakistani ruling elites for establishing democracy in the country. After the independence of Bangladesh, Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, the father of the nation, has incorporated 'democracy' in the constitution of 1972 as one of the state principles. From 1972 to 1975, the people of this country have enjoyed the taste of democracy. But the democracy which was incorporated in the constitution of 1972, met with many setbacks due to the military rule of General Zia and General Ershad from 1975 to 1990. The democracy of Bangladesh has been commonly practiced from early 90 decades. After then, the politics of Bangladesh has been dominated by two major parties; Bangladesh Awami League and Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP). Both these parties have ruled the country for several times. The development of the country was mostly made by these two parties also. The continuation of such progresses is largely hampered by the two ruling parties due to the lack of far-sightedness and creativity in policy making. An interest is growing as to how we can make a comparative assessment of some selected sectorial development between the ruling periods (from 2002 to 2006 and from 2009 to 2013) of the two parties.

Bangladesh is one of the densely populated countries in the world where the desired development of the country has been largely hindered due to the discontinuation of the ruling governments since its independence. Successful public administration in Bangladesh has also been hampered by these situations (Paul and Goel, 2010). However, the country has made some remarkable progresses in socio-economic and demographic sectors over the last few decades. The country has also advanced in the area of social indicators, despite one in every three people living below the poverty line (Rahman, Hoque and Titumir, 2016). Some achievements of Bangladesh may appear as a 'development puzzle', given the country's desperate initial conditions, still widespread poverty and allegedly poor record in governance adversely affecting the quality of public service delivery (Ahluwalia and Mahmud, 2004; Mahmud et al., 2008). Among the various obstacles, Bangladesh is applying its heart and soul efforts for poverty reduction by means of improving the quality of people's life. However, due to the internal power struggles between the two dominant political parties i.e.

Awami League and BNP, all these triumphs have become worthless. This is also working as a threat to the country's entire development process (Karim, 2013).

Based on the per capita income of World Bank classification, Bangladesh has been upgraded from low income country to lower middle income country. The development trajectory of Bangladesh is a unique success story by many metrics since the 1990s when democratic rule was reinstated and extensive economic reforms were made. Although, the improvement in Bangladesh's growth rate since 1990 is impressive, it does not fully explain the country's extraordinary results with regard to the development. It is of course important to remember that many of the key indicators are still at low levels. These challenges have given rise to a number of concerns that which ruling party is able to maintain country's path of progress. Seeking for the answer to this question, a humble effort is made in this study to compare the different sectorial developments of the two consecutive ruling periods of two parties i.e. Awami League and BNP.

2.Data Sources and Methods

This paper is based on the data mainly collected from the Report on Bangladesh Sample Vital Registration System (SVRS), Bangladesh Statistical Year Books, Bangladesh Economic Review, Bangladesh Labour Force Survey (LFS), Survey of Manufacturing Industries (SMI), Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) of different years published by Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS). Here, the authors considered the data from 2002 to 2006 as ruled by BNP and also data from 2009 to 2013 as ruled by Bangladesh Awami League. The authors have used arithmetic growth model to calculate required rate of increase or decrease of different socio-economic and demographic variables.

The arithmetic growth rate can be calculated by using the following mathematical equation:

$$P_l = P_b(1 + ry)$$
$$\Rightarrow r = \frac{1}{y} \left(\frac{P_l}{P_b} - 1 \right)$$

Where,

P_l = Value of the launch year;

P_b = Value of the base year;

y = Number of years between launch year and base year;

r = Rate of growth

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Adult Literacy Rate

Over the last few decades, Bangladesh has made some considerable

progresses in education sector. As a nation's backbone, education is one of the influential developmental factors. (Prodhan, 2016). Along with other factors, adult literacy is one of the most important components of development. Adult literacy rate is the percentage of the population aged 15 years and over among the total population who can write a letter (SVRS, 2010). It is found in most of the cases between 2002 and 2006, there is a positive increase in the adult literacy except 2006. On the other hand, adult literacy rate consists of a positive and negative increase during the period of 2009-2013. More specifically, it is found that the adult literacy rate has been increased from 49.6 percent in 2002 to 53.7 percent in 2006 with an increased rate of 2.06 percent per year while, it has been increased from 58.4 percent to 61 percent with an annual rate of increase of 1.11 percent during 2009-2013. This implies that the rate of increase in adult literacy was slower in Awami League government period than that of their counterparts.

3.2 Mean Age at Marriage

As a populous country, the mean age at marriage is one of the important development indicators. Late marriage always cut the reproductive span of a woman and when marriage has occurred at an earlier age then she has more time to produce child throughout her reproductive life span. In the society of Bangladesh, female are married at an earlier age than their counterparts. Age at first marriage for females in a society is also influenced by their socio-cultural status and environmental situation in which they live (Goni and Rahman, 2012). Poverty is one of the major factors under-pining early marriages (Nasrin and Rahman, 2012). Analysis of mean age at marriage reveals that, during the period of 2002-2006, the mean age at first marriage both for male and female has gone down marginally while this age had gone up both for male and female for the period between 2009 and 2013. The mean age at marriage for male has decreased to 23.4 years in 2006 from 25.6 years in 2002 with a decreased rate of 2.59 percent per year while for female this decreased rate was 3.03 percent per year during the same period. On the other hand, this mean age at marriage has annually and slightly increased by 1.47 percent for male and 0.13 percent for female during the period of 2009 to 2013. Additionally, it is found that the mean age at marriage for both male and female has decreased during the BNP government period (i.e. 2002-2006) while it has increased in Awami League government period (i.e. 2009-2013).

3.3 Total Fertility Rate

Control of total fertility rate is very important for populous countries like Bangladesh. Based upon the historical track record, it is found that the total fertility rate has marginally been decreased in most of the time during the both period i.e. 2002-2006 and 2009-2013. Additionally, it is found that the total fertility has been decreased from

2.55 in 2002 to 2.41 in 2006 with a decreased rate of 1.37 percent per annum while it has been decreased with an annual rate of 0.47 percent from 2.15 in 2009 to 2.11 in 2013. The analysis also highlights that the total fertility rate has been decreased at a slower rate during Awami League government as compared to BNP government period. The results indicate that much attention is needed to cope with the situation of total fertility in Bangladesh.

3.4 Infant Mortality Rate (IMR)

Infant mortality is the death of a child under one year of age per 1000 live births and a critical measure of a country's socio-economic development. Over the last few decades, Bangladesh has made considerable progress in reducing infant mortality. It is found that the infant mortality has been decreased at a more accelerated pace during 2009-2013 than that of the period 2002-2006. More specifically it is found that the infant mortality has been decreased from 53 per 1000 live births in 2002 to 45 per 1000 live births in 2006 with a decreased rate of 3.77 percent per year. On the other, this infant mortality has been decreased to 31 per 1000 live births in 2013 from 39 per 1000 live births in 2009 with an annual decreased rate of 5.13 percent. The result also shows that, progress in reducing infant mortality is higher in the period of Awami League ruling than that of the BNP government period.

3.5 Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR)

Maternal mortality is the number of maternal deaths per 1000 live births. Maternal mortality is also a vital indicator to represent a country's socio-economic development. In reducing maternal mortality, Bangladesh has achieved some substantial progresses over the last few decades. Analysis shows that, maternal mortality has reduced during both of the periods i.e. 2002-2006 and 2009-2013. Additionally it is found that, maternal mortality ratio has declined from 3.91 per 1000 live births in 2002 to 3.37 per 1000 live births in 2006 with a decreased rate of 3.45 percent per year while this ratio has annually decreased by 5.98 percent between the period of 2009 and 2013. It is also observed that maternal mortality ratio has reduced at higher rate during the Awami League government period than that of their counterparts.

3.6 Employment

Employment is one of the vital components of a country's economic growth. Like many other developing countries, in Bangladesh employment provides a critical link between economic growth and poverty alleviation as the vast majority of the people depend on employment as their only source of livelihood (Rahman Titumir and Nasrin, 2018). In Bangladesh, unemployment is one of the vital

problems since its independence. Providing employment to the capable economically active people remains a big challenge. The role of informal sectors provides the main scope for employment in Bangladesh (Amin, 2005; Amin and Singh, 2002; Amin, 2001). Despite some expansion in industrial sector the country is still unable to absorb its capable manpower. According to the Survey of Manufacturing Industries (SMI) 2012, the total number of industrial establishment was 28065 in 2002 and 34710 in 2006 and further increased to 42792 in 2011. With this establishment, the number of employed persons also increased. It is found that, the number of employed population has been increased with an annual rate of 1.74 percent during 2002-2006 whereas it has increased with a rate of 3.48 percent per year during 2009-2013. It is also found that the progress in providing employment to the population is higher during Awami League ruling period as compared to BNP government period.

Additionally, it is found that the number of employment abroad has increased by 12.31 percent per annum during the BNP government period (i.e. 2002-2006) while it has decreased by 8.04 percent during Awami League government period (i.e. 2009-2013). The main reason of this decrease in employment rate abroad might be the world recession before 2010. However there is a progress in employment situation of the country during Awami League period, but a reverse situation was found in abroad employment. The rate of abroad employment has decreased during Awami League period while it increased in BNP government period.

3.7 Power Generation

An emblematic form of power is electricity. In order to achieve overall economic development of the country, it is recognized that the pace of power development (especially electricity) has to be accelerated because a country's socio-economic development largely depends on it (Rahman, 2011). Bangladesh has made some significant progresses in generating electricity over the last two decades, however, the progresses are well behind the desired level. Based upon historical track record, it is found that in both the periods the maximum generation of electricity has increased at a slower rate than the previous year). Additionally, it is found that in the period of BNP government (i.e. 2002-2006) the maximum generation has increased from 3218 MW in 2001-2002 to 3812 MW in 2005-2006 with an annual increase rate of 4.61 percent. On the other hand, in the period of Awami League government (i.e. 2009-2013) the maximum generation has increased to 6434 MW in 2012-2013 from 4162 MW in 2008-2009 with an increased rate of 13.65 percent per annum. Analysis shows that the power generation has increased at a more accelerating pace (almost three times higher) in Awami League government period than that of the period of BNP government.

3.8 Gross Domestic Product

Bangladesh has been on the growth track, as evidenced by the lift of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to decadal average of six percent over the last few consecutive years. Evidence shows that during the period of 2002-2006 and 2009-2013, GDP has increased except in the years 2005 and 2013 respectively. In 2002-2006 the GDP had increased by 12.73 percent per year while in 2009-2013 the annual rate of increase was 4.8 percent. It is also observed that the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has increased at a higher rate during BNP ruling time as compared to Awami League ruling time. However, GDP has consistently stood at six percent during the Awami League ruling period.

4. Conclusion

Bangladesh has made remarkable improvement in life expectancy, child health, literacy and disaster preparedness (Balabanova, McKee, and Mills, 2011). The analysis of this study shows that there are some quantitative progresses in socio-economic and demographic sectors but it could not reach at the desired level. Additionally, the analysis also shows that the progress in different sectors mostly occurred at an accelerating pace during the period of Awami League government as compared to the ruling period of BNP government. Generally, the progresses in various sectors have taken place largely due to the make ends meet but not for the outcomes of policy reforms as claimed by the governments. In the context of growing need people are taking pressure to engage them in income generating activities. If the current trend of laxity and expediency continue, these imbalances shall be increasing in the coming years and will create strong impediments on the path of economic and social progress of the country. Democracy has commonly been practiced from 1990 in Bangladesh after fifteen years of the country's first democratic government led by Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujibur Rahman and Awami League and BNP are the two parties, which have been ruling the country one after another. Despite this unique issue, there is discordance between the two parties regarding the development of the country. In this study, the authors have tried to explore the state of different sectors between the consecutive ruling periods of two parties. It is believed this study will be helpful to make policies accepting a healthy competition between the two parties in terms of country's development. It is relevant to mention that theoretically many of the strategic documents and policy papers are sound and seems implementable, but in reality, due to corruption, absence of good governance, lack of accountability, transparency, lack of funds, poor monitoring and evaluation and so on fails to implement. The policy makers of the both parties need to be creative in renewing and revising strategic approaches to touch the desired development

targets of golden Bangladesh as enunciated by the father of the nation. Therefore, provisions must be formulated for programme evaluation and also for understanding the impacts of programmes. Findings are needed to be scientifically utilized in developing suitable programmes addressing the development of Bangladesh. Otherwise, the target of golden Bangladesh may remain an elusive and a distant dream.

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Nava Kerala Karma Paripadi: A Programme Towards a New State

The Government of Kerala has been implementing various development programmes on mission mode to address the second generation development problems, which is envisaged as 'Nava Keralam Karma Paripadi' (means, an Action Programme for New Kerala) with four Missions encompassing six priority sectors. These Missions are Haritha Keralam (means, Green Kerala), LIFE (Livelihood Inclusion and Financial Empowerment), Education Rejuvenation, and Aardram (for Health). There is a need for integration and coordination of these missions with local governance as the focus. These missions will strengthen the local governments through technical support and enable them to develop a convergence by pooling of resources.

Dr. T.N.Seema

1. Introduction

The economy of Kerala and its developmental history have received worldwide attention, as the State has been able to attain developmental targets in par with developed economies. The State has realized “an economy rapidly growing extraordinary”, despite its failure to achieve large-scale industrial development. It has achieved better human development compared to other States in India, despite poor performance in the areas of employment and income. While the productive sectors like agriculture and industry remain slow, the service sector achieved rapid progress. Unemployment resulted in large-scale migration of educated young labour force to other parts of the country and abroad for many decades. Achievements such as low levels of infant mortality and population growth, high levels of literacy, and life expectancy have been considered as distinguishing results of the Kerala model of development.

Kerala has put forward a model for the development capable of raising the living standard of populations from the time of first elected ministry in 1957. Kerala is known for its success in social sector indicators, which rank first among the Indian states. It is high time for Kerala to settle down to visualize and put into practice such realistic policies rather than indulging in predatory and meaningless partisan political strife. The development plan has to project a clear and unambiguous focal point on encouraging targeted sectors, harnessing manpower, and providing an environment; which promotes infrastructure, business, and industry. In this direction, the present government has been implementing various development programmes on mission mode. To address the second generation development problems, Government of Kerala has envisaged ‘Nava Kerala Karma Paripadi’ (means, an Action Programme for New Kerala) with four Missions encompassing six priority sectors. These Missions are Haritha Keralam (means, Green Kerala), LIFE (Livelihood Inclusion and Financial Empowerment), Education Rejuvenation, and Aardram (for Health). There is a need for integration and coordination of these missions with local governance as the focus. It was understood that the integration of these missions will strengthen the decentralization and it will develop a consolidated single plan at local government and pooling of resources by concerned departments and LSGs at local government level.

2. Role of Missions in Kerala Development

2.1. *Haritha Keralam Mission*

Haritha Keralam is an umbrella Mission integrating the components of Waste Management, Organic Farming, Water Resources Management. It has an ambitious outlook to address the issues of piling waste, impending drought, and health hazards due to the consumption of

pesticide treated vegetables and in general, the agricultural dependency of the State.

Haritha Keralam is one of the four mega missions launched by the Government of Kerala, which emphasize on pro-people alternative mode of development. The mission envisages pollution-free water sources, revival of water sources, water conservation with the participation of people, eco-friendly and sustainable waste management, and enhancing organic farming. The Mission was launched to address major issues confronting the State like garbage, threat to water sources, environment and ecology; besides dwindling food production. Increasing pollution of water sources, reclamation of ponds and lakes, dwindling rainfall because of climatic changes, entire rain water flowing straight into the sea and sand mining in rivers have created a grave situation in the State.

The Haritha Keralam Mission aims to integrate the three most important and inter-related sectors through an orchestrated and cascading implementation of three Sub-Missions.

- Household level segregation and safe disposal of organic waste through feasible options like composting, biogas, arrangements for institutional waste disposal, re-use, recycling and safe disposal of non-degradable and electronic waste are given priorities.
- Rejuvenation of tanks, ponds, streams and rivers are the focus in the water resource sector.
- The thrust in promoting organic agriculture will be to produce safe to eat vegetables and fruits to make the state self-sufficient within the next 5 years.

2.2. Aardram Mission

Aardram Mission aims at creating “People-Friendly” Health Delivery System in the state. The approach will be need-based and aims at treating every patient with ‘dignity’. Through the state of the art protocols, it envisages transforming all Primary Health Centers (PHCs) into Family Health Centres (FHCs) as a first level health delivery point. The mission envisages ensuring quality care at PHCs. All hospitals will be transformed to patient-friendly Out Patient (OP) service providers. The services include web-based appointment system, virtual queues, patient reception at registration centres, waiting rooms with wifi facilities and so on.

The Government is committed to people-friendly healthcare for delivering the public sector health care system to make quality specialist health care facilities accessible to the poorest of the poor. The objectives of Mission Aardram are:

- Transform PHCs into FHCs.

- Avail the best service of the best doctors and para medical staff.
- Reform OP management procedures with state-of-the-art facilities.
- Facilitate with hygienic and spacious wards, rooms, beds, and toilets.
- Avail life saving medicines from the hospital concerned on moderate rates.

The Government aims at making public health care institutions - especially government hospitals at primary, secondary, and tertiary care sector – people-friendly by improving their basic infrastructure. The focus would be on ensuring availability of medical check-up and other investigations at the out-patient and in-patient wings.

2.3. LIFE (Livelihood Inclusion and Financial Empowerment) Mission

There is a comprehensive housing scheme for all the landless and homeless in the state. The target of the Mission is to provide safe housing to nearly 4,30,000 homeless in the state, within a period of five years. The Mission is not just confined to providing housing alone but also financial empowerment, ensuring livelihood. Social security schemes and skill training for adults has to be initiated among the beneficiaries. The project will be coordinated between the Local Self Government Departments and the Department of Social Justice.

2.4. Education Rejuvenation Mission

The State is known for its accomplishments in universal education and enrolments. Through Education Rejuvenation Mission, the Kerala Government proposes comprehensive educational reforms; which include transforming 1000 Government Schools into international standards during the first phase. The idea is not only to improve the infrastructural facilities, but also to reform the teaching and learning process. This will be through ICT-enabled learning and also setting up smart classrooms. There will be focus on creating educational programmes that are useful for differently abled students. It is also meant to reinforce the teaching-learning process by providing ample opportunities to each student so as to construct their own knowledge by using modern technology tools. The Mission will redefine the existing classroom learning process, coordinate resource mobilization efforts and develop 'Janakeeya Vidyabhasa Mathruka' (Peoples Education Model). Special packages to support Schools that are in existence for over 100 years will also be attempted. The implementation will enlist full involvement and partnership of the Parent Teacher Association (PTA).

3. Challenges of Missions

Some of the challenges in the functioning of Mission are: lack of

techno-managerial skills, environment friendly planning and projects, quality of service delivery, community participation and transparency. To overcome these challenges, there is a need to develop technical expertise at various levels, management methods, training and handholding, motivation, and facilitation for convergence of these Missions at various levels.

4. Interface with Local Governments

An integrated new model with a realistic policy and programme framework is developed by the State that will have interface with local governments. A route map of pragmatic action to achieve the dream towards a new Kerala, where the state's potential in all respects shall be fully utilized. For this:

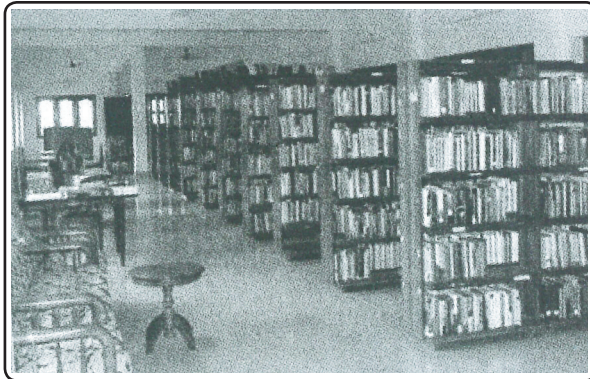
- i. People's planning will ensure the efficiency of planning and implementation at local level, while Missions will provide general direction and goal setting.
- ii. Integrated functioning with a common objective will speed up the growth of state's economy.
- iii. Technical expertise provided by the line departments and academic institutions will be utilized efficiently.
- iv. State government initiative to bring in large investments from various agencies will be explored.

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KILA Library

KILA library has a collection of over 10,000 books and over 200 journals, focused on KILA's thrust areas. The collection of books and periodicals of the Library is focused on the themes of Panchayati Raj, local governance, participatory planning, poverty alleviation, rural development, urban development and management. It has full-fledged information centre on local governance, with state of the art facilities like computer and Internet. With this purpose, a new library complex has been constructed.



As part of computerization of Library, KILA installed KOHA software in the Library. An online Digital Repository for local Governance has also been created by KILA and the website is www.dspace.kila.ac.in.

Innovations in Democratic Governance: Some Reflections

The core of democratic government innovation is reducing the disconnect between government and citizens. This article is based on review of literature and underlines the perspective that innovation is multi-faceted and in the long-run it is the only way to achieve greater impact. Analysing a wide range of innovative initiatives, the article concludes that innovation is contextual to a local problem that needs a novel solution. As a result, local governments have the best platforms to innovate. If devolution is high, Local Governments can effectively drive towards innovations.

Dr.Peter M Raj

1. Introduction

In the fast changing world, the disconnect between governments and citizens is also growing. Any attempt to reduce this disconnect is a value addition to democratic governance. Incidentally many recent governmental efforts focus on making government more transparent to the public, a process that fosters trust and fuels innovation. The review(Harry Blair (2008) on selected innovation stories across the globe show that governments are learning, growing, and adapting to the increasingly complex challenges they face and are devising creative new solutions to tackle them democratically.

The concept of “Government Innovation” was officially introduced in China and became one of the key words in practice in the new century. (Yu Jianxing and Huang Biao, 2018). Innovation is understood as a process of generation, putting into use and spreading of ‘new ideas that work’, ‘new ways of doing things’, or ‘new combinations’ of existing knowledge and resources. (Husain.L, 2015). Innovation matters because in the long-run it is the only way to achieve greater impact. (Parker Sophia, 2009).

UNICEF describes innovation as, “A practice that has not been substantiated with a formal evaluation, nor scaled up beyond its initial scope. This practice will likely be in the pilot project stage but is seen as successful with a strong potential for impact”. (Lattimer Charlottee, 2013). A social innovation is any initiative (product, process, program, project or platform) that challenges and, over time, contributes to changing the defining routines, resource and authority flows or beliefs of the broader social system in which it is introduced. (Westley Frances et al., 2015). At this level majority of the government innovation is largely, social innovation. Innovation and good practice are different. UNICEF describes good practice as, “A practice that has demonstrable results with qualitative and quantitative evidence of impact. Good practices have utility for learning and adoption inter-country and inter-regionally.” (Lattimer Charlottee, 2013). Taking a wide range of initiatives from several sectors and geographies, Ivan Crouzel (2014), summarises the salient features of innovative democratic experiences as implies greater public participation, resolves a particular public problem, flows from the synergies generated between different types of actors, a step by step process, and contextual.

2. Local Government Innovations

Successful government innovation requires distribution of functions and cooperation between central/state and local governments. Local governments can act as originators and experimenters in reform and innovation, but central/state government must play an active role in sustaining and promoting outstanding innovative practices (He.X,

2008). Local government embraces innovation as a natural way of working to improve performance and deliver more efficient and effective services to the people they serve (Parker Sophia, 2009). To an extent, local government innovations appear to be a response to local problem. The main motivation behind local government innovation is in solving problems encountered during their normal work. The innovations centered around participatory planning in Kerala indicate that policy advocacy from below and political will are two of the most essential conditions that are vital for the local governments to experiment with local innovations.

3. Promoting Innovations

Innovations need to be promoted. According to Westley Frances et al. (2015) the life cycle of a social innovation has four general phases. i. An idea is born, ii. An idea is developed, iii. An idea is launched as a product, process, or organization, and iv. The innovation becomes established (the innovation is stabilized, scaled, bureaucratized and becomes the norm). Any agency working to promote innovations need to intervene each of the innovation cycle.

There are several forums for promoting innovations. For example, The OECD Observatory for Public Sector Innovation (OPSI) is a global forum for public sector innovations, helping governments to understand, test and embed new ways of doing things (OECD, 2019). A Local Government Innovation Prize Programme (LGIPP) was set up in China in 2000 and run by the Central Compilation and Translation Bureau (CCTB), a CCP research institute, in conjunction with Beijing University, to showcase and propagate local government innovations (Husain.L, 2015). Since 2007, the Waterloo Institute for Social Innovation and Resilience (WISIR), in collaboration with many colleagues, including those within the Canada's Social Innovation Generation partnership, has been generating and sharing new knowledge about how significant change happens in the world ((Westley Frances et al., 2015). The Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills (DIUS) deals with innovation in the public sector and is committed to setting up a Public Services Innovation Laboratory. Improvement and Development Agency for Local Government (IDeA) have invested in an 'Innovation Catalyst' programme to support innovation in local governments (Parker Sophia, 2009).

Over the last couple of years, innovation has moved to the centre of public policy. It has been paid lip-service for decades, but only now are governments considering seriously how to develop structures, budgets and skills to make it happen. Many countries and Provincial Governments have instituted incentive systems to promote innovations. For example, the Ministry of Panchayati Raj (MoPR), Government of India (GoI) has constituted awards in several

categories including e-governance, public participation, and local economic development. The Ministry is also giving special funding support to promote innovations. The Government of Kerala (GoK) has constituted Swaraj Trophy Awards to Local Governments every year to promote innovations in local development.

4. Sources of Innovations

Change agents have a key role to play in innovation processes. New technologies, open data, and emergence of new models in the private sector are creating space for government to explore a range of possibilities. With the adoption of Agenda 2030 and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), every nation is committed to meet a set of universal, integrated, and transformational goals and targets. This universal agenda is pushing countries and cities to innovate, which calls for large scale systemic change.

According to Sophia Parker (2009), there are four drivers of innovations viz. leadership, customer first approach, staff engagement and technology, and three most important innovation inhibitors viz. culture change, appetite for risk, and a supportive infrastructure.

Chen and Yang (2009) cite a number of sources for their innovations, out of the study of local investors. Accordingly, the ideas underlying these innovations are listed as: originated by farsighted local leader (58 per cent); inspired by studying advanced practice in another place (13 per cent); developed by a lower level institution (e.g. government at a lower level) (7 per cent); part of a pilot by a higher level government department (7 per cent); suggested by an academic/researcher (1 per cent); developed by staff in the institution in question (6 per cent). (Husain.L, 2015). Local government are in an unique position to drive innovation at three levels viz. as a service deliverer, it can innovate at the 'interface' between services and people's lives; as a 'place-shaper', it can organise a range of services in new ways that have a greater impact on outcomes; and as a part of government, it can help departments re-model entire systems of services – social care and health provision, benefits and income support, and so on. To be successful at all these levels requires leadership that blends creativity and agency with determination and drive.

Harry Blair (2008) presents a number of case studies covering several regions, focusing on innovations in participatory governance in Bolivia, Brazil, El Salvador, the Philippines, and Serbia. Porto Alegre, Brazil (experience on participatory budgeting), Bolivia (local checks and balances through Popular Participation Law), The Philippines (civil society as an inside player in local governance), El Salvador (mass meetings to direct local investment), Serbia (community confidence building through participation). All five cases dealt with budget and

finance at local government level, most of them directly by introducing some participatory component into the budget allocation process by adding some new component to it.

Political innovations of any kind do not occur in a vacuum, if only because whatever structure is already in place benefits some elements, most often at the cost of others. Harry Blair (2008) lists key ingredients of successful local government innovations. They are degree of devolution, careful planning, dual accountability, external funding, indigenous political will, role by elected bodies, mixed motivations for innovation, and small settings bring democracy closer. Keping Yu (2012) puts forward that main influential factors of Chinese local government innovation include public stress, pressure from superiors, pursuit of political achievement, crisis and emergency, new technology and ideas.

Most of the Local Government innovations are enhancement oriented or adaptive in nature. Kerala is a home for local innovations as Local Governments in Kerala are empowered with power and responsibilities. The participatory planning in itself, popularly known as People's Plan Campaign, is a great innovation model. This has given birth to a series of local innovative practices. BUDS School (School for disabled children), Palliative care for terminally ill, Akshaya for e-governance initiative, Kudumbasree for Self Help Groups for women, Pakal Veedu – day care centre for the elder citizens are few examples of innovative practices in social sector.

5. Towards Innovation Models

Innovation can mean many things and can take the form of many different types of actions. Innovation can be small and incremental or rapid and radical. It can be strategically and rigorously designed, or may take the form of an educated guess or a loose experiment. Many governments and their partners in civil society and industry are taking bold steps to innovate. In spite of this, a great deal of confusion remains as to the exact nature of innovation in the public sector, which actions may be better than others, and how governments can position and structure themselves to bring forth and execute new and creative ideas. It may not be possible, therefore, to rally consensus around one definition of innovation. Governments should aim to achieve consensus around the fact that innovation is multi-faceted, and that successfully leveraging the power of innovation requires a portfolio approach that allows them to understand, foster, and manage its different facets. Based on its experience, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Observatory for Public Sector Innovation (OPSI) has identified four primary facets to public sector innovation, and has developed a model to help governments achieve a portfolio approach(OECD, 2019) as detailed below.

i. Mission-oriented Innovation (Directed and Top-down)

This facet involves a clear outcome or overarching objective towards which innovation is oriented. A clear direction has been defined, even if the specifics of how it will be achieved may be uncertain.

ii. Enhancement-oriented Innovation (Incremental)

This facet focuses on upgrading practices, achieving efficiencies and better results, and building on existing structures, rather than challenging the status quo. Enhancement-oriented innovation generally utilises existing knowledge and seeks to exploit previous innovations.

iii. Adaptive Innovation (Undirected, Bottom-up)

This facet involves playing with, testing and trying new approaches in order to respond to a changing operating environment. The purpose to innovate may be the discovery process itself, driven by new knowledge or the changing environment. When the environment changes, perhaps due to the introduction a new technology, business model, this may have to be adapted further.

iv. Anticipatory Innovation (Exploring/Radical)

This facet entails exploring and engaging with emergent issues that might shape future priorities and future commitments. It has the potential to subvert existing paradigms.

Among local officials surveyed, functional criteria (including increasing popular participation, transparency, and other factors) were stated to be more important in assigning this label to any given reform in China. Most of the innovations are learning innovations, that is based on studying reforms in other places and most have carried out inspection visits to other jurisdictions as a basis for their own innovations. In a survey in 2009, 34 per cent of those surveyed stated that they had carried out at least five such visits (Husain.L, 2015).

6. Conclusion

It is not possible to rally consensus around one definition of innovation. However, Governments aim to achieve consensus around the fact that innovation is multi-faceted, and that successfully leveraging the power of innovation requires a portfolio approach that allows them to understand, foster and manage its different facets. (OECD, 2019). How innovative is a given practice shall be understood, when such a practice is documented; such a document on innovations should figure some themes like the problem, innovative solution – the novelty, people orientation, results and impacts, public feedback, challenges and lessons, replication, sustainability, partnerships and resources, advocacy efforts monitoring systems, etc.

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Gender Inclusive Local Action Plan for Climate Change (LAPCC) in Kerala

Gender-differentiated impacts of climate change intensifies structural inequality, economic marginalisation, and socio-cultural barriers. While women tend to be more vulnerable and face greater challenges than men in adapting to climate change, they are also powerful agents of change. Their leadership is critical in the efforts to adapt to climate change, both at the household and community level. Kerala has some positive governance initiatives, which will help in framing a gender inclusive action plan, both at the state and grass root level planning and budgeting. Gender responsive State Action Plan on Climate Change (SAPCC) and Local Action Plan on Climate Change (LAPCC) will address the gender agenda. Gender-disaggregated information is required for policy interventions to strengthen the adaptive capacities of those most in need.

Dr. Mariamma Sanu George

1. Introduction

Climate Change is not gender-neutral as it affects women and men differently. Several factors including gender, age, socio-economic status, caste, and disability render some people more vulnerable to the impacts of climate change than others. Gender equality needs to be mainstreamed in the State Action Plan on Climate Change (SAPCC) and in Local Action Plan on Climate Change (LAPCC), through clear gender agenda. The social and economic inequities make it difficult for women to cope up with the impacts of climate change and are likely to make patterns of inequality more pronounced. “Gender inequalities intersect with climate risks and vulnerabilities. Women’s historic disadvantages—their limited access to resources, restricted rights, and a muted voice in shaping decisions—make them highly vulnerable to climate change. The nature of that vulnerability varies widely cautioning against generalization. But climate change is likely to magnify existing patterns of gender disadvantage” (UNDP, 2007a). However as powerful agents of change, women’s leadership is critical in the efforts of adapting to climate change, both at the household and community level. Particularly at the local level, women’s knowledge is a valuable resource and significant contribution to development strategies related to agriculture practices, water and energy use, deforestation, population, economic growth, science and technology, and policymaking. Therefore, changing harmful social norms and structural inequality is both an important condition and a potential end goal of effective climate change responses and poverty reduction. This paper discusses these aspects in detail, taking inputs from the author’s work with Action on Climate Today (ACT) .

2. SAPCC and LAPCC

With the formulation of National Action Plan on Climate Change (NAPCC) for addressing climate change concerns, the Directorate of Environment and Climate Change (DoECC) of Government of Kerala (GoK) drafted the Kerala State Action Plan on Climate Change (SAPCC). This was endorsed by the Government of India (GoI) in 2014. SAPCC addresses State specific climate change vulnerabilities by planning appropriate adaptation and mitigation options to address climate change issues, prioritization and financial option. Its main objective is to mainstream climate change strategies into State level planning and development process and to reduce present and future climate change associated risk of the State. The revision of existing SAPCC with a focus on developing implementable action plans is currently going on. In the consultation to rework the Kerala SPACC, it is agreed to consider gender as a cross cutting issue.

In 2017, a joint capacity building programme by Kerala Institute of Local administration (KILA) and DoECC was initiated for the Local

Self-Government Institutions (LSGIs) in the four hotspot districts in Kerala viz. Wayanad, Idukki, Palaghat and Alleppy (GoK, 2014). This enables the participants to understand climate change risks, conduct vulnerability assessments, and to develop a Local Action Plan on Climate Change (LAPCC) (KILA, 2017). Apart from the technical support provided for training and developing LAPCC, the Climate Change Innovation Programme (CCIP) provided technical support to the Government of Kerala to develop institutional systems and access climate funds.

3. Gender Disparities and Vulnerability to Climate Change

Kerala is a state where the status of women is better compared to the rest of the country. This is when one analyses 'status' using conventional indicators like Literacy Rate, Infant Mortality Rate (IMR), Infant Mortality Rate (MMR) and other social and health indicators. However, while using non-conventional indicators like percentage of women in decision-making, in higher levels of policy and law making (assembly and parliament), violence against women, property rights, work participation rate, etc. the enigma of the status of women in Kerala becomes clear. The Kerala's SAPCC is considering including gender as a cross-cutting matter. Kerala is a state with very strong decentralised governance, where more than 50 of per cent elected representatives are women. The positive governance initiatives , is developing capacities to formulate viable gender inclusive LAPCC.

Gender analysis is the critical starting point for gender mainstreaming, led through a systematic analytical process based on sex-disaggregated and gender information. (UNDP, 2007b). As data is often not directly available, gender-responsive and socially sensitive climate change research work is important to pinpoint data needs and data collection approaches in the context of climate change.

Gender issues needs to be investigated from the vantage points of the twin significant components of climate change, namely, adaptation and mitigation. Adaptation actions that do not take gender perspectives into account may result in mal-adaptation by un-intentionally amplifying gender inequalities. Similarly, mitigation planning can trigger general and specific policy, technological and behavioural changes at all levels. Therefore adaptation and mitigation efforts should consider gendered needs, interests, and contributions to ensure their sustainability and effectiveness. (Habtezion.S, 2013).

i. Livelihood

Agriculture, fishing as well as livestock rearing depend heavily on weather patterns. Changes will dislocate the poor from their habitats, result in shortfall in yields and rendering these community's incapable

of earning their living. Maithreyi Krishnaraj, a feminist scholar, said: "The face of the Indian farmer is a woman's face." (Krishnaraj.M, 2004). Even more emphatically, Vandana Shiva wrote a report to FAO on women and agriculture entitled "Most Farmers in India are Women!" (Shiva.V, 1991). These statements draw attention to the universal presence of Indian women in agriculture - 'feminisation of agriculture'. Yet the paradox is that women in agriculture are practically invisible. The resource shortages (food, water, and firewood) caused by climate change badly affects women and girls more as they face a heavier burden of domestic work. The immense burden of work therefore prevents women from pursuing further education, employment opportunities, raising their skill-level, and tending to their own wellbeing creating a downward spiral known as 'time poverty'. Scarcity and depletion of resources like water, forest resources; force women and girls to walk longer distances. Increasing workloads may also results in families withdrawing children from schools to help at home, thus reducing their future opportunities. The impacts are likely to be more intense for the socially excluded and economically insecure groups, such as the landless, smallholders, Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), and Fisher people.

The differential gender needs is reflected in their daily aspect of life. In agriculture, women may opt for food crops, and men will want cash crops. The first priority of women in water allocation is for household use and not irrigation. Possession of livestock is also heavily gendered. Women are more likely than men to participate in goat and poultry farming and serves as an important source of household income.

Coastal areas are likely to be more vulnerable to climate change, both direct effects (such as accelerated coastal erosion and more powerful and frequent storm surges) and indirect effects (loss of critical physical infrastructure and coastal resources such as aquaculture, as well as declines in associated economic, ecological, cultural, and subsistence values). This will have physical and socio-economic impacts on coastal communities. In a report submitted to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, Kerala is identified as one of the states threatened by rising sea level. (TNN, 2012). It is estimated that a sea level rise would result in saline coastal groundwater, endangering wetlands, and inundating valuable land and coastal communities" (ibid., 2012). Since the density of population in the coastal regions is relatively higher, the impact of storm surges, erosion, and destruction to property is very high.

The depletion of marine resources also affects women, as they will not have fish for marketing or processing. This involves restrictions on access to fishing grounds, unequal control over fisheries governance, or unequal access to resources needed to engage in fishing (Matthews et al., 2012; Kleiber et al., 2015). Most often men are literally absent

from the home as they migrate to other harbours or states and hence managing the affairs falls on women. Moreover, when disasters strike and men die in the sea, women are left utterly helpless. Strict social norms prevent them to go fish vending until after a year of their husband's death. However, since the sustenance of family falls on their shoulders, they go to wholesale markets to fetch fish for marketing or travel to processing factories for work. Under representation of women in fisheries governance makes it difficult to ensure women have equal access to fisheries (Nunan, 2014).

ii. Health

Climate change can have several health impacts such as water borne diseases, malnutrition, and anaemia due to food shortages; increase in heat-related mortality and morbidity and increased respiratory disease where air pollution is high. An article warns "Heat waves are affecting many more vulnerable people and global warming is boosting the transmission of deadly diseases such as dengue fever, the world's most rapidly spreading disease. Air pollution from fossil fuel burning is also causing millions of early deaths each year, while damage to crops from extreme weather threatens hunger for millions of children" (Harvey, 2012). Heat extremes and corresponding hospitalisation and deaths are reported in Kerala too and this is expected to increase in the near future. Patriarchal norms dictate women to spend more time as caregivers. This further adds to their burden and entrench women's unequal status. Further, women and girls' lower socio-economic status make it more difficult for them to access and pay for treatment. Stress is likely to be heightened after disasters, particularly where families are displaced overcrowding, lack of privacy, changes in regular routines and livelihood patterns can contribute to anger, frustration and violence, with children (especially girls) and women most vulnerable. It has been recognised that men and boys are less likely to seek help than women and girls. Therefore, the preparation and responses to, climate change need to be sensitive to gender differentials in healthcare seeking behaviour.

iii. Water

Climate change is reducing the quantity and quality of safe water. In fact, in many places, these changes are already taking place and the world is ill prepared to respond to these risks. Kerala with a unique ecosystem however, in recent years have shown declining groundwater levels. In a study, Kerala was the third state showing a decline in groundwater levels in the country after Tamil Nadu and Punjab. If the ground water falls or drought conditions prevail can lead to crop failure, jeopardize livelihoods and health (Govt. of India 2013). Collecting water have secondary effects forcing primarily women and girls to walk longer distances to access water, increasing

their exposure and risk of harassment and sexual assault (Virginie et al 2016). Increase in their workloads may have secondary effects such as lower school enrolment figures for girls or less opportunity for women to engage in income-generating activities.

iv. Disasters

Gender inequality is a major factor contributing to the increased vulnerability of women and girls in disaster situations, which are being increasingly linked to climate change. According to a recent report from the World Conservation Union / Women's Environment and Development Organization (IUCN/WEDO), women and children are 14 times more likely to die than men during disasters (Eleanor et al., 2009). Women and girls' vulnerability are due to a combination of factors, including differences in socialisation where girls are not equipped with the same skills as boys. Women and girls are more exposed to violence and harassment in overcrowded shelters where they lack privacy. They face risks when they have to use common toilets outside the camp especially at night. Their sanitary and personal needs are not addressed in such camps. The compensation or aid given by government will be given to men who are considered breadwinners and many times, this may not benefit household. Hence, it is important to study the conditions in various disasters and the gender disparities, social norms and expectations regarding men and women.

v. Socially Excluded

Climate justice is a human rights issue as it worsens the vulnerability of people with disabilities, both mental and physical and other socially excluded like children, elderly, caste and ethnic minorities. They are more susceptible to traumatic events that can result in long-term negative effects on health, social, and behavioural outcomes. At the same time, they are also agents of change, bringing new energy and knowledge to their families and communities (Lawrence et al., 2018). Therefore, they need to be in the forefront of climate change policy, advocacy and research, yet they still are not. However, in 2013, when India adopted a national policy for children and formulated the National Plan of Action for Children (NPAC), it integrated disaster risk reduction and climate change concerns as well (Govt. of India, 2016). There has been little focus on the specific vulnerabilities of elderly due to climate change. Government projects for elderly like the Vayomithram needs to make the project climate proofed. It is said that, "National climate change strategies must be inclusive of the capabilities, rights and vulnerabilities of older people to reflect the convergence of population ageing and climate change. The full participation of people of all ages in these strategies is essential to their success" (Harris, 2015).

Persons with disability (PWD) are another critical group of people

affected by climate change and its various manifestations. According to the 2011 census, in Kerala there are about 7,61,843 disabled persons (Govt. of Kerala, 2014); which is about 2.7 per cent of the population of the State. Mobility, hearing, learning, or seeing disabilities can create specific needs that require extra time or consideration in an emergency evacuation. Women with disabilities face multiple barriers because of their already inferior position in society and the various discriminations they face.

4. Conclusion

Equity and social justice cannot be achieved without recognizing the differences in vulnerability and strengths of women and men, and the various factors that contribute to vulnerability. Gender is a cross cutting issue that should be included in their action plans and not just leave it to be dealt with Department of Women and Children. Adaptation strategies through SAPCC and LAPCC need to consider women's and men's relative and different capacities, power, social resilience, vulnerabilities and resources, because gender norms, roles and relations can either enable or constrain adaptive capacities. Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) of plans also should be integrated to SAPCC and LAPCC, so that gender indicators are accomplished. However, addressing the gender dimensions of climate change poses many challenges that are not insuperable. It requires gender mainstreaming in climate change response activities, research on gender differences in vulnerability, gender disaggregated data for empowerment of individuals to build their own resilience and to gender proof policy interventions.

End Notes:

This paper has drawn inputs much from the author's earlier work with Climate Change Innovation Programme (CCIP) under the umbrella South Asia Programme Action on Climate Today (ACT). She was the Team Leader and Management Lead of the Programme.

2. A bilateral programme of Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change (MOEFCC) and the UK Department for International Development (DFID).

3. The decentralisation process, which started in 1996, has empowered local governments with funds, functions and functionaries. Kerala also is a state, which started gender budgeting of state budgets since 2011.

4. Time poverty is understood as experiencing such acute time pressure--anxiety that there is little freedom to choose how to allocate one's time, with little or no room for leisure.

5. Vayomithram provides health care and support to elderly above the age of 65 years residing at Corporation/Municipal Areas in the State. It mainly provides free medicines through mobile clinics, Palliative care, Counselling service, Help desk to the old age.

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Women Entrepreneurship: Status and Challenges

The status of women in India has been changing due to growing industrialization, globalization, and social legislation. Entrepreneurship has been a male-dominated phenomenon from the very early age, but time has changed the situation and made women some of the most memorable and inspirational entrepreneurs today. The role of Women entrepreneur in economic development is inevitable. Now-a-days women enter not only in selected professions but also in professions like trade, industry and engineering. The policy and institutional framework for developing entrepreneurial skills, providing vocation, education and training has widened the horizon for economic empowerment of women. However, entrepreneurship development and skill training is not the only responsibility of Government. Therefore other stakeholders need to shoulder the responsibility too. This paper focuses on the status of women entrepreneurs and the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs.

Ms. Ashwini A. Acharya

1. Introduction

Empowerment of women is viewed as an all round development in the status of women and manifestation of their potential in all walks of life. This is realized through several inter-related and mutually reinforcing components such as awareness development with regard to socio-economic status, discrimination, rights and opportunity towards gender equality, entrepreneurship development, and capacity building which ultimately develops their ability to plan and pursue economic activities and participate in the decision-making process at all spheres. In other words, empowering them socially, economically and politically can enhance the status of women. Due to developmental efforts, the country has witnessed improvement in the status of women in many spheres such as health, nutrition, education, social and economic participation. Women empowerment is therefore a crucial issue, which would enable women to realize their full identity and potential and contribute effectively to the growth of the society.

India has adopted several policies to ensure the participation and empowerment of women. The 73rd and 74th Amendment to Indian Constitution are major milestones on the road of political empowerment of women. In continuation, the Government has also implemented a good number of schemes for development of rural people, and especially for rural poor women to have effective women's participation in reducing poverty.

Evidences suggest that the entire family is more likely to benefit economically and women are to benefit personally and socially, when loans are directed at women than men (Kabeer, 2001). Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) is one such centrally sponsored scheme introduced in 1999, by merging all the major anti-poverty programmes. Its main objective is to bring the assisted families above the poverty line within three years by raising their income to a minimum of Rs. 2000/per month. Later, in 2011 National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) was introduced with the objective of providing self-employment/livelihood opportunities to the rural women in particular. However, the implementation of these schemes would be successful if there is state support in capacity building process of women through appropriate interventions, cooperation from the officials, monitoring by Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs) and community. The other major bottlenecks observed in the participation of women in entrepreneurial activities and decision-making process were lack of mobility, burden of household responsibilities, lack of active involvement, and using collective bargaining strength in order to improve their status in the society and at home. Thus, women entrepreneurship must be moulded properly with entrepreneurial traits and skills to meet the changes and also become competent enough to strive for excellence in

the entrepreneurial arena. Apart from training programs; newsletters, mentoring, trade fairs and exhibitions also can be a source for entrepreneurial development. As a result, the desired outcomes of the enterprise are quickly achieved and more of remunerative business opportunities are found.

Women Entrepreneurs may be defined as the woman or group of women who initiate, organize and co-operate a business enterprise. Government of India has defined women entrepreneurs as an enterprise owned and controlled by a woman, having a minimum financial interest of 51% of the capital and giving at least 51% of employment generated in the enterprise to women. The Indian women are no longer to be remains at home. They are also enjoying the impact of globalization and making an influence not only on domestic but also on international sphere. Women are doing a wonderful job striking a balance between their house and career. Women entrepreneurs are key players in any developing country, particularly in terms of their contribution to economic development. In recent years, even among the developed countries like USA and Canada, Women's role in terms of their share in small business has been increasing. In these contexts, this paper examines the impact of entrepreneurial activity on women empowerment and challenges faced in sustaining the economic activity generated by women entrepreneurs.

2. Status and Level of Empowerment

For the study purpose, beneficiaries of centrally sponsored poverty reduction scheme (earlier SGSY and now taken over in NRLM) functioning in the State of Goa is selected wherein the women entrepreneurs of Self Help Groups (SHGs) were identified; with a criterion of minimum 1 to 5 years of experience in self employed/ livelihood activities. The SHGs of BPL (Below Poverty Line) from Bardez Block of North Goa District were randomly chosen. The following parameters were examined to assess the status and level of empowerment among women entrepreneurs.

2.1 Impact on Family Income

Women's economic contribution to household income has an important impact on their family welfare. It also enhances their well-being and is a significant factor contributing to empowerment. This has been observed while interacting with group members during the study visit. The beneficiaries before availing benefits of the Government scheme were as good as unemployed; while after joining the scheme, they are earning a reasonable income which ranges from Rs. 500 to Rs. 2000 per month through their self employed individual activities. However, it is observed that the women entrepreneurs have concentrated more on activities which they have individual expertise in the concerned

area where in less number of skill up gradation training is undertaken such as local masala making, selling coconuts, coconut oil, crotchet making, selling vegetables, eatable items, catering activity, etc. These are resulting only marginal increase in income level, depending upon the demand for SHG products during particular season. There is no regular market opportunity and government support as such to sell out their products. Thus, marketing avenues needs to be identified at block level and more skill up gradation training is required for enhancing entrepreneurship.

2.2. Impact on Expenditure and Savings

Per capita expenditure is considered as an indicator of standard of living. Women in poor households spend almost all their income for day to day expenses. During an interaction with women SHG members, it is found that the level of per capita expenditure and savings has increased after joining as beneficiary of the scheme compared to earlier situation. Now they are able to contribute their income for consumption purpose in the family and also received an identity for generating additional income to the family. Out of monthly income ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 2000, they are able to save Rs. 200 to Rs. 500.

However, there is nominal increase in expenditure as the average increase in income per month is very low. Similar is the situation with per capita saving. Although after joining the scheme, saving has increased from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500 but the change in saving is least. The possible reasons could be due to non-consistency in selling the economic activities taken up by the women entrepreneurs throughout the year, marketing problems as mentioned earlier, limited number of participation and exposure to women entrepreneurs in exhibitions that are organized by government within and outside state.

2.3 Impact on Decision-making and Capacity Building

It is known that benefits received by women will increase their overall welfare of the family and enhances their relative status within the household. Monetary independence also gives a greater role for women in decision-making. These changes in turn reflect in women empowerment. The information collected from identified SHG women entrepreneurs of Goa shows that women play a major role in taking decisions related to household work and education of their children specially education of girl child. Whereas, they play only a moderate role in taking decisions regarding housing plan and construction, purchasing gold, marriage of their children, etc.

Even though the scheme has helped to make significant improvement in their income status; their participation in decision-making is restricted which could be due to the structure and culture prevailing

in the family. Apart from their participation in household decision-making, the women entrepreneurs have shown improvement in their level of participation in Gram Sabha; wherein they participate in the discussion on development issues of the village. Also speak on the type of training courses women entrepreneurs need for further enhancement of their skills. Thus, women empowerment with respect to their involvement at certain socio-economic spheres within the family as well as in the society has shown significant improvement. However, to empower women along with income & credit facilities, their active involvement in local governance is still needed; for which measures like consciousness in social and political spheres, effective skill based education, awareness generation training on improving health facilities, etc. are the need of the hour.

3. Problems of Women Entrepreneurs

Women entrepreneurs face many problems in their efforts to develop enterprise at various stages, beginning from their initial commencement to the running of enterprise. The main problems faced by the women entrepreneurs are given below:

3.1. Marketing Problems

Women entrepreneurs often depend upon the middlemen for marketing their products. They also find it difficult to capture the market and make their products popular. A lot of money is needed for advertisement to face stiff competition from well-established entrepreneurs. Women entrepreneurs also lack energy. And extra efforts are needed to find capital to invest and to win the confidence of customers and popularize the products.

3.2. Shortage of Raw materials

Women entrepreneurs find it difficult to procure the required raw materials and other necessary inputs for production in sufficient quantity and quality. The prices of raw materials are quite high and fluctuate. Women entrepreneurs also encounter the problem of shortage of raw materials.

3.3. Stiff Competition

Women entrepreneurs have to face severe competition from organized industries and entrepreneurs having vast experience. Many of the women enterprises have imperfect organizational set up. But they also have to face severe competition from organized industries.

3.4. High Cost of Production

High cost of production restricts the efficiency and stands in the way of development and expansion of women's enterprises. The government assistance in the form of grant and subsidies to some extent enables

them to tide over such difficult situations. However, in the long run, it would be necessary to increase efficiency and expand productive capacity and thereby reduce cost. The women entrepreneurs also face the problems of human resources, infrastructure, legal formalities, overload of work, lack of family support, etc.

3.5. Lack of Entrepreneurial Aptitude and Entrepreneurial Training

Many of the women participants of the trainings have no entrepreneurial bent of mind. Also, a large number of women have not sufficient technical and professional capacity to set-up a new venture. The involvement of women in small scale-sector as owners stands at mere 7%.

4. Suggestions for the Growth of Women Entrepreneurs

Looking at the status of women entrepreneurs in the study area, a sustained growth in income is needed with regular monitoring by state authorities during execution of income generating activity. Thus, awareness on proper identification of income generating activity depending upon the skill acquired by women entrepreneurs and availability of raw material is utmost important before starting entrepreneurship activity.

Lack of marketing opportunity and limited government support further reduces consistency in women participation in entrepreneurship activity. Thus, government initiative to facilitate marketing arrangements at each block level for the sale of the output is necessary to have regular outflow of the SHG products in the market. Besides this, frequent participation in exhibitions by women entrepreneur is equally important to upgrade their overall capacity to run the economic activity in full swing.

Women's active involvements in local governance, in all spheres of decision-making activities through using their collective strength are yet to take place. Thus, social and political consciousness, awareness of their rights, vocational education and capacity building is required to challenge the existing structure, culture and tradition followed in the society.

Women entrepreneurs think they can do it all themselves. But they are not thinking about team building and tapping resources. It is important that women entrepreneurs organize themselves as a team that will have synergy and expertise to run a successful business.

Right efforts from all areas are required in the development of women entrepreneurs and their greater participation in the entrepreneurial activities. The following measures are suggested to empower the women to explore various opportunities and face challenges as entrepreneurs:

- i. Organize training programmes to develop professional competencies in managerial, leadership, marketing, financial, production process, profit planning, maintaining books of accounts and other skills.
- ii. Educational institutes should tie up with various government and non-government agencies to assist in entrepreneurship development mainly to plan business projects.
- iii. International, National and Local trade fairs, Industrial exhibitions, seminars and conferences should be organized to help women to facilitate interaction with other women entrepreneurs.
- iv. Women must be educated and trained constantly to acquire the skills and knowledge and knowledge in technology. This can facilitate women to excel in decision-making process and develop a good business network.
- v. Establish all India forums to discuss the problems, grievances, issues, and filing complaints against constraints or shortcomings towards the economic progress path of women entrepreneurs and giving suitable decisions in the favor of women entrepreneurs.

5. Conclusion

The emergence of women entrepreneurs and their contribution to the national economy is quite visible in India. Women are found to be involved in every line of business from papad making to power cables. Even though there are many successful women entrepreneurs in our country, the male dominating posing challenges which women entrepreneurs face from family and society. The Government of India has been showing increasing concern for women issues through a variety of legislations promoting the education and political participation of women. There should also be efforts from all concerned to encourage the economic participation of women.

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- Centre for Sustainable development & Local Governments & Local Government Knowledge Centre on Environment, Climate Change & Bio -Diversity, KILA HQ, Thrissur
- Innovation, Incubation Hub for Local Governments & SC/ST Resource Centre, KILA HQ, Thrissur
- Legal Resource Centre for Local Governments
- Gender School of Local Governance & Child Resource Centre, KILA HQ, Thrissur
- Centre for Organic Farming & Waste Management, Thaliparamba, Kannur
- Centre for Socio -Economic Development, Kottarakkara, Kollam
- Centre for Good Governance, Mannuthy, Thrissur
- Centre for Urban Governance & South Asian School of Local Governance, KILA HQ, Thrissur
- Help Desk

Child Sexual Abuse in Kerala: Violation of Child Rights Under POCSO ACT

This study aims at analyzing the child sexual abuse in Kerala. After the enactment of POCSO Act, the reporting of child sexual abuse shows an increasing trend both in Kerala and India. A special legislation is enacted to curb the child sexual abuse in India. The acquittal as well as the conviction rate of the accused is low both in India and Kerala under POCSO Act. However, compared to national level the conviction rate is low in Kerala. There are so many lacunas in reporting of the child sexual abuse. Moreover the cases where the victims turn hostile in child sexual abuse trials. The Local Self Governments Institutions have a great role in improving the protection and well-being of the children and prevent child sexual abuse.

Saji Mathew

1.Introduction

Children are sexually abused in different ways all over the world. India is one among the top countries of the world, facing highest rate of sexual offence involving children, with a child below 16 years raped every 155th minute, a child below 10 every 13th hour and one in every 10 children sexually abused at any point of time (www.childlineindia.org.in). Most of the child sexual abuse cases go unreported due to various reasons even after the enactment of various laws for the protection of child rights against child sexual abuse. Abuse of children sexually, violates the right of the child and leads to greater stigma to the children. In a landmark case, an NGO named Sakshi approached the honourable Supreme Court of India seeking all forms of penetration, which is included within “sexual inter course” as per Section 375 IPC. (AIR, 2004). The said NGO approached the Supreme Court in a situation where child sexual abuse increased at an alarming rate and majority go unpunished due to the lacunas in the law and procedures (*ibid.*, 2004). The honorable Supreme Court directed for in-camera proceeding in sexual abuse cases under Sections 354 and 377 of IPC. The honorable Supreme Court of India held that a separate legislation is needed for child sexual abuse. (AIR,1996).

The special legislation on Protection of Children from Sexual Offences (POCSO) Act enacted in 2012 is a breakthrough in the protection of children against sexual abuse. The POCSO has brought new cases of sexual abuse against children and criminalized it. The scope of POCSO is wider than the then exiting legislations against child sexual abuse. Under POCSO there are different types of child sexual abuse crimes. The POCSO Act has given detailed provisions to bring the culprit of child sexual abuse under law. But various reasons pose hindrance in bringing culprit before justice and the accused go unpunished. Most of the cases are unreported due to various reasons: (i) the family of the child may consider it as a shame and it would affect the child’s future, (ii) the society’s attitude towards the child, (iii) accused person’s influence, etc. In case of reported incidents, the conviction rate is very low due to the victim turn hostile, delay in reporting, influence of the accused etc. (<https://data.gov.in/resources>). Both girls and boys are the victims. Among the various reasons, family considering it as shame to disclose the sexual abuse stands top. There is no correlation between the socio-economic background of the victim and child sexual abuse. The victims face both long term and short term problems after the sexual abuse (Carson et.al., 2013).

The low awareness, social stigma, and negligence have constituted to increase the crime (Human Rights Watch, 2013). The emotional conflict in reporting abuse, angry response by family members, ostracism by the community, settling privately to avoid stigma, fearing

retaliation are the reasons for the victim to not to reveal the crime (ibid., 2013). A study reveals that about fifty percent of the children were sexually abused in one way or another. Both girls and boys were sexually abused. The majority of abused belong to the age group of 5-12 years. Boys outnumbered girls in child sexual abuses. The forms of abuse are sexual assault, forcible kissing, pornographic material exposed to children, children forced to view private parts, forced to touch, exhibit parts, photographed in nude, etc. Among the forms of sexual abuse, pornographic material exposed to child stands top with prevalence of 30.2 percent, followed by forced kissing 21 percent. The perpetrators include uncle, neighbours, friends, etc. (Govt. of India, 2007). Another study exposed that girls out numbered boys as victims in child sexual abuse. The study suggested measure like educational awareness to improve more reporting. (Putnam, 2003). The impacts of physical, mental, and behavioral trauma faced by victims of child sexual abuse is also reported. (Singh.M.M et. al., 2014). A study conducted by an NGO named TULIR in Chennai, among plus one students in Chennai Corporation reveals that among 2211 students, 48 percent of boys and 39 percent of girls were sexually abused. The socio-economic status of the victim is not a relevant factor for child sexual abuse, the study reveals. Among the different forms of sexual abuse private parts touching stand top, following by exhibitionism, and watch pornography. (Tulir, 2006).

The child sexual abuse results in various impacts on the victims. It leads to both short term and long term impacts on the child. Depression, suicide, sexual promiscuity as well as sexual depravity, academic under achievement, etc. are the short term impacts. The long term impacts of child sexual abuse in adulthood may leads to depression, low self-esteem, anger, anxiety, obsession, suicidal tendencies, starting drugs consumption, and many physical and mental problems. The place of occurrences are victim's home, abusers place, neighbourhood, on the way to school, at shop, shelter home, places of workshop, etc. Abusers are generally neighbours, relatives, teachers, lovers, strangers, step parents, etc. (Lina Acca Mathew, 2017). The different types of child sexual abuses under POCSO are sexual abuses, sexual assaults, penetrative sexual assault, aggravated sexual assault, aggravated penetrative assault, pornography and online sexual abuse.

2. Cases Registered in Kerala (2012 to 2018)

The number of cases registered under POCSO Act from 2012 to 2018 in Kerala shows that the number of cases is increasing every year. In 2012, the number of cases registered is 77, 1014 in 2013, 1042 in 2014, 1583 in 2015, 2122 in 2016, 2697 in 2017, 900 in 2018 (upto April 2018). It denotes that number of cases registered in Kerala has increased at the rate of 233.9 per annum from 2012 to 2018. It is very

clear from the above analysis, a positive trend in number of cases is observed in Kerala during this period. (<https://keralapolice.gov.in/public-information/crime-statistics/pocso>).

3. Acquittal under POCSO in India and Kerala

The number of cases registered in India in 2012 is 38,172 and persons convicted 4,032 (10.56 percent). In the same year in Kerala, 1324 cases were registered and 76 convicted (5.74 percent). In India in 2016, the number of cases registered is 36022 and convicted 3226 (8.96 percent). In Kerala the number of cases registered is 1848 and convicted 47 (2.54 percent). The conviction rate varied every year during 2012 to 2016 both in India and Kerala. In India, it varied from 6.60 to 11.94 and in Kerala it was 2.54 to 5.74. The average of conviction rate during this period in India is 9.06 and Kerala shows an average of 4.65 percent. The 90 percent of the accused persons were acquitted in the cases registered under POCSO Act in India and it is more than 95 percent in Kerala. (<https://data.gov.in/resources/stateut-wise-cases-registered-cases-which-trials-were-completed-cases-convicted-conviction>). It reveals that, whatever may be the reason, the child sexual abusers go unpunished even after the enactment of the special legislation under POCSO. This is due to inadequate policies, weakness in mechanism, community attitudes, reputational risk of child and family etc.

In respect of child sexual abuse cases, the perpetrators walk free despite prosecution proceedings taken under POCSO Act. The lack of possible remedial measures to address the problems, hurdles in implementation, lack of monitoring and other grass root level problems come into the hindrance of the POCSO Act. The un-reporting issue is a serious hindrance in bringing the culprit before law. So an in-depth analysis could bring the ground level situations and tackle the issues, which in turn would help to protect and promote the rights of the child and thereby benefit the society at large. Awareness among the children is a sine-quo-non for preventing this social menace. There is an expeditious need of practical and sustainable solutions to curb the social menace.

4. Role of Local Self Government Institutions (LSGIs)

To get involved the LSGIs in the various facets of the child sexual abuse problem, the Government of Kerala has taken various initiatives after the Nirbhaya incident. (Nirbhaya, means fearless, in compliance with the Indian Penal Code (Section 228A(2)) the real name of the victim should not be released; hence the name Nirbhaya). To the rape and fatal assault victim who died struggling protecting herself which occurred on 16 December 2012 in South Delhi. (Nunglekpm Premi Devi, 2018). The Kerala Government has taken series of

initiatives under the aegis of Social Welfare Department, Social Justice Department, Kerala Women Commission, Kerala Commission of Protection of Child Rights and to made involvement of NGOs and international organisations in the policy making for combating sexual abuse against child. Kerala Government has framed a State Policy for Child in 2016 (<https://kerala.gov.in/documents>).

The initiative on 'Child Friendly Local Governance' by KILA (Kerala Institute of Local Administration) under the auspices of CRC (Child Resource Centre) is a right step in this direction. Working in close collaboration with CRC, Local Self Government Institutions (LSGIs) take up several initiatives on child-friendly governance. LSGIs would also be able to monitor the implementation of policies, laws, schemes and programmes with budgets for children, and produce outcomes for children. Thus, in a child friendly local governance unit (Grama Panchayat, Municipality or Corporation), both the rights holders and the duty bearers have serious stake in good governance for children. The LSGIs can ensure the protection right for all children in their area of jurisdiction. Right to protection is an entitlement of children to be safeguarded against all sorts of abuse, violence, and dangers in any situation whether in the family, schools, establishments, community, and public space. As children in Kerala are exposed to various threats in life, it is the duty of the LSGIs to protect children and adolescence from exploitation, abuse, moral and material abandonment. Another platform at LSGI level is Jagrata Samiti (Vigilance Committee). Strengthening Jagratha Samiti provide space for conduct legal aid clinics, follow up activities in association with KELSA, put up complaint boxes, conduct crime mapping and vulnerability mapping, create a conducive environment for the abused victim to get reintegrated with the family and community (Peter M.Raj et.al. 2016).

Child Protection Unit has established in all the 14 districts. KILA took initiative of model Bala Sabha, Bala Samitis, and Bala Panchayat - neighbourhood network of children under LSGIs. The Gender Resource Centre, Block Level Counselling Centre, and Snehitha is a 24 hours working gender help desk. It works to avail support and help to the helpless women in the society. The main aim of the center is to provide help and support to those women and children who are in distress and provide voice for their issues and concerns. Also to prevent, protect, and prevail over domestic violence through advocacy, empowerment, and social change. (<http://www.kudumbashree.org>).

Snehitha, Gender Help Desk, which functions in all districts have intervened various atrocities against women and children such as domestic violence and child abuse, trafficking and sexual harassment. Kudumbashree has developed 114 Gender Resource Centres and Block Level Counselling Centres in convergence with LSGIs. Vigilant groups were formed to prevent atrocities against women and children

in 14,949 wards. (Govt. of Kerala, 2018-2019).

Jagratha Samithis spearheaded by the Kerala Women's Commission which are to function under all the rural and urban LSGIs, need to be strengthened, as an effective arm to combat atrocities against women and children. (<http://keralawomenscommission.gov.in/vanithaweb>).

The Draft Framework of Kerala State Policy for Combating Sexual Violence against Women and Children recognizes the need for institutional preparedness and competence within government and in collaboration with civil society to sensitively handle the problem, and calls for enunciating standards of care to be provided by institutions. The said policy recognizes the need for planning and co-ordination at the local body level, district level and the state level for addressing the deep rooted and underlying causes as also for taking adequate measures for psychological support, economic empowerment and re-integration so that the victims do not get drawn into an abusive situation again on account of non-availability of other options. The policy emphasizes the role of the Local Governments, viz, the Grama Panchayat, Block Panchayat, District Panchayat and Urban local governments in prevention, identification and rescue, as well as in rehabilitation of cases of sexual abuse as crucial for ensuring effective interventions in this area. The policy recognizes the need to revamp and strengthen the Jagratha Samitis, especially at local self government levels, to take on the mantle of LSG led, community based engagement with the issue, not merely as a grievance redressal and legal counseling mechanism, but also for identification, rehabilitation and reintegration into society. The policy seeks to co-ordinate the existing mechanisms dealing with the issues of women and children viz- Juvenile Justice Board, Child Welfare Committee, Women Protection Officer, Dist. Probation Officer, Vanitha Helpline, Child line, Bhoomika (Gender Board Violence Management Centre working in District Hospitals & Taluk Hospitals), Police Vanitha Helpline, ICTCs (Integrated Counseling and Testing Centres) working in all Taluk Hospitals under KSACS, etc. Kerala which has shown the way in the country on effective democratic decentralization will use its strong and well empowered Local Self Governments (LSGs) to bring in departmental convergence at the grass-root level to fight this crime sensitivity on a war footing for ensuring social transformation and a safe world for women and children. (Govt. of Kerala, 2011)

The implementation of the policy will happen at three levels: Panchayat/ Urban Local Government (Municipality and Corporation), District, and State. The Jagratha Samiti comprises of Panchayat President/ Chairperson, Municipality/ Corporation Mayor (Chairperson) Standing Committee Chairperson (for ULGs) A woman Panchayat Member/ Municipal Ward Councillor, Doctor of the PHC/CHC, Kudumbashree CDS Chairperson, Woman Lawyer (to be nominated by the District

Legal Services Authority), Circle Inspector or Sub Inspector of local Police Station, Woman SC/ST Panchayat Member or Social Activist a 'One Convenor of the Ward Level Jagratha Samitis', ICDS Supervisor/ CDPO (Convenor). The mandate and the functioning of the Jagratha Samitis will be strengthened to enable them to function effectively as the core committee for the Nirbhaya Programme. At the district level, District Nirbhaya Committees will be constituted for co-ordination of the policy interventions. Nirbhaya Committee will closely review and monitor the functioning of the LSGs, departments and institutions that are responsible for ensuring the safety of women and children and for taking up action to prevent sexual abuse and trafficking of women and children. (Govt. of Kerala, 2012).

5. Conclusion

The LSGIs have a prominent role in improving the protection and well-being of the children. LSGIs through Kudumbasree and local communities can interact with the child victims and their family easily. They can inform and advise the law enforcement agencies about the practical difficulties in the issues involved. With the help of local communities LSGIs can minimize the level of hindrance faced in the reporting and effective implementation of the protection of child sexual abuse. They can access the needs of the child victim and can give practical support. The LSGIs can identify the child sexual abuse in the locality, identify the accused and child victim, inform the police about the child sexual abuse, report and help law enforcement agencies, support the child victim and family. The victims of child sexual abuse and their family needs community and institutional support. LSGI have an important role in the protection and empowerment of children through the Jagratha Samiti, which act as a watch dog for the protection of children against sexual abuse thereby preventing the social evil.

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Social Audit: Evolution and Challenges Ahead

The execution and implementation of developmental programmes are always on radar of local community for accountability. One tool to ensure accountability of implementing agencies is "Social Audit". The paper has taken a bird's eye view on the short history of social audit, giving an account of evolution of the thought where social results instead of financial expenditure or physical progress of a developmental project, are the areas of concern. It has been clarified that the major objective of audit of social performance is to identify and measure the contribution of an individual entity or an institution to the aggregate social benefits and sacrifices with the active involvement of the primary stakeholders. The commentary paper has underlined the purpose of social audit and makes its comparison with financial audit besides approach as people's audit. The statutory provision of social audit in Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, the changes taken place over the time and its institutionalization have been discussed, critically. It is concluded that in a retrospective effect, social audit may be fault finding process but it has trickled down the message of transparency and accountability in the functioning for the prospective effect.

Dr. Rajeev Bansal

1. Introduction

In a democratic country, the government has twin role – one, regulatory powers to implement rules and schemes, second-socio economic development with delivery of services to its citizens. The execution and implementation of programmes are always on radar of local community for accountability. To ensure the accountability, participation of stakeholders and transparency in the working of the implementing agency is the mechanism required as an integral component of every scheme or programme. Citizen centric administration, the space for common man, service guarantee acts brought in by different states, the governance with electronic tools; all have been the tested instruments of downward accountability. One such tool of accountability is “Social Audit”. People assume it to be a financial audit by the society, whereas, it is an audit by the stakeholders - the members of the society to monitor and evaluate the social results, benefits or outcomes incident upon them from the programmes or schemes implemented for their benefits.

2. History of Social Audit

In the mid 1970s in the UK and Europe, the term Social Audit emerged to describe evaluations that focused on the likely impact on jobs, the community and the environment if a particular enterprise or industry were to close or relocate. These evaluations used the term Social Audit to clearly make the point that they were concerned with the ‘social’ and not the ‘economic’ consequence of a particular action.

The first recorded example of Social Audit was developed in 1978 at Beechwood College, an independent worker co-operative training centre in the England. In 1981, a manual called “Social Audit – A Management Tool for Co-operative Working” by “Freer Spreckley”, was published. It contained an organisational method for democratic organisations to use in measuring their own social performance with four main elements Social Purpose, External View, Internal View and Social Accounting. One of the first recorded social reports was in Switzerland where the Migros Co-operative, a large multi-functional organization, first published a social report in 1978. During the late 1980s, there was an explosion of interest in the ideas of Social Audit as a number of business schools started looking at social responsibility in industry. New Economic Foundation (NEF) in London, established in 1984, published a the Social Audit Workbook in 1997. The NEF established the Institute of Social and Ethical Accountability that drafted a set of standards for monitoring the application of Social Audit. During the late 1990s, many organisations continued to develop and practice Social Audit. In 1997, Social Enterprise Partnership developed the first European Social Audit programme involving groups from Ireland, Spain, Finland, Sweden, Denmark and England. This programme

used the Social Audit Toolkit model and it was translated in a number of European languages. Social Enterprise Partnership had run and been involved with three transnational Social Audit programmes that also included France, Belgium and Italy.

3. Concept of Social Audit

Social audit is considered an important tool to ensure accountability and transparency in the system of governance. The word 'Audit' came from the Latin word *audire*, which means "to hear". The primary objective of an audit is to reveal defects or irregularities in any of the functions or activities examined and to indicate possible improvements so that organizational efficiency and effectiveness may improve. John Pearce (2005) defined "Social Auditing is the process whereby an organization can account for its social performance. It assesses the social impact and ethical behaviour of an organization in relation to its aims and those of its stakeholders." Parthasarthy (1988) observed: Social audit may be regarded as being at the extreme end of the spectrum of audit functions. Over the centuries, audit function have grown and evolved, starting from the most ancient kind which may be called vigilance audit as it was concerned mainly with the detection of frauds. Then came, in more or less chronological order, regularity audit, propriety audit, value for money audit, performance audit and lastly social audit.

It can be concluded that Social Audit is focused on broadening the base of 'viability' to include extra-financial factors that are imperative to long term sustainability. The Social Audit examines the procedure and performance of an organisation's social and commercial actions in relation to its stated objectives and its external and internal position.

3.1 Objectives of Social Audit

The major objective of audit of social performance is to identify and measure the contribution of an individual entity or an institution to the aggregate social benefits and sacrifices. Social audit can be described as checking and verification of a programme/scheme implementation and its results by the community with the active involvement of the primary stakeholders. Social audit covers the quantity and quality of works in relation to the expenses incurred/disbursement made, number of works/materials used and also selection of works and location of works. The aim is effective implementation and control of irregularities.

3.2 Purpose of Social Audit

Social audits can vary in terms of scope and purpose. The purpose of conducting Social Audit is NOT to find fault with the individual functionaries but to assess the performance in terms of social,

environmental and community goals of the organisation. It provides an assessment of the impact of non-financial objectives of an organisation through systematic and regular monitoring, based on the views of its stakeholders.

3.3 Social versus Financial Audit

The comparison of financial and social audit elucidates the end objective of social audit which is quite different from financial audit.

i. Financial Audit

The financial audit undertaken by a departmental auditor or a chartered accountant is a financial tool where the area of concern is process and procedure, rules and regulations etc. There is hardly any focus on the results of expenditures and activities besides the beneficiaries have no role in this all process.

ii. Social Audit

Social audit is an outcome oriented performance appraisal undertaken with active participation of the stakeholders i.e. the direct beneficiaries of programme. Its main focus is whether the spending has made a difference or not; whether the benefits envisaged by the scheme or programme have actually reached the people. The results and findings are shared with the stakeholders in a public hearing. Social Audit assesses the performance, highlights the leakages and unpacks decisions; in this manner it complements the financial audit.

3.4 People's Audit

People's audit is an example of an external social audit. People's Audit is based on the principle that people's participation can enhance systems of good governance. People's audit is therefore a process and not an end in itself. In any democratic system, public funds ultimately belong to the people and people should have a large role to play in evaluation of utilization in terms of results and outcomes. The government machinery must be held accountable for the manner in which it spends public money. People's audit provides a way to measure, understand, report and improve the social and ethical performance of the system. Social Audit is based upon this approach.

3.5 Steps to Social Auditing

There are six key steps to conduct a social audit:

1. Preparatory activity includes understanding key principles of Social Audit, listing core values and social objectives of the department/programmes and matching activities with objectives, listing current practices and delivery systems, fixing the responsibility for doing Social Audit and budget for Social Audit.
2. Defining audit boundaries by identifying key issues and objectives

and identifying stakeholders.

3. Selection of performance indicators for social accounting and social book keeping.
4. Preparing and using social accounts.
5. Presentation of social accounts to social auditor for the quality of the reports and further dissemination to stakeholders and civil society.
6. Feedback for fine tuning policy, legislation, administrative functioning and programming towards social objectives and institutionalization of the process

To put it concisely, social auditing is a process by which an organization accounts for its social performance to its stakeholders and seeks to improve its future social performance.

4. Social Audit to Measure Social Performance

Charles Medawar (1992) pioneered the belief that Social Audit in principle is based on the fact that in a democracy the decision makers should account for the use of their powers and which should be used, as far as possible, with the consent and understanding of all concerned. Freer Spreckley defined “Social auditing is a systematic and objective accounting procedure that enables organisations to measure a range of internal and external factors not covered by financial auditing.” John Pearce further endorsed the viewpoint by quoting “Social auditing is the process whereby an organisation can account for its social performance. It assesses the social impact and ethical behaviour of an organisation in relation to its aims and those of its stakeholders.” These definitions emphasize the key feature of social audit as being a tool which expands on financial audit to assess the broader impacts of an organisation’s activities.

In other words, social audit may be defined as an in-depth scrutiny and analysis of working of any public utility vis-à-vis its social relevance. Garry Woller, (2008) in USAID Social Audit Tool Handbook described Social Audit as “an examination of the records, statements, internal processes, and procedures of an organization related to its social performance. It is undertaken with a view to providing assurance to the quality and meaningfulness of the organization’s claimed social performance.” On the basis of above, it is evident that social auditing is a process by which organizations can account for, report on, and improve their social performance. Agrawal, N.P., explaining the meaning of Social Audit has mentioned, “Government non-commercial organisations termed as departments are operated with a view to provide facilities to public at large. Public concern for the ways in which organisations upheld their social responsibilities has created a tremendous pressure for social audits”. Blake, Frederick and

Myers (1976) define the term Social Audit as “A systematic attempt to identify, analyze, measure (if possible), evaluate and monitor the effect of an organization’s effect on society and on the public well-being”. World Bank Institute (2007) observed, “A social audit aims to make organizations more accountable for the social objectives they declare. Characterizing an audit as social does not mean that it does not examine costs and finances: its central concern is how resources are used to achieve social objectives, including how resources can be better mobilized to meet those objectives.

Although the term “audit” may imply the mere examination of costs and finance, a social audit’s central concern is how resources are used for social objectives. The term social audit refers to the audit of the social responsibility role performed by an entity. Social auditing provides an assessment of the impact of an organisation’s non-financial objectives through systematically and regularly monitoring its performance and the views of its stakeholders.

5. Social Audit in India

Social audit in India is part of international trend towards greater accountability in different development programmes. The concept of Social Audit is comparatively new in India which is globally known as People’s Audit or Public Audit. In Indian context, social audit found mention in the recommendations of Ashok Mehta Committee (1977) constituted to give recommendations to revive panchayati raj institutions with new vigour and greater developmental role at the grass root level. The Committee recommended establishment of “Social Audit Cell” at the district level as a watch dog agency to monitor the utilization of funds earmarked for the socio-economic development of weaker sections. Later, 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, 1993 provided constitutional status to Panchayati Raj Institutions. This new situation made Government of India to constitute Dilip Singh Bhuria Committee (1994), which recommended bestowing statutory status upon the Gram Sabha to conduct the Social Audit at the Panchayat level. Defining social audit, the committee said that the audit would not be in nature of financial audit or even of general programme discussions. Making it more specific, the committee emphasized that records would be subjected to close scrutiny and the criterion would be not financial disbursement but whether the intended benefits had reached the target groups. In context of Panchayati Raj, Vision Foundation (2005) defined, “Social Audit as a process in which, details of the resources, both financial and non-financial, used by public agencies for development initiatives are shared with the people, often through a public platform. Social Audit allows people to enforce accountability and transparency, providing the ultimate users an opportunity to scrutinize development initiatives.” Social audit has been incorporated

in different programmes and scheme of development sector but could not see the light of the day. In MG NREGA, Social audit has been included as a statutory provision where it has taken place to some extent in some states. In India, civil society organisations (CSOs) like Mazdoor Kissan Shakti Sangathan (MKSS), Parivartan, etc. facilitated people's audit or public audit, particularly of some developmental schemes, in the last decade of the 20th century. These audits played a crucial role in educating people and enabled them to put pressure on the political parties and the administrative system to take corrective measures. These early processes paved the way for the introduction and acceptance of social audit.

6. Social Audit in MGNREGA

In the year 2005, the Government of India has taken a strategic initiative to implement Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA, 2005) with statutory provisions through a specifically designed scheme. Section 3 of Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act provided a legal guarantee of 100 days wage employment to every rural household whose adult family members volunteer to do unskilled manual work at the wage rate notified for the purpose in the respective states in a financial year. Apropos of it, the MG NREG Scheme in all the states of India has been envisioned to be implemented through participation of community in a transparent manner through the public accountability of the implementing agencies. Section 17 of the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (2005) mentioned the concept of social audit as means of continuous public vigilance. Different changes in the provisions for social audit through rules, guidelines and instructions have been brought in by the GoI but these efforts failed to deliver the envisioned results as reports of scams, embezzlement, irregularities in MG NREGA have kept pouring in. The desired social audit could not take place since the structures described in rules, guidelines and instructions were deficient of administrative and political support in most of the states although Government of India notified Social Audit Rules in 2011 which provided a homogeneous structure and framework for undertaking social audit in all the states.

7. Impact of Social Audit

The practice of Social Audit results into monitoring of social and ethical impact and performance of the organization and its impact on stakeholders; it further helps to ascertain that quantum of the mission and values of the organization it is living up. A participatory social audit provides a basis for shaping management strategy in a socially responsible and accountable way and to identify opportunities and potential problems. The findings of social audit facilitates improvement in social performance and social impact on communities, increase in

the accountability to the groups it serves as it happened in MG NREGS in Andhra Pradesh and a few other states. In a retrospective effect, social audit may be fault finding process but it has trickled down the message of transparency and accountability in the functioning for the prospective effect. This impact further percolates as potential benefits such as credibility among the people about the transparent and accountable functioning of public institutions, increased confidence in social areas; and improves financial performance for the establishment of democratic governance.

There are challenges of political will and administrative support in undertaking social audit in programmes and schemes. The participation of community and stakeholders with development ownership is the key to such challenges. An aware and vigilante society can play an effective role in enforcing social audit in development sector programmes.

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The Concept of Circular Economy in Local Governance: Regenerative Kerala Model

Phoenix reborn from ashes in Greek mythology depicts the regenerative model which mankind believes that in existence in the world. Albeit the bird was an idea, it reflects the human belief and interest in regeneration, an every time fascination of mankind. The moral of the story is that there exists 'no waste' in the life cycle of Phoenix and there is a conservation of mass. The linear model of economy is being practiced across the globe where the equations are take, make and dispose (TMD) The TMD model create or leave behind 'matter' in the physical world. In the perspective of a local government the matter as a result of TMD is 'waste' in the forms of solid, liquid and gas. The conservation of mass is null, which in turn opens up the Pandora's Box of waste management. In contrast to the linear economy system there is a circular system which bases its argument on regeneration and have a conservation of mass system which is useful in the waste management practices. The present treatise dialogically analyse the utility of linear economy system in comparison with circular economy system.

Toby Thomas, B.Sc., LL.M.

1. Introduction

The management of available resources to an optimal level is essential for the sustainable development of state. The principles of economics were invented to meet the ends to satisfy the basic human needs like shelter, food, water etc. The utilitarian individualism propounded by Jeremy Bentham which was endorsed by John Stuart Millis one of the principle so invented which advocates the maximum happiness to maximum people for the peaceful existence of state establishment. The utility model is the basic premise on which the socio-welfare economical edifice lies. The utility model finds a mention in the preamble of American Declaration of Independence says, we hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. The preamble of Constitution of India also ensures the social, economic and political justice for the realisation of welfare principles on which the consent was given by the governed for the institution of government. The government therefore strongly depend on the economic principles and practice to lead its subjects to the Promised Land of honey and milk.

2. Linear Economy Model

The linear system of economy rely on the principles of transformation of raw material taking from the earth, creation of value added goods from the raw material, transportation of the goods to consumers, use of goods by the consumers and disposal of waste at the end. The process in linear economy has a beginning and end and also not continuous in action. For example if 'X' a company have a raw material 'R' extraction in 'A' state, transport the raw material to 'B' state for making goods 'G' by the company. The goods 'G' afterwards transported to different states including the 'A' state for use by consumers 'C'. The goods are used by the consumers and disposeat the household 'H.' The linear movement can be array as follows:-R to A to B to X to G to A to C to H. The linear model is therefore called as take-make-dispose with no conservation of mass.

3. Circular Economy Model

The circular model is a regenerative one which aims at the reduction of end product and the reuse of same. As the name suggests the model is circular and continuous. The model conserves the matter for reuse. The circular economy model finds relevance due to its high end utility. The capital cost will get reduced and is directly proportional to the efficiency of recovery or reuse. The circular economy bases its argument on different school of thoughts. (Ellen Macarthur Foundation, 2017) They are:-

3.1 Cradle to Cradle

The idea was propounded by Michael Braungart and Bill McDonough, which advocates that safe and productive processes of nature's 'biological metabolism' as a model for developing a 'technical metabolism' flow of industrial materials. The product shall be designed for reuse. The present thought is antithesis to waste, promoting the use of renewable energy.(Ibid)

3.2 Performance Economy

The theory focuses on the product-life extension, long-life goods, reconditioning activities, and waste prevention. The performance economy model supports the delivery of service rather than the products so as to limit the generation of waste. (Ibid)

3.3 Bio-mimicry

The theory suggests copying the nature in the economic activities of waste so that the present issues can be solved. The theory focuses on nature as model, nature as measure and nature as mentor. The use of pipe compost is an example of the natural bio-degradation. (Ibid)

3.4 Industrial Ecology

Immanuel Kant perspective on the human is that every life shall have a natural beginning and natural end in itself. Likewise the industrial ecology model focuses on the product design alike to living systems so that they find a sustainable space in the regenerative economy. The clay utensils are an example.(Ibid)

3.5 Natural Capitalism

The naturally occurring resources are living things are the natural capital. The concept accepts the interdependence of production and use of human made capital and natural capital. The principles underlying are radically increase the productivity of natural resources, shift to biologically copycat production models and materials to reduce waste by ensuring the output to ecosystem as nutrient or an input to a regenerative process, service and flow focussing on services rather than goods and reinvesting in the natural capital to promote the circular flow of process. The Kerala model coir geo textiles uses for the soil and water conservation programme are the examples of natural capital with no environmental hazard. (Ibid)

3.6 Blue Economy

The use of resources in the processes to the optimal level afterwards the waste is used as an input in a new line of process to reduce the loss. The principle further insists on local solutions putting emphasis on gravity as the primary source of energy. The application of principle best suits the sewerage flow and the water supply system in a city. (Ibid)

3.7 Regenerative design

The application of regenerative model apart from the agriculture which has an application in all systems developed by John.T.Lyle. The regenerative design also can be termed as Phoenix design. The present design conserves the mass so that the conserved mass can be utilised in other process. The papers carry bags or papers made from news papers and the use of recycled water is an example. (Ibid)

The circular economy model follows two approaches. Firstly those foster reuse and extend service life through repair, remanufacture, upgrades and retrofit and secondly the model that turn old goods into as-new resources by recycling the materials.(Nature, 2016) The above mentioned example in the linear model can be plotted in the present circular model as follows:- X to G to A to C to H to X. The latest trends says that five technological examples that are driving circular economy. (Peter Lacy, 2017)

3.7.1. Rubicon Global: cloud based big-data connecting waste producers which enables higher diversion rates from landfill, creative reuse of waste material, optimised truck routes and the detailed analysis of waste data. (Ibid)

3.7.2. NCC(mobile app.): Optimising the handling of waste in a cost-effective manner. (Ibid)

3.7.3. Hello Tractor: M2M (machine to machine) technology to share information on the vehicle to maximise the utilisation. It is considered as Africa's Uber for farm.(Ibid)

3.7.4. Apple Robotics: Liam, a disassembly robot which can dismantle an iphone in 11 seconds. (Ibid)

3.7.5. gCycle: Eco-friendly diaper which is 100% compostable using the cradle to cradle principle.(Ibid)

4. Amsterdam Experience

Amsterdam Municipality practice circular model system of waste management. The City adopted the regenerative model with the following strategies namely, Smart Design, Efficient Dismantling and separation of waste, High-value recycling and Marketplace and resource bank. The city further facilitates the resource and material storage centre, set the standards of regenerative resources. The reuse became the part of building regulation so that the law will put a compulsion. (Circular Amsterdam, 2017)

The principles adopted by the city can be summarised as, all materials enter into an infinite technical or biological cycle, all energy comes from renewable sources, resources are used to generate (financial or other) value, modular and flexible design of products and production chains increase adaptability of systems, new business models for production, distribution and consumption enable the shift from possession of goods to (use of) services, logistics systems shift to a more region oriented service with reverse logistics capabilities and human activities positively contribute to ecosystems, ecosystem services and the reconstruction of "natural capital." (Ibid)

5. Decentralised Urban Economy Model

The urban economy in India follows linear economy regime. The existing school of practice other than designed cities generate waste in large quantity and find difficult to dispose of the waste as per the standards. By the advent of Environmental Protection Act of 1986, a paradigm shift happened in the protection and conservation of environment where the pollution and waste are the major decisive factors. The Rules framed under the Act of 1986 is directing the shift from linear model to circular model. The Rules are established for the management of hazardous waste, manufacture, storage and import of hazardous waste, bio-medical waste, municipal solid waste, batteries, construction and demolition waste, e-waste and plastic waste. The Rules are in principle focus on the segregation, recovery, re use and recycle of waste which is the statutory intervention of state for the shaping of circular economy at the national level. Though the Rules are framed by the Central Government the implementation is sought to achieve through a decentralised process that is local self governments. Therefore the local governments are the entities which have the lead

role in the circular practice of economy. The Rules further model the role of governments as a facilitator to provide material recovery facility, STP and other waste management facilities alike to the Amsterdam model. The Central Government Rules are therefore the guiding principle which plays a crucial role in the adoption and practice of circular economy model in the country.

6. Regenerative Kerala Model

The adoption of circular economy in the Kerala model is no doubt catalysed by the central Rules operating in the field. The distinctiveness of the model is that the participatory mechanism through the constituent forums called ward sabhas eases the practice of circular economy. The participatory mechanism inculcate the values system and the cost-benefits deriving from the practice of circular economy system, which is a nostrum to the present burning issue faced by the state called 'waste.' The Kerala model mooted for a cultural shift to the circular model rather than a statutory compliance through the implementation of Rules. The priorities of the Government are well evident by the formulation of 'Nava Kerala Mission.' The mission set out the objectives, time frame and the strategies to reach out the people for the success of mission. The objective is to create regenerative economic system which in turn address the issues related to health, education, agriculture and housing. The agriculture part came up with a sub set called Haritha Kerala Mission which is the standard of practice of circular economy model in the waste management.

6.1 Haritha Kerala Mission

The mission address the social issues connected with agriculture, water conservation and waste management. The agriculture mode focuses on the organic farming and the safe to eat food through the participatory mechanism. The State as well as local government will intervene in the aspects of capital, technical hand holding and marketing fields. The water conservation programme is focusing on the rejuvenation of existing water bodies, mapping of the existing water bodies and there integration and ground water recharging. The most important limb is the waste management. The Kerala model intervention is said to be classical in the world due to its modelling and the mode of implementation. The circular model practice is done through the following way. They are,

6.2 Institutional Interface

The state level intervention is through the institutionalisation of the programme. The institutional part acts as the provider of resource in the form of financial, technical and other handholding strategies. The first level intervention is by the budgetary provision of state for the 2017-18 financial years. The eloquent budget speech declares the first component of the Haritha Kerala Mission as sanitation. The speech further focuses on at segregation and disposal of waste at source. The second level is the incorporation of the mission components into the 13th decentralised plan guidelines. The plan guidelines mandate for a twenty percent of the total plan for the solid waste management. The local government shall adopt green protocol, setup material recovery facility, swap shops, plastic shredding and bailing units. The government further by an order mandate the use of plastic in the road tarring as per the standards of IRC: SP: 98-2013. The state level plans

also accredit the scrap dealers as the key players in the process of reduce, reuse and recycle. (Government of Kerala, 2017)

The local level intervention is ensured through the ward level survey in the name 'freedom from waste campaign' collecting the baseline data on the present status of waste management. The people's participation through stakeholders and the subsequent documentation of the survey act as the primary data which can be utilised for formulating the solid waste management project at local level. The participatory implementation of projects is not novel to the Kerala due to the people's plan campaign existing in Kerala.

7. Conclusion

The regenerative economy model is an act of self defence by the people for the peaceful co-existence with nature. The circular economy model as practising in Kerala is at par with the International standards of practice in the light of contemporary issues relating to the waste management. The classical Kerala model components need more documentation and data for analysis of the same. The circular economy tools like reduce reuse and recycle shall introduce in the building regulation and other regulatory laws operating in the field so that the construction and demolition waste and other types of waste can be effectively managed. The unique campaign set forth by the Government through Haritha Kerala Mission and other missions are conducive in the inculcation of values system for the effective practice of circular economy.

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**Legal Pluralism and Indian Democracy:
Tribal Conflict Resolution Systems in Northeast India**

Edited by

Melvil Pereira, Bitopi Dutta, and Binita Kakati

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Being a nation with complexities and diversified socio-economic and cultural milieu that well knit in harmony, India stands apart from the rest of nations. This book, compendium of articles, is a blend of theory and practice on legal pluralism in multicultural contexts. The Book is structured into two parts. Part one covering seven articles centered on conflict resolution systems: theories, thoughts and concepts. Part two includes nine articles on Fights in the field: case studies of resolution systems from the communities of Northern India. Thus the Book provides both theoretical construct and the field realities.

This book is a multifaceted look at Northeast India and the customs and traditions that underpin its legal framework in a pluralistic scenario. It charts the transition of traditions from colonial rule to present day, through constitutionalism and the consolidation of autonomous identities, as well as outlines contemporary debates in an increasingly modernizing region. The theoretical context of legal pluralism and its implications explored in a critical manner. By comparing the personal legal systems with that of the mainland, the Book discusses customary law's continuing popularity - both pragmatic and ideological. This Book also brings together case studies from eight states across the country and focuses on the way individual systems and procedures manifest among various tribes and communities in the voices of tribal and non-tribal scholars.

This Book will be of great interest to the academia of law, social science, anthropology, political science, public administration, local governance, etc. It will also be of interest to the administrators, lawyers, judicial officers, and legal scholars.

The Information Game In Democracy

Written by:

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Dipankar Sinha's book entitled 'Information Game in Democracy' is a wonderful piece of non-fiction, which examines democracy and governance from the unique and often unconventional viewpoint of information game. Sinha tries to bring 'information' to the forefront to understand its elemental contribution in differentiating democracy in theory from democracy in practice. He presents democracy as an art of living with surprises, contradictions, paradoxes and dilemmas; rather than a science with assurance and unwavering predictability. The author is on the view that democracy isn't the best system ever, but simply the best among the given governance options. He quotes from Josh Lerner that: 'Everyone loves democracy, except most of the time' to show the boring, bitterly painful and utterly pointless side of democracy'. The author is on the view that only alternative to democracy is better democracy.

The book is schemed into six parts in which the first part gives conceptual frame on information game in democracy. The part two provides the importance of effective communication at the grassroots level. The third part deals with the dilemma of transforming the information society into an informed society. The fourth and fifth parts critically analyses the dynamics of information capitalism and politics in the cyberspace. The part six narrates how democratization of the existing information network is necessary to bridge the uneven gap between the rulers and the masses. A major lesson that one can derive from this book is that the information game in democracy has to be channeled appropriately to raise the voice of the people. This book provides valuable insights to the scholars and researchers of the multi-disciplines such as public administration, political science, management, communication, etc.