CHAPTER-II

LITERATURE REVIEW
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2.1 Introduction:-

The literature available on rural development or rural infrastructure relating to various aspects of Panchayati Raj institutions (PRIs) is quite extensive. After Independence, Panchayati Raj Institutions have been playing a significant role to facilitate people’s participation and involvement in the attainment of development. Panchayati Raj as a historical and revolutionary step in the area of participatory democracy for development administration has always attracted the attention of scholars, academicians, political leaders, bureaucrats and researchers both in India and abroad. Their contribution has come to light in the form of books, seminars, committee reports, conference reports, research papers and articles.

The literature available is classified into two broad categories as (i) theoretical studies, and (ii) applied studies. Further for conceptualizing and understanding the issues related to governance, participation and expenditure incurred over geographical areas, the literature survey has been categories into the following sub sections. The most important of these categories of literature relevant to this thesis are summarized below.

2.2 Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs):-

Mehta (1957)\(^1\) emphasized people’s participation in planning. In the report of a study team on community development project and National Extension services, after visiting community development projects at different levels, he observed that real people’s participation in planning and implementing programmes pointed to the gradual development of the faith of the people in their own potential and cooperative action in solving their local problems.

Rajni Kothari (1960)\(^2\) states that a structure of democratic participation necessarily involves is changing structure of the state. This involves a change in power relationships between the Centre, the States and lower down. Without such

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change, Indian democracy is bound to run into a deadlock and sooner or later flounder. Decentralization is the only way of ensuring radical change through the democratic process and not in violation of it. Instead of conceiving Panchayati Raj as an agent of development, we have to conceive development as an agent of Panchayati Raj Institutions i.e., people’s power. The earlier concept grew out of the failure of the Community Development Programme to involve people in the development process and hence, following the Balwant Rai Mehta committee report, thought of Panchayati Raj Institutions as better instruments for the same. People were to be made efficient instruments of development of the people.

Narayanan (1964) organized a National seminar at Udaipur in 1964. He urged Panchayati Raj Institutions should act as units of self-government at the village, the block and the district level. These institutions cannot be described as limbs of the state. In acting as units of self-government, they will undertake responsibility, which they can discharge within the framework of their resources and requirements. It will mean that what the panchayat cannot undertake will be accomplished by the Panchayat samiti and what the Panchayat samiti cannot do by itself will be undertaken by the Zilla Parishads. Thus, only the residual functions will be transferred to the next target units.

A study carried out by Mathur (1972) on bureaucratic response to development in Rajasthan found that Panchayati Raj and community development were bold experiments in bringing democracy and development to the doorsteps of the rural people. Cooperative efforts between Government officials, elected representatives and rural population were called for improving the conditions of life and for providing greater opportunities for to change and progress was not up to expectations.

In the opinion of Ayyangar and Ranga (1972), the state shall establish self-governing Panchayats for every village or a group of villages with adequate powers and funds to give training to rural people in democracy and to pave the path for the effective decentralization of political and economic power. As expressed by Mahatma

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Gandhi, they added that democracy must be broad-based and decentralized. Village Panchayats are needed to train the people in Government.

Narain (1979)\(^6\) says that participatory thrust has always been there in all the efforts for rural development since 1951. The study analyzed the kinds of participation sought and emphasized under the phases of community development and Panchayati Raj. It appears that, 1970 onwards, the emphasis has seen on participation at local level tends to be confined to receiving benefits. He adds that the case of West Bengal needs attention where the Panchayati Raj institutions have been assigned the functions of implementing different schemes of land reforms. They appear to be instrumental in transforming the agrarian structure for attaining the goals of socialism in addition to their role in civic and developmental activities.

Harichandran (1983)\(^7\) studied Panchayati Raj with the main objective of evaluating the role of these bodies in rural development with particular reference to Tamil Nadu. The study revealed that Panchayati Raj bodies enjoyed delegated powers and functions. Resources were inadequate to meet the responsibilities. Panchayati Raj bodies could be instruments of rural developments only they are provided with adequate resources.

An empirical study was conducted by Bose (1986)\(^8\) of the movement for people’s planning process in Midnapur District of West Bengal. It revealed that the starting point of decentralization from the bottom should be the village and the framing of rural development plans should start with listing by villagers themselves.

Shiviah and Srinivasan (1987)\(^9\) conducted a study of factors affecting the development of the Panchayati Raj with the objective of identifying and analyzing factors impinging on the development of the Panchayati Raj system in three states namely, Gujarat, Rajasthan and Karnataka. The study revealed that the interest of political leaders had a very significant bearing on the pattern of Panchayati Raj.

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\(^6\) Narain Iqbal, (1979), "Democracy and Development in Rural India: People’s Participation in Development Process", HCM State Institute of Public Administration, Jaipur, pp. 11


Padmanabhan (1987)\textsuperscript{10} stated that there would not be adequate resources for human development if Government funds alone were to be depended upon. It is imperative to use local resources and community resources will have to be mobilized. Also the interdependence between education, health, sanitation and other social development sectors has to be taken care of because all of them jointly promote rural development. The mobilization of local resources also promises the simultaneous attainment of other objectives, which are special to rural development, like greater decentralization in planning, increasing popular participation and ensuring a greater degree of self-reliance on the part of local communities. Macro planning embodied in the Ninth Plan alone cannot cope with the highly particularized and localized problems of identifying development potential in the rural communities.

The Rajiv Gandhi Foundation (1988) conducted a field survey of Panchayati Raj institutions in Karnataka, Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh. It indicates that in Uttar Pradesh there is large-scale overlapping of functions/areas of responsibilities among the three levels of the Panchayati Raj institutions on the one hand and between the Panchayati Raj institutions and the state agencies on the other hand. There are no principles/criteria adopted for the assignment of responsibilities to the different levels of Panchayati Raj institutions. A clear demarcation of the schemes would reduce the overlapping among the Panchayati Raj institutions and between the Panchayati Raj Institutions and the State agencies.

An empirical study done by the Department of Economics and Public Administration, University of Rajasthan (1994) attempted to examine the working of Panchayati Raj in Jaipur, Rajasthan. The study revealed that

(i) Establishment of Panchayati Raj Institutions had given a tremendous fillip to the emergence of local leadership and a dynamic burst of enthusiasm and energy on the part of rural people.

(ii) Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes had managed to secure adequate representation but many of these leaders were backbenchers even at the Panchayat level.

(iii) The Panchayati Raj leaders at all three levels had seldom taken interest of initiative for preparation of general, long-range plans such as

scheme of planning from below, they were now keen on attaining the maximum possible schemes, projects, goods and services for their areas together with grants, grants-in-aid, subsidies etc.

(iv) As a result of the introduction of Panchayati Raj institutions, the political consciousness of the rural mass and leaders for sharing political and economic benefits had increased.

(v) The Panchayati Raj Institutions had been successful in attaining a pace and drive which no other scheme or project of rural development had been able to do so far in the history of Rajasthan.

The basic weakness of the Panchayati Raj institutions in Rajasthan related to paucity of resources and lack of institutional dynamism.

The Institute of Social Sciences (1995)\textsuperscript{11} studied the Panchayat Acts of 11 states i.e. Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan, West Bengal, and Madhya Pradesh etc. and pointed out that the overall scenario of Panchayati Raj in the country is dismal. Besides, the functions assigned to the Panchayati Raj Institutions do not cover all the aspects of rural life and the panchayats do not have their personnel in key positions all through. The state Government frequently makes interventions in their day-to-day functioning, thereby reducing them to non-entities. As a result, they cannot function effectively. It further reports that the major drawback of the system is that very little power has been entrusted to the Panchayati Raj institutions. The developmental works are largely handled by the Government and also discontinued at times at its will.

Mathew (1995)\textsuperscript{12} studied the women representatives in Panchayati Raj institutions in Karnataka. The study revealed that the majority of the women elected members had no experience of active politics. Usually, a male member of the family had been instrumental in persuading the women to contest and, in many cases, women continued to devote all their families were involved in discharging the political responsibilities on their behalf. However, it has been reported that, after two years, when the same Zilla Parishads were studied, changes were evident.

\textsuperscript{11} Institute of Social Science, \textit{Panchayati Raj Update}, (sept-1995)
\textsuperscript{12} Mathew, George (1995), \textit{“Panchayati Raj From Legislation To Movement”}, Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi.
Mukherjee (1995)\textsuperscript{13} conducted a survey of the delivery of basic minimum services through people’s participation. Drawing attention to the poor state of basic services in the country, Mukherjee says that the interlinkages among these services are of paramount importance. The grand opportunity of involving the people in their own development is missed because of the blind faith in the “top-down” expert planning. Learning by outsiders from local community is one of the cornerstones of people’s participation. Underlining the crucial role of Panchayati Raj institutions in ensuring sustainable development, she reiterates that India’s future at micro level lies in people’s participation and strengthening of the decentralized planning process.

An analytical study conducted by the \textit{National Institute of Rural Development} (1995)\textsuperscript{14} Hyderabad, presents the patterns of devolution of powers and functions to the Panchayati Raj institutions in five states of India and suggests a general framework at the national level, which can be taken as a guide-line by the other states of India to devolve powers and functions to their Panchayati Raj institutions.

\textit{The Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) unit, GRI (1995)}\textsuperscript{15} \textit{Gandhigram}, has presented the results and lessons of several PRA exercises conducted in villages, providing the concepts, principles, approaches, menu, tools, techniques and processes of application and documentation, along with facilitating forces and challenges in the use of PRA methods.

\textit{Mani and Arumukham (1996)}\textsuperscript{16} deal with that Geographical Information System (GIS) is a tool to show the area/location specific information through layers (i.e. maps). These layers give information about of various point features such as location of market; bore well, agricultural extension centres and shops etc. Through GIS it can be identify resources at Panchayat level, assets, plan for its future use, create a 3D surface, decided on area/location, problems etc. And finally they suggest steps in establishing a GIS for a Panchayat.

\textsuperscript{13} Mukherji, Nirmal (1995), "People’s Representatives and Bureaucracy the Interface in Panchayati Raj", Institute of Social Science, New Delhi.


The Rajiv Gandhi Chair, GRI, Gandhigram (1996)\(^{17}\) published a report of a training programme conducted for village Panchayat Presidents. It provides a model for a training programme of general orientation on the New Panchayati Raj System and its various aspects. It mainly focuses on motivating and awareness generation.

The Journal of Rural Development (1997)\(^{18}\) highlights the principles of district planning and their operationalisation. It urges that, in decentralized planning, people should have a say in identifying their needs and local resources and also in formulating project priorities. It also says that, while the choice of schemes will be made by individual local bodies, the district planning committee will coordinate them, taking consistency and linkages into account.

The Rajiv Gandhi Foundation (RGF) (1997)\(^{19}\) states that revitalization of Panchayati Raj is an invaluable resource for research on people’s perception of the State Panchayat Acts, administrative fiats of State Governments and the response of the bureaucracy and the existing power elite. It also points to what needs to be done to realize the concept of self-governance at the district level and below to generate a Panchayat-friendly atmosphere.

Barik, B.C. (2007)\(^{20}\) focussed that the 73\(^{rd}\) Amendment Act provided space for the first time to excluded categories (SCs, STs & Women) in the society to participate in the decentralised democratic institutions, which works at the grassroots level for the development of these people. In this volume it is presented the micro-macro level ground realities on a broad perspective of interdisciplinary approach. It also offers a comprehensive account of development dynamics, participatory governance and empowerment of excluded categories.

Besley, Rao and Pande (2005)\(^{21}\) studies an institution aimed at encouraging political participation among the poor and improving the quality of governance in an Indian context- Gram Sabha meetings. These are village meetings called by the

\(^{17}\) Rajiv Gandhi Chair, GRI. (1996), “Report of the Training Programme Conducted for Gram Panchayat Presidents”, Gandhigram, GRI.


elected local government (Gram Panchayat) to discuss resource allocation decisions in the village. Furthermore, they added, there are two main ways in which such meetings may improve the working of government. First, relative to elected representatives, these meetings may better reflect citizen’s preferences on issues such as how to target resources to the neediest groups. Second, by providing a forum for monitoring the actions of elected representatives they may reduce agency problems in politics, and the extent of corruption. Their findings contribute to a broader debate about the role of decentralized governance in improving the quality of government in the developing world.

_Dhaka and Narwal (2005)_ suggested that rural development programmes often missed their mark because of institutional and administrative weakness at the grassroots level. The people’s participation in the programmes and policies meant for them has been lacking. Moving from governance to good governance essentially implies a redefinition of public policy and citizen centric governance.

Participation, however, does not mean getting mute approval of projects framed by higher authorities. It meant promoting action by local communities to deal with their own problems, according to their own priorities. Local community participation in development has to be genuinely local and directly related to the people. The political and societal climate must be such that it allows individual and group initiatives to trigger off change and prompts a demonstrative debate for action. In a large country like ours, where majority of the populations is still rural, it cannot be denied that a strong, more competent and participatory rural government is one of the most basic pre-conditions for development.

It is time that the Panchayati Raj Institutions are geared up to play a proactive role in ensuring development in rural areas. Certain institutional and structural safeguards have been made in the 73rd Amendment Act. One of these is the provision of the Gram Sabha. Gram Sabha is the backbone of the Panchayati Raj system. It activates the rural governance system and enable democratic traditions and values to penetrate deep down the village, thereby, strengthening the institutional mechanism of participatory development.

Kumar (2005)\textsuperscript{23} discusses some of structural and procedural constraints Gram Panchayats (GPs) grapple with. Political commitment in support of the mechanism of participatory democracy abounds but they lack the necessary vision and roadmap for making it successful. The steps undertaken to strengthen GPs are mostly worked out in excitement and haste. Decisions regarding delegation of the powers of planning, execution and monitoring to Panchayati Raj institutions are not clearly thought out. On the other hand, the GP is constitutionally acknowledged as the third tier of the government structure. It, however, does not exercise the autonomy and influence it ideally should. The decisions at the GP should also be left to a group of local politicians. It is the bureaucracy which calls the shots. To become these constraints weak, he suggested that systems and procedures should be worked out in such a manner that the head of GP is the supreme authority and all relevant/local government employees should be available to carry out instructions/decisions of the GP. Secondly, a significant minimum level of resources for the gram panchayat should be disengaged from resources for block and Zila Panchayats and these should be allocated directly to GP as in Kerala. Thirdly, the secretariat of GP needs to be made fully functional and not just on paper. Finnaly, the capacity-building of sarpanch is critically important.

Barik (2007)\textsuperscript{24} focussed that the 73\textsuperscript{rd} Amendment Act provided space for the first time to excluded categories (SCs, STs & Women) in the society to participate in the decentralised democratic institutions, which works at the grassroots level for the development of these people. In this volume it is presented the micro-macro level ground realities on a broad perspective of interdisciplinary approach. It also offers a comprehensive account of development dynamics, participatory governance and empowerment of excluded categories.

Hooja and Hooja (2007)\textsuperscript{25} discussed that for almost fifty years since 1959, India has been striving to make decentralised democracy more meaningful and effective. Efforts at vitalising development administration and at more relevant and


Efficacious district and decentralised planning have been underway since independence.

Though fifteen essays spread over five sections—overview of Panchayati Raj in India; (a) some issues pertaining to Panchayati Raj (b) Panchayati Raj: Rajasthan Experience (c) District and decentralised planning and (d) Development administration at district and sub-state levels—authors have traced the history of democratic decentralisation; as well as (e) district planning and development administration in India both before and after 73rd constitutional amendment act. The authors have highlighted various aspects and issues, touched upon successes and failures and commented upon the evolution of concepts and described what has been happening in actual practice along with offering suggestions for the future.

Oommen’s (2007) volume contains eight papers that critically evaluate the first decade of experience of decentralisation in Kerala. The methodology and outcome of decentralised planning Kerala has launched in mid-1990s attracted the attention of scholars. This study focuses on two vital aspects of decentralisation viz. the theory and practice of decentralisation and gender issues of decentralisation in Kerala.

This comprehensive volume of Singh and Sharma (2007) looks at local governments in rural India as an opportunity to broaden the democratic structure and space for popular participation in local governance. It reviews the select state models (West Bengal, Karnataka) of decentralisation in the country and assesses the form of democratic development possible through the institutions of local governments. The work represents an emerging kind of literature on decentralisation that is not judgemental on the various approaches to decentralisation. It neither takes a pessimistic view of the world of decentralisation nor romanticises it. The essays tackle with the institutions design of decentralisation and show this could influence the social structure and make decentralisation a pragmatic philosophy of development rather than a mere public speaking.

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The study adds to our understanding of the process and politics of building institutions, capabilities and safeguards under the ongoing decentralisation programme. It also contributes to the emerging theoretical and empirical methods, required to understand this change. In addition, it calls for bringing together research, theory, and practices to support the process envisaged in the 73rd Constitutional Amendment.

Sinha (2007)\textsuperscript{28} tries to solve some of the articles of Constitutions related to Panchayats and throws light on issue which the policy-makers have so far by passed or over looked. Panchayats should not be looked at from above; on the contrary the top governance should be looked at from the Panchayat levels. This may solve most of the problems facing the top-heavy democracy today. It may open new doors for the success of Panchayats and more realistic approach to village Panchayats as vibrant unit of development for the poor.

Roy (2008)\textsuperscript{29} has made an attempt to discuss the progress, prospects and problems of the Panchayats and rural development in West Bengal. He says that Panchayats has changed the face of the state of west Bengal. There has been all round development of rural population. The villages have got an institution of their own which transformed their standard of living to a higher level. The three tier Panchayati Raj Institutions are directed to alleviate the poverty and rural development in West Bengal.

Reddy (2009)\textsuperscript{30} argued that Democratic decentralization is considered vital for over all development. Decentralization leads to improve governance and better delivery, hence improving livelihoods and alleviating poverty. The relationship between decentralization and governance are manifold. Decentralization leads to transparency in policies, responsiveness of the policy makers, accountability of implementers, openness and enhances flow of information, and hence reduces corruption. The state of Andhra Pradesh stood second position while introducing the

Panchayati Raj System in India in order to establish democratic institutions at the grass root level. In the recent past, however, Andhra Pradesh had adopted different institutional arrangements in the name of participatory institutions as decentralized delivery systems. These emerging institutions effectively by-passed the democratic institutions and are also known as parallel institutions or community based organizations (CBOs) or user committees. Financially these institutions are much stronger than the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs). He addressed the important issues such as functioning of parallel institutions and achieving their objectives, role of these institutions in the delivery of pro-poor policies and linkages between the participatory and the democratic institutions.

2.3 Participatory Governance:-

_Bandyopadhyaya (1997)\(^{31}\)_ discussed that participatory development process pre-suppose autonomy in decision-making at the local level. This brings the issues of decentralized governance in to focus. Past experiences have amply shown that development programmes designed at the top often fail to take cognizance of the ground realities. When it is a question of sustainable and optimum use of local resource comes, a top-down approach become totally irrelevant. The existence of autonomous local government armed with adequate administrative and financial powers is, accordingly, imperative for reversing the top-down process and for ensuring local autonomy. The intention of the 73\(^{rd}\) Constitutional Amendment is also to create such institutions of self government at the local level through the three-tier Panchayat system.

In participatory development process, decentralization of decision-making does not end at the portals of Panchayats. Unless the Community based Organizations (CBOs) are empowered to take such decision as can be taken at their level, participation would be lose its meaning. The Panchayat representatives should have the appropriate attitude to promote participatory development. They have to internalize the vision of a new form of state society relation in which “the state…. Channels resource to individual citizens and households via civil allocations”. Panchayat also have to appreciate the implications of autonomy. Autonomy demands

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self-reliance. Panchayats have to be self-reliant and they have to show that new and fruitful ideas need not necessarily come from the top alone. The same may be generated at the local level also. All these will give a new role to the Panchayats than what they have hitherto been playing as agents of state government. Needless to say, massive training programme will have to be organized to sensitize and to prepare Panchayat leader to assume such role.

Schneider (1999)\(^{32}\) dealt with that conventional poverty reduction strategies have produced disappointing results, especially in situations of high initial inequality which tend to reflect political obstacles to broad-based development. Participatory governance draws on insights from political and institutional economics and from experiments promoted by social activists. It represents a paradigm shift based on the trilogy of empowerment, accountability and capacity building which constitute the interdependent building blocks of participatory governance. Their role is threefold: i) to ensure that policy makers and their administration are more committed than they tend to be in non-participatory governance settings; ii) to base policies on better information; and iii) to make the implementation of policies more effective and efficient.

Pieterse (2000)\(^{33}\) provide a comprehensive overview of the different dimensions of urban governance with a view to catalyzing action to improve the quality of urban management. The internal dimension refers to the institutional system, structures and procedures. The external dimension refers to relations with civil society organizations, the private sector and the public sphere in general. Participatory governance is fundamentally dependent on at least two preconditions. Firstly, a minimum level of performance/proficiency to carry out local body tasks. Secondly, financial sound accounting and management practices to enable citizens and other stakeholders to entrust the local authority. Innovations can only build on these features. Furthermore, he stated that participatory governance is about effective collaborative planning, decision-making processes and implementation processes to co-ordinate distinctive efforts of the local government, civil society organizations and


the private sector towards the progressive attainment of sustainable development and local democracy. This approach leads us to identify seven pillars of participatory governance: democracy, accountability, transparency, responsiveness, social equity, effectiveness and efficiency in local government affairs and security. Participatory governance is optimized if all its seven pillars are strong and sustained.

Sinha (2000)\textsuperscript{34} states the important role of local bodies. He states that’s the top-down approach ignores the question of mobilizing the vast masses for taking their destiny into their own hands. The remedy lies in transferring all such rural activities to the local people and their panchayats, which can perform these tasks in a far more efficient and economical manner. Decentralization is the key to rural rejuvenation and resurrection which will unleash popular energy in an unprecedented manner, proved it is genuine and thoroughgoing. Keeping in mind the year 1999-2000 has been declared as the year of the Gram Sabha. He adds that any kind of development activity is taken up only after full-length deliberations in these bodies. The degree of transparency and vigilance has definitely gone up with the involvement of these bodies in the development process.

UNDP Report (2000)\textsuperscript{35} dealt with that governance begins in communities, villages and towns. Local governance provides the basis for the concept and structure of governance. Two aspects of governance are particularly relevant: the technical and the representational. The technical aspect refers to the how and what of development processes and procedures of resource mobilization, plan formulation, technical application and resources allocation. The representational aspect refers to the way decisions are taken and who takes them and thus includes issues of representation and participation, accountability and empowerment. With this as context, the implementation of strategies requires a decentralized, local participatory process to identify and address the priority objectives of poverty elimination, employment generation and gender equity.

Simeon and Murray (2001)\textsuperscript{36} begin with the institutional design of South Africa’s model of multi-sphere cooperative government as set in the Constitution in

1993 and 1996. They added that benefits of federal or multilevel institutions depend crucially on the ability of the component parts to carry out their assigned roles and responsibilities. Accordingly, it focuses on several dimensions of “capacity”, focusing especially on the new provincial governments. Governing capacities are multidimensional such as political, legislative, administrative, fiscal as well as intergovernmental. Then made a preliminary assessment of how the model is working and outlined some of the factors that will shape its future development. But uncertainty about each of these factors poses many questions as (1) does multi-sphere government serve democracy, (2) does multi-sphere governance promote effective policy making and delivery (3) does multi-sphere government improve the capacity to deal with ethnic and cultural conflict.

Final Report by Darmstadt University of Technology & et all (2002) addressed key issues of the current debate on governance, and one of the core questions had been: what does the shift from “government to governance” imply in respect to participation? If one is trying to design an arrangement for participatory governance, one has to provide convincing answers to two questions: (1) who should participate and, (2) how should they participate? This report also tried to identify opportunity for participatory governance which supports a shift towards sustainable and innovative policy developments- not at least in order to identify opportunities for EU intervention to promote these developments by setting up specific governance arrangements institutionally through EU legislation. Therefore, report identified different governance mixtures in Germany, Greece and UK, which reflected organizationally determined as well as socially and culturally embedded particular arrangements, from where policy change has to start. Furthermore, it took account of different territorial levels of government/governance within which these arrangements were moulded by the political process.

37 Final Report (2002), Presented by Darmstadt University of Technology, European University Institute, Florence, University of Bristol, University of Oxford, Panteion University of Athens & Aristotle University of Thessaloniki on “Achieving Sustainable and Innovative Policies through Participatory Governance in Multi-level Context” A Research Project Funded by the European Community under the 5th Framework Programme (contact n0 HPSE-CT1999-00028),
Lucas (2002)\textsuperscript{38} emphasizes the improvement of the capacities of government, which usually refers to the formal institutional structure and its authority in decision-making. Its perspective stresses the administrative and managerial aspects of governance, thus, indicators of good governance essentially means accountability, transparency and efficiency. He added that participatory governance has been said to give positive “democracy building outcomes”. All communities are realizing that participation is not just a process but also a basic right. However, there is an urgent need to assess the quality, rationale and extent of current participation practices, particularly at local governments. Different mechanisms for participatory governance are being practiced in the regions varying at local and country levels. The most prominent of these mechanisms are: (1) decentralization and devolution (2) membership in local councils (3) electoral participation (4) consultations/dialogues at macro and micro levels (5) people’s mobilizations (6) training and awareness programmes (7) strategic networking.

Fung and Wright (2003)\textsuperscript{39} made clear that the goal of “empowered participatory governance” is the creation of an institutional model that would “guarantee fairness and efficiency within a deliberative framework” and that would achieve efficiency and equity, as well as broad based popular participation. More to the point, popular participation in decision-making generate the positive effects that democratic theorists lead us to expect. The study made significant questions: (a) the place of “self-interest” in deliberative democracy, and (b) how to achieve meaningful equality of participation in the absence of “background conditions” of social and economic equality. The study also address the question of inequality in the form of a discussion about “countervailing power”, offering a number of helpful typologies of governance structure and of adversarial versus collaborative decision-making process, and arguing that, “in general, collaborative governance without an appropriate form of countervailing power is likely to fail”.


Palanithurai (2003)\textsuperscript{40} deals with that rural transformation undergoes a change after the introduction of new governance at grassroots level through the 73\textsuperscript{rd} amendment act to the constitution of India. Newly created institutions for governance have teething problems and yet they picked up momentum in their dynamics. New concretisation takes place in the minds of the people about their role and responsibility and excited socio-economic activities have been initiated by the institutions and a new kind of relationship has been established between the state government and the grassroots institutions as established between the central government and state government. Problems, which had not been so far noticed, have come to the surface while deepening democracy in the society.

A new participatory culture comes to governance at the grassroots and thereby it indicates that it would more towards the other realm of governance. Variety of institutions both evolved and imposed over a period of time, have come to synergise their activities for effective delivery of services. Thus, it seems the concept ‘governance’ provides a new meaning and explanation as activities are centring on people by relegating the concept ‘government to the background’. It does not mean that the process is smooth and positive. Decentralization process has its own obstacle as it breaks many hurdles. Strategies have such obstacles and barriers and it moves towards the people to empower them. The whole process of transformation has been captured in this book from the experience of the state. Key issues have been highlighted for further understanding of the dynamics of village voice. This volume provides state wise outlook of the devolution of powers. It aims at providing analysis of the performance of the institutions in terms of the power assigned to them.

Aragones and Sanchez-Pages (2004)\textsuperscript{41} discussed that participatory democracy is a process of collective decision making that combines elements from both direct and representative democracy. Citizens have the ultimate power to decide on policy and politicians assume the role of policy implementation. Since politicians are deprived of the right to alter citizen’s proposals, the electorate can easily monitor their performance, and that reduces their discretion over the final outcome. In this system,


the extent to which citizens can affect policy and determine their social priorities is directly aligned with the degree to which they chose to involve themselves in the process. The author tried to understand how the participatory democracy operates and to study its influence over the behavior of citizens as well as politicians and over the final policy outcomes. To this end, the authors explore a formal model of participatory democracy inspired in the experience of participatory budgeting implemented in the Brazilian city of Porto Alegre.

Gaventa (2004)\textsuperscript{42} review the emergence of new forms of participatory governance in the other countries. He pointed to some innovative strategies and legal frameworks for strengthening citizen engagement. He suggested some lessons that can perhaps be applied to the growing field of deliberative and participatory governance in the United States, as well as other countries. In both South and North, there is growing consensus that the way forward is to focus on both a more active and engaged citizenry and a more responsive and effective state that can deliver needed public services. Within this debate, citizens move from being simply “users or choosers” of public services policies made by others to “maker and shapers” of policies themselves. In this process, participation means more than consultation; it involves shared responsibilities for decision making in establishing policies and allocating resources.

Through a participatory governance model, Lovan and et al (2004)\textsuperscript{43} have explored the underlying dynamics of a broadly recognized shift from government to governance. They have demonstrated that public decision-making has how become an interactive process involving multiple actors from the government, business associational sectors. Each brings information and resources to networks of interest which under ideal circumstances can secure shared definitions and interdependent responses to problem conditions. Interactive public decision –making can be initiated by any of three sectors, but subsequently require action oriented outcomes constructed around relationships of cooperation, coordination or collaboration. It is vital that those entering any arena of negotiated policy making understand that real difficulty can lies


ahead linked to professional resistance, unequal relationships of power, controlled participation and suffocation by comfortable association. Blockages connected with deliberative processes may require the introduction of conflict resolution strategies to get everyone to ‘yes’. In the end, however, the quality of this public decision-making in civil society will be dependent on degree to which stakeholders accept their involvement as a shared responsibility. Herein it lies the deepest truth of participatory governance.

*Maclean (2004)*\(^{44}\) discussed that new awareness of the local stems in part from a noticeable surge in political energy at the grassroots- a feature of recent awakening and/ or revitalizing of civil societies throughout the world- and the expectations that higher level of civil engagement place demands on the state for greater accountability. The turn to the local is observed also in the recent trend in development policy agencies to promote participatory development and local “ownership” of development initiatives. It is assumed that the active involvement of those agencies most affected by development policies enhances the latter’s legitimacy, an important objective in post-colonial countries whose institutions were modeled on those of colonial powers rather than on indigenous interests or traditions.

*Reddel and Woolcock (2004)*\(^{45}\) explored what appears to be a major shift in the policies and practices of national and international governments. The increased attention to citizen engagement strategies as a basis for developing more participatory forms of governance. The study examines recent citizen engagement initiatives of the Queensland state government which have grappled with these complex political, policy and service concerns. The potential innovation and effectiveness of citizen engagement techniques and approaches are examined. The limitations of technical methodologies based on a traditional consultative framework are highlighted. The study analyses the relationship between these citizen engagement practices and more strategic democratic reforms based on notions of participatory governance.


Abraham (2005)\textsuperscript{46} stated that according to “theory of local governance”, local governments must have a defined area of reasonable size and population. They have requisite authority and resources, be open to wide participation. They should be capable of making decisions and holding themselves accountable to their population. The framework for these requirements issued largely from central governments. But even where the national political context is supportive, local governments still face serious problems with scarcity of money, difficult communications, poverty and primordial cleavages based on ethnicity, language, or religion. In this situation, the success stories are those countries that have been able to navigate the frontiers of these problems and sometimes even take advantage of them. Through democratic decentralization, local governance cannot be achieved automatically. Furthermore, the author show how “both traditional leader and community can grow in power”; the challenge “is not overpowering indigenous institutions, but learning how to build on and with them”.

Harrison (2005)\textsuperscript{47} discussed about the framework of social theory in the global North, mainly urban experiences of North America and Western Europe. Processes of economic globalization, technological transformation, and increasing social diversity within the cities of the North have been potent in shaping new thinking about spatial governance. In the field of urban planning the divide is acute but there should be a relationship between planning theory and contexts. The North-South Dialogue Project might provoke new ways of seeing that will be illuminating to contexts in both the North and South. In this context the author discuss three specific points of intellectual engagement which may be of significance in cutting across North-South divides: postcolonial literature and theory; the interactions between European Institutionalism and a new wave of African Urbanism; the relationship between the Philosophy of the every and the Sustainable Livelihoods perspective in the South. This idea will be significant for urban planning and multi-disciplinary contacts.


\textsuperscript{47} Harrison, Philip (2005), “New ways of seeing: bridging North-South divides in thinking about spatial governance” paper presented in Proceedings of a workshop held at University of Sheffield on 24th June, pp.5-16.
Kim and et all (2005) discuss that participatory governance provides citizens with access not only to information, but also to decision-making power. It means access not only for a privileged few, but for all. Participatory governance entails the close involvement of people in the economic, political, cultural, and social processes that affect them and facilities the access of individuals and groups to a wide range of opportunities that, in turn, promote responsiveness of governance actors toward people-centred development. Accordingly, participatory governance means a convergence of social and political participation and the scaling up of participatory methods, state-civil partnerships, decentralization and devolution, participatory assessment, and other factors. With the reconceptualization of participation as a right of citizenship and the extension of the right of participation beyond traditional voting and political rights comes the search for more participatory approaches in the processes of democratic governance. Furthermore, some recent trends also have improved the environment for participatory governance, such as democratization in developing countries; the dismantling of the state controls and the provision of new opportunities for participation in socio-economic activities; the information revolution through mass media, which has dramatically increased access to national and global information; and the rapid expansion of non-governmental organizations at local level. Despite the progress made in participatory governance, major segments of society continue to be excluded from the benefits of development: the rural and urban poor, ethnic and religious minorities, and women and children. Much depends on the power relations surrounding these new, potentially more democratic spaces.

Mohmand (2005) focused that governance have come to be characterized by a need to develop closer relationships between the state and its citizens. A centralized government in the developing world has led the neoliberal agenda to recommend a smaller role for the state. However, the answer lies not in curtailing the state in favour of private actors, but actually in ‘deepening democracy’. It is emphasized on the enhancement of human capabilities has also been extremely influential in turning more attention within development discourse towards participation because such an

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enhancement requires a definitive, deliberative role for citizens within political
decisions making.

These concerns have led to a greater emphasis on including citizens in
decision-making processes and on moving towards more participatory governance.
Participation in this context is defined as ‘the ways in which poor people exercise
voice through new forms of inclusion, consultation and/or mobilization designed to
inform and to influence larger institutions and policies’. To achieve participatory
governance, the emphasis should be both on including civil society to a greater extent
in planning processes. On the other hand, making the state more responsive and
accountable to the demands expressed has been by civil society within such processes.
The aim is to create a ‘jointly defined space’ within which decisions are shaped by an
engaging civil society and a responsive local government.

*Pal (2005)*\(^\text{50}\) expressed that responsiveness and decentralization is a
prerequisite of good governance. Governance, therefore, is larger than government. In
fact, it is the focal point for instituting ‘good governance’, as all other institutions
function within the overall institutional framework provided by the government. Good
governance is more than a mere word that implies efficient public administration. It is
the process of building and enduring bridges between the state and the society at large
through effective and people-oriented mechanism of administration. Administrative
responsiveness implies that the administrative machinery has to be strong and
responsive enough at the contact points not only to deliver the goods to the citizens
effectively, but also to act the satisfaction of all concerned.

*Parameswaran (2005)*\(^\text{51}\) deals with a systematic account of the half a decade
long study involving thousands of people. The path for realising the goal of
empowerment of the people through participatory planning and implementation is a
difficult one as it often upsets the apple carts of vested interests. The author deals with
the heavy odds encountered in an action research that tries to modify the existing
power structures at the local level. He argues that there is no need to wait for

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deglobalisation and delibralisation to bring relief to the poorest; the impact can be mitigated by recourse to strengthening of local development through people’s participation.

Roy (2005) explained that almost all the states of India have begun experiment with the Panchayati Raj Institutions. Now the Panchayats have become the institutions of rural development. These institutions constrained being resources in their hands limited. Without adequate finance the institutions cannot expedite space of development in rural areas.

When finance is limited, optimising benefit from limited resources and establishing financial discipline are of greater importance than placing continuous request for finance. Accounting can play a dominant role in exacting accountability and ensuring financial discipline. So, in Panchayati Raj Institutions finance and accounting both are important and have significant roles to play. This effort has been undertaken firstly to see how Panchayats are getting finance and secondly to study how far accounting is used as a device to promote institutions for welfare.

Fischer (2006) argues that there is a need to enrich the theory of citizen participation and the design of deliberation practices through greater attention to the cultural politics of deliberative space. It focuses on the ways the social valorization of political space influences basic discursive processes such as who speaks, how knowledge is constituted, what can be said, and who decided. From this perspective, decentralized design principles are necessary but insufficient requirements for deliberative empowerment. The point is illustrated through an analysis of the science for the people movement in Kerala, India, a prominent example of deliberative empowerment. The discussion shows how the movement employed cultural and pedagogical strategies to facilitate an empowered participation of local citizens in the deliberative planning process. These experiences demonstrate the importance of a deeper understanding of cultural meaning and political identity in the theory of democratic deliberation and the practice of participatory governance.


Papadakis (2006)\textsuperscript{54} focused that socially sustainable development reflects a rather general claim for integrating social justice in economic reasoning. Although it relies on considerations of equity and fairness, it does not provide a one-size-fits-all model as to how to reconcile the possibly conflicting goals of economic accumulation and sustainability. Thus, it does not dictate the exact blend of social and economic objectives that should prevail in each specific context. Due to this inherent ambiguity, the notion finds a necessary complement in the concept of ‘participatory governance’.

Participatory governance is indeed a central element of socially sustainable development because it constitutes the primary means through which this concept takes concrete form. In other words, it is means through which it may be decided which “mix” of often antithetical objectives and policies may be seen as acceptable by all stakeholders affected by a specific development issues. The specific mix of policy is therefore to be discussed by a wide range of stakeholders who attempt to promote the specific interests of their constituencies. Participatory governance is the “vector” through which socially sustainable development may be put to effect.

Greven (2007)\textsuperscript{55} explained that participatory governance focused on the participation of individual citizens within democratic framework, especially with a view to those participants who had been historically restricted by structural barriers or lack of social resources. Two prominent examples of such groups are workers and women. The increased participation of these groups within the public sphere was expected to result in less alienation. Increased individual participation on mass level should not lead to the democratization of the political system but also to all subsystems of society from families and education to the private sector and policy-making.

Salet and Thornley (2007)\textsuperscript{56} reflect on the findings of an empirical investigation of spatial governance strategies in the context of metropolitan


governance in 19 city regions of Europe. The shape of these cities is changing dramatically. This changing shape is not because of enlargement of the urban scale but because of increasing dependence on external social and economic relationships. The effects of globalizing and liberalizing economies have become more manifest in European city-regions, resulting in specialization, decentralization and polarization of economic and social spaces.

Planning strategies used to be nested in urban planning authorities, but if the economic and political forces are operating at an increasingly wide scale, these strategies have to be linked to the conditions of the new arena. This explains the main challenge of this study: to define the dimensions of new metropolitan action space and to investigate the ways in which planning strategies attempt to cope with this relational complexity. The authors explore the increasing role of the economic networks of the private sector in metropolitan space and then investigate the increasing differentiation of public sector responsibilities of metropolitan planning and policy strategies.

Meso-level government in Europe does have a strong impact on metropolitan strategies, but because of the differences in the way it is embedded in national systems, it cannot be considered as one universal tier of government. To enable comparative investigation in different regions of Europe authors designed an institutional typology so that informal planning strategies can be made.

Authors first outline the contemporary dynamics of urban space and the nature of the current metropolitan agenda in Europe. Next, they discuss the major shifts in political institutions. They introduce an analytical framework to differentiate the challenges for coordination strategies in different formal context and to focus the lessons of comparative analysis on spatial issues.

Arvind (2008)⁵⁷ focused that with institutionalization of local governance structures, there has been a discernible trend to regulate centralized educational bureaucracy and create in its place a devolved system of schooling, entailing an increased involvement of parents, teachers, and other community members in school

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management and decision-making practices. At the most inclusive end of the spectrum, people select their roles, and activities may extend to the level of influencing school practices, teacher support and policy-making. At the other end, participation may be limited to school construction, food distribution and resource mobilization activities. The institutional forms that facilitate community participation are largely people-collective bodies such as community-school management committees and other grassroots forum. Thus, decentralization has emerged as a common rallying point for bringing together diverse actors such as the state bureaucracy, community-based organizations, women groups and civic society to work jointly on improving education.

For sustaining and scaling-up micro-level practices in the mainstream framework, a two pronged strategy is suggested: one, to make the participatory base of the democratic provisions more inclusive of the school. Strengthen the practice of collective decision-making; and facilitate the emergence of a more inclusive and representative leadership at the grass root level. Two, the administrative machinery should be encouraged to engage with the local community. The state should be further influenced to adopt more flexible structures for community participation, joined planning and accountability in managing schools.

Verma and et al (2008) added that good governance and institutionalization of stakeholder participation is critical for institutionalizing e-Governance. To realize a quality standard in e-Governance the participation of stakeholders needs to be at maximum. The whole system and the processes should be such that people from different cross-sections of the society have an equal opportunity and equal access to participate in the process of Good Governance. Only then will the widely anticipated change for good reasons follow. National Portal of India with sixth Central Pay Commission realized an association in order to encourage participation by stakeholders to provide feedback inputs towards the sixth Pay Commission’s recommendations. This was a small step forward demonstrating the immense potentialities of such participatory initiatives through the National Portal. Through facilitating institutionalization of stakeholder participation, e-Governance can be a

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powerful tool in improving a nation’s quality of life. Promoting the larger goals of society and transforming the way government functions making it more effective and responsive to its citizens. In accordance with the same the Sixth Central Pay Commission Report projected the need to institutionalize stakeholder participation to ensure effective and responsive in service delivery.

Aulich (2009)\(^{59}\) identifies type of citizen participation in local government in Australia, in particular focusing on the past two decades when local government system has been the focus of intense reform. The paper considers the extent to which contemporary views of participatory governance have taken root at local and sub-local levels as well as the capacity of local government to promote this agenda. It concludes that if participatory governance is to be advanced, it may often be necessary to look for leadership in organizations other than institutional local government. The author shares the view that citizen participation in government is a very much a work-in-progress, and further steps is required to map and evaluate the diversity of state and local government policies towards participatory governance.

Houlzager and Lavalle (2009)\(^{60}\) dealt with that the growth of participatory governance has had the unintended consequence of spawning complex new form of political representation. The participatory governance structures encompass not only direct citizen participation but also political representation by civil society (collective) actors. Using original data from Brazil, it showed that many of these collective actors engage in what we call ‘assumed representation’. In contrast to political parties and labour unions, these actors lack widely accepted and historically consolidated mechanisms through which publics can authorize representation or ensure accountability and responsiveness. In particular, most do not rely on formal electoral or membership mechanism. This layer of collective actors, therefore, faces a historic challenge- the construction of novel notions of democratic legitimacy that can support their forms of representation. The survival of the democratizing current of which they are a part depends in some measure on how this challenge is met. It is also examined what new notions of representations are emerging in participatory governance.

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\(^{59}\) Aulich, Chris (2009), "From Citizen Participation to Participatory Governance in Australian Local Government", Commonwealth Journal of Local Governance, Issue 2, January, pp.44-60.

structure and trace the historic roots of the most widespread and promising that focus on remedying inequality in access to the state.

Mathur (2009) governance is concerned with network of relationships of three actors- state, market and civil society. It is an interactive process where government may like to impose its will but its acceptance will depend on compliance and action of others. Getting good governance calls for improvements that touch virtually all aspects of the public sector-from institutions that set the rules of the game for economic and political interaction, to decision-making structure that determine priorities among public problems and allocate resources to respond to them, to organizations that manage administrative systems and deliver goods and services to citizens, to human resources that staff government bureaucracies, to the interface of officials and citizens in political and bureaucratic arenas. Getting good governance at times implies changes in political organization, the representation of interests, and processes for public debate and policy decision making.

Jeong and Oh (2010) built analysis on the theory of participatory governance in line with the “new governance” approach, emphasizing values of co-operation and partnership among diverse social actors for efficiency and effectiveness in the policy-making process. The authors empirically examine the Presidential Commission on Sustainable Development (PCSD) established in response to the “Agenda 21” initiative. The Roh administration stressed the use of committees as useful bodies to decentralize power and encourage participation. Thus, the Roh administration initiated a wide range of effort to promote the participation of diverse social actors through the committee system. This study examines President Roh’s efforts, addresses why governing by committee has limitations in representing diverse social actors in the national policy-making process, and analyses how power runs through the system of participatory governance. This study analyses government reports and statistics as well as survey and interview data from former committee members and public officials. The major findings suggest that, whereas the PCSD improved representation of citizens in the national policy process, the internal decision-making process was limited to a small number of participants or public officials rather than diverse

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committee members. In-depth interviews demonstrated that the influence and power of diverse social actors were not strong enough to move their ideas and agendas of sustainable development into implementation. Rather, public officials maintained their power and supremacy of decision-making. This implies that participatory governance has limitations in improving citizen participation in the national policy process, especially in the countries that have experienced and still do state-led growth over several decades.

Srivastava (2010)\textsuperscript{63} said that through participatory policies and programmes, multiple institutional spaces were created in Madhya Pradesh with the stated purpose of channeling action by and on behalf of designated rural communities. The overall aim was to bring a ‘quite revolution’ to Madhya Pradesh (MP) whereby successful development work would expand popular participation and thus greatly more responsive government. Nothing less than a revolution in participatory governance if one accepts the key claims made by the Government of Madhya Pradesh: about 3.44 lakh elected representatives of Panchayats, most of whom took charge of village governance and development; a huge numbers of population mainly weaker sections were participated in various participatory works done by Panchayati Raj Institutions. So, participatory governance has not only deepened democracy in Madhya Pradesh, but has paid huge dividends by ensuring improved outcomes. Outcome improvements were said to be based on a vision of and strategy for pro-poor governance reform: empowering the common and poor people to take charge of development programmes for their own benefits.

Walker and Shannon (2011)\textsuperscript{64} gave a strategic model or interactive framework that can confront levels of power to encourage diversity and participation in decision-making from bottom-up initiatives. A significant reasons for this partnerships is mainly the established earlier command system simply did not deliver. In that sense, the ‘centre’ requires deliberative governance as much as the margins. However, if their potential is to be realized, in terms of equity and self-determination, actions for strategic empowerment in community partnerships are required. It have suggested a


possible way to mobilize so that strategic empowerment action can be achieved based around the development of social capital but the approach requires considerable ‘value’ can be added by community involvement in governance, this can be at great cost to those from the community who take part in it. This programme suggests that the outlines of a general strategy can be presented which will make this more likely.

2.4 Spatial Aspect of Governance:-

Rao and Hermon (1998)\textsuperscript{65} made attempt to seek the application of Geographical Information System in planning at the grassroots level. In this paper many aspects related to the use of GIS in micro planning are dealt with under many heads as: use of GIS and Global Positioning System (GPS) in micro planning; implementation of GIS and GPS at grassroots level; land information system (LIS) and finally the development alternatives and approaches to use the GIS in micro planning.

In the present study Kumar and Misra (2003)\textsuperscript{66} deal with that now time has come for all decision makers to discuss the appropriateness of Geographical Information System (GIS) and its application to the rural development because this will provide a suitable solutions on rural sectors in India especially. Several Ministries and Departments of Central and State Governments in India have initiated special GIS programmes. The institutional infrastructures have also been developed across the country catering to the local, regional and national needs. The paper also envisages future developments and usefulness of the community GIS tool for grassroot level planning.

Gudes and et al (2004)\textsuperscript{67} said that public participation (PP) is an integral part of planning processes. Traditionally, public participation took place mainly via public meetings and led to conflicts rather than problem solving. These led to the awareness that public participation requires new method in order to achieve a better planning. So


\textsuperscript{66} Kumar, Lalan and Misra, D.D., “GIS based application for Rural Development- A Policy Warrant”, Map Asia Conference 2003 @GISdeveloment.net

\textsuperscript{67} Gudes Ori, Stern, Eliahu and Svoray, Tal (2004), “Geographical Information System on the WEB for Public Participation in Planning”, Proceedings 12\textsuperscript{th} International Conference on Geo informatics, University of Gavle, 7-9 June, Sweden.
in this study, they developed a web-based GIS to support a “real world” case of PP in the planning of “Shapira Neighbourhood”, Tel-Aviv, Israel. The research compares traditional PP methods to PPGIS on the web method. This can lead to better achievements in the PP in general and in PPGIS on the web specifically. The comparative research applies three dimensions: (1) empowerment, (2) confidence in the information, (3) representation and involvement. Using PPGIS on web will enhance all three aspects of PP. The motivation is twofold: scientific for better understanding the contribution of WEB PPGIS to the planning process; and practical, learning how to improve WEB based GIS interface in PP processes.

McCall (2004)\(^6^8\) finds that PP-GIS (Public Participation GIS) refers to the use and applications of geospatial information and GIS technology used by members of public, individually or grassroots groups, for participation in public processes that affect their lives (and so, encompasses data collection, mapping, analysis, or decision-making). One end of a continuum sees PP-GIS as a form of ‘participatory spatial planning’ (PSP) which makes use of maps and other GI output, especially GIS. Spatial planning can hardly not include maps, etc., though we could imagine ‘participatory planning’ without maps, such as the participatory planning of a school curriculum or a cultural policy. So the core here is the ‘degree of participation’ in the (participatory) planning, in which case the essential issues are: what are the processes, activities, measures, instruments, and procedures that involve participation? And what are the criteria and indicators to measure these?

The others end of the continuum equates PP-GIS to ‘doing (technical) GIS with some degree of people’s participation- the participation could be simply in the data collection, it could in the choice of data inputs, data layers, the analysis and presentation, data storage, and in data queries. Here the core activity is the GI outputs (maps), and the essential issue is what degree or intensity of participation is there in the design of the GIS and the mapping activities?

Bariar, Gupta and Prasad (2006)\(^6^9\) focus on the development of spatial data infrastructure at village for a part of Allahabad district of Uttar Pradesh under GIS

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environment which can be subsequently used in the planning and development of rural infrastructure. The GIS based spatial data infrastructure consists of various thematic maps, demographic data, socio-economic data and data related to infrastructural facilities. A Graphical User Interface has also been developed incorporating the above aspects for increasing its acceptability and utilization among planners and decision-makers. It is expected that user friendly GIS based spatial data infrastructure generated at micro-level will increase the efficiency of administration and resource mobilisation as well as help informed decision-making.

Sethi (2006)\textsuperscript{70} stated that the Panchayats are supposed to prepare plans and work for its implementation whole heartedly. But it is not happening in reality. So, now to involve these rural poor generally known as the primary stakeholders in the need based local level planning and development process find it difficult to participate. If all the stakeholders would come forward to work together then the first step should be to build the database for initiating such a process. Using the participatory development approach could be one among the most suitable approaches for the purpose. Once the first step is done successfully, it is expected that next steps such as identifying the needs, prioritizing the needs, planning, monitoring, evaluating the change experience as well as taking up the necessary follow up activities.

There would be to prepare a participatory database grounding, which would lead for further discussion, participation and need-based decisions. In addition to adoption of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) approaches, adoption of the Geographical Information System (GIS) is expected to be helpful for consolidating the local situation or promoting further discussion and scientific analysis on a specific subject. In this case it would not right to completely ignore the local knowledge system and information base. Since the early 1990s, participatory mapping especially in natural resources management has got momentum due to its above strength. However, in recent years changes in participatory methodologies may have been even more rapid than those in spatial technologies.

\textsuperscript{70} Sethi, Sitakanta (2006), \textit{“Participatory Learning, Development and Local Governance in India”}, paper presented in Fourth Pan Commonwealth Conference (COL), Jamaica, 30 Nov. - 3 Oct, pp1-5.
"Manual for Integrated District Planning (2008)\textsuperscript{71} mentions that there are several reasons for putting a strong emphasis on using ICT tools to anchor and thereby considerably enhance the equality of decentralized planning from the outset. ICT solutions make it much easier for support institutions to capture, integrate and analyses baseline data. ICT enables much more meaningful data display to decision-makers at all levels, from the DPC, through Panchayats to gram sabha and area sabha. Providing data spatially and geographically can considerably improve decentralized decision-making. In particular, ICT will enable better recording of budget envelopes, prioritizing selected projects and works, linking these to budgets, generating, modifying and finalizing plans, projectisation and monitoring of implementation. Most important ICT can through open the entire planning process to public view and bring life to the ideal of decentralized planning.

\textit{DSSDI ACT} (2011)\textsuperscript{72} aims at creating, updating, managing, disseminating and sharing for Delhi a geo-spatial data, geo-spatial map, geo-spatial system, geo-spatial application and geo-spatial portal which will serve as a base for planning and executing various development projects and utility services to be undertake by various departments, corporations, boards, local bodies, public authorities and public and private agencies to achieve goals of coordinated planning, effective governance, public welfare in the city.

\textit{National GIS INGO (2011)}\textsuperscript{73} an initiative at planning commission to integrate geospatial approach to planning. Geographical Information Systems (GIS) are systems that deal with spatially referenced and geographically tagged or linked data. GIS allows integration of multiple maps/image with geo-tagged tabular data and enables determine spatial patterns and choice based on spatial criterions. Further, today’s GIS systems allow creating map visualization of and making amenable the spatial or map representation of tabular data and so on, thereby allowing creation of population maps, consumer maps and their visualization. GIS users can now create pervasive geographic knowledge – their own maps, their GIS models and their own workflows and decision-rules and Geo-web services can deliver this GIS knowledge.


\textsuperscript{72} 2011, "The Delhi Geo-Spatial Data Infrastructure (Management, Control, Administration, Security and Safety) Act", Government of National Capital Territory of Delhi, New Delhi.

to everyone and, thereby, help better understand data correlations in spatial format and therefore help in better decisions to be made. Applications of GIS have great social and national relevance and can support activities of government, enable enterprises to better manage business processes and bring important geographical knowledge to citizens.

SEGS (2012)\textsuperscript{74} recognized that geospatial information includes ‘fundamental data’ that is essential and therefore must have authority, currency, resilience and sustainability, be comprehensive, freely available, accessible and usable for informed decision-making, which immediately leads to better policies and sustainable actions, and more open, accountable, responsive and efficient governments. The experts agreed that spatially enabled societies and governments, recognizing that all activities and events have a geographical and temporal context, make decisions and organize their affairs through the effective and efficient use of spatial data, information and services. It resolved to fully support to make every effort to confirm the importance of governance and legislative frameworks and the need for legislative interoperability.

Therefore, the introduction of Panchayati Raj Institutions had given a tremendous boost the emergence of local leadership and a dynamic burst of enthusiasm of local people. The Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Women had managed to secure adequate representation but many of these leaders were backbenchers even at the Panchayat level. The Panchayati Raj leaders’ at all three levels had seldom taken interest of initiative for preparation of general plans; they are now keen on attaining the maximum possible schemes and services for their areas along with with proper grants. The political consciousness of the rural people and leaders for sharing political and economic benefits had increased. The 73\textsuperscript{rd} Amendment Act has given more powers and functions to the PRIs theoretically but these powers are not practically. To make these institutions more powerful, some measures have to take to reduce the weakness of the PRIs. The basic weakness of PRIs is inadequate of financial resources and lack of institutional dynamism. For that the participatory approaches have to include in grassroot democracy. Thus, India’s future at micro level lies in people’s participation and strengthening of decentralized planning processes.

\textsuperscript{74} 2012, Asia and the Pacific International Symposium on “Spatial Enabled Government and Society (SEGS)”, held on February 15\textsuperscript{th}-16\textsuperscript{th}, 2012 at Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.