

## **12. Poverty Alleviation Strategies of NGOs**

*D Rajasekhar*

### **Introduction**

The main hypothesis of the study is that while the poor must be central actors in any attempt to reduce the poverty condition, endogenous development of the poor by the poor is not possible. The structural nature of poverty and the structures and processes of development require that the actions of the poor be supported by those of the State and other agencies in order to secure the rights and policies that can benefit the poor and secure their development. The emergence of NGOs as important development actors in India implies that one could hope for more attention from the development actors (line departments, Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs), etc) to the needs and concerns of the poor in policy formulation and implementation. This study attempted to analyse the poverty alleviation strategies of NGOs with the following objectives:

1. analysing the magnitude and severity of poverty and the processes generating poverty;
2. examining the efforts made by the NGOs in alleviating poverty and to learn lessons in this regard;
3. discussing the efforts made by line departments, PRIs and other agencies such as banks; and
4. analysing the strategies adopted by the poor in overcoming poverty.

The case study method has been used to analyse the objectives. The study was undertaken in six villages covered by two NGOs (SHARE in Vellore district in Tamil Nadu, and Sanghamitra in Krishna District in Andhra Pradesh). In two of the villages in each project area, the NGO was working, while in another it was not. The size of NGOs, their approach to development and willingness to be part of the study guided the selection of NGOs.

### **Condition and Severity of Poverty in the Selected Villages**

The PRA methods such as mapping the trends, social mapping, wealth ranking exercise, seasonality mapping, focus group interviews and extensive survey of literature were used to assess the condition and severity of poverty across the selected villages. The magnitude of poverty varied within and across the villages. Most of the poor households, in general, belonged to the SC community. The severity of poverty also varied; in general, it was high among SC households. The principal causes of poverty were lack of endowment (lack of assets such as land) and exchange failures (unemployment).

### **Poverty Alleviation Interventions by NGOs**

The poverty alleviation interventions of the selected NGOs were undertaking of economic programmes (craft activity) to provide employment, micro-finance to enable the poor to access credit for income generation and use the strength of the organisation (namely SHGs) to obtain political and social empowerment.

The micro-finance and income generation programmes made a difference to the poor covered by the NGOs in terms of income, occupational diversification, acquisition of skills and confidence. A significant proportion of women members obtained loans to expand their existing livelihood activities (agriculture, business establishments) and were found to have higher income and employment than non-members. However, this was not widespread as societal constraints and lack of infrastructure prevented women from borrowing for income generation. Years of membership in the NGO programmes did not enable the poor to acquire knowledge of new and expanding livelihoods, functioning of line departments and PRIs, awareness of government programmes, etc, and assert their rights.

Another conclusion was that women's income formed a large proportion of the total income. A majority of such households were headed by women and the contribution of male income was low. The evidence also suggests that enabling women to earn income might result in male members withdrawing from the labour market. We are not suggesting that women should not be provided with opportunities to earn income, but that men also be brought within the purview of development intervention if women are to be empowered.

Years of membership in micro-finance groups has made only a marginal difference to the participation of women in the political institutions, and their awareness of important political leaders. In this respect, the women in the comparison group from the project area of Sanghamitra were relatively better. But it is not clear how far this could be attributed to generally higher levels of awareness in Krishna district or to micro-finance groups. The qualitative evidence on participation in political institutions indicates that the SHG membership had not really contributed to generating awareness among women of their rights and how to utilise these rights.

### **Poverty Alleviation Interventions by Local Organisations**

An important conclusion reached was that the poverty alleviation programmes of the other local organisations have the potential to address the root causes of poverty, namely lack of assets (land) and unemployment. But the line department programmes are mainly related to PDS, OAP and some bank loans. Banks did not provide credit for income generation or asset building. The programmes of gram panchayats were essentially related to building infrastructure in the village, and they did not incorporate the concerns of the poor. Thus, there was no clear congruence between the situation of the poor and poverty alleviation programmes undertaken by the local organisations.

### **Poverty Alleviation Strategies of the People**

One of the important strategies adopted by the people in Andhra villages was to organise themselves in *mutah* (gang) labour. This practice improved the bargaining position of the labourers and helped them to secure more employment and wages. *Mutah* labour had a positive impact on these infirmities. These benefits have, at best, solved the livelihood problems of the poor. *Mutah* labour did not help the labourers in acquiring resources, knowledge and asserting their rights.

However, *mutahs* are not horizontally and vertically integrated into the decision making and implementation channels. The local trade unions, government departments, banks and NGOs do not realise their potential in sustained poverty reduction. Hence, *mutahs* are kept outside their policies and programme implementation.

### **Constraints and obstacles in poverty alleviation strategies**

In sum, the important causes of poverty were lack of assets and unemployment. The local organisations formed for them have had only limited success in addressing these causes. The NGOs too have had limited success for the following reasons:

In the organisational mapping conducted in Tamil Nadu villages, the people rated PDS, protected water supply (through panchayat) and schools (where noon-meal is provided) as the most important local organisations contributing to poverty alleviation. The next important organisation was SHARE. Banks and co-operatives came a distant fifth. Gram panchayat and line departments came last. The pattern was similar in the village where the NGO was not working, except that SHARE was not in the picture. This suggests that the presence of an NGO made no difference to the functioning of local organisations even though it had facilitated the formation of institutional channels for the poor to represent their interests in the other local organisations.

### **Conclusion**

In conclusion, the NGOs have been making efforts towards empowerment of poor women, livelihood security and capacity building. However, they face constraints and obstacles in generating the possibilities for poverty reduction. The constraints are deficiencies in their technical and political capacity. The obstacles are wider socio-economic and political processes and lack of pro-poor attitude among the other local organisations. As NGOs alone cannot reduce poverty and other local organisations are not pro-poor in their nature, poverty reduction remains an outstanding problem.

### **13. Sustainability in Practice: Exploring Innovations in Domestic Solid Waste Management in India**

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In recent decades there has been significant growth in urban population, paving enough space for related problems to confront with. One such problem is about improving environmental conditions, particularly through solid waste management. Solid waste is defined as the organic and inorganic waste materials generated by household, commercial and institutional establishments. A solid waste management system is the framework within which all activities regarding solid waste take place. Solid waste management is further defined according to the process administered and/or carried out by the local government, i.e., collection, transport and disposal. The associated activities are generation, storage, collection, transfer and transport, processing and disposal of solid wastes. The prime objective of the project was to gain insights into the 'alternatives' or 'innovations' within the formal and informal solid waste management to reduce waste, in terms of minimising waste, maximising re-use and recycling activities, and to promote ecological sustainability. One of the approaches formulated to examine the project objectives was through a sample study of five cities/ towns in each of the three selected states in India and one city/ town in each state for an in-depth case study.

#### **Key Observations and Findings**

1. The impact of macro-level structural reform, economic liberalisation and reduction in the role of public sector in infrastructure development has been gradually trickling down to the grass-roots levels.
2. The conventional and traditional approach to 'public service' by the government at the urban local government level is slowly changing, and it is now being realised that community participation and private sector partnership are more appropriate to develop the urban local services.
3. Unfortunately, it is found that the initiatives are coming from the top (higher level government) in the form of policy advice, programme guidelines, recommendations and instructions through government orders. In very few instances are attempts being made to improve the standard of urban service management and delivery systems at the local government level.
4. It is observed that in all the case studies on SWM there are two common features:
  - i. Partial privatisation of garbage collection and transportation; and
  - ii. Inviting private sector to install waste recycling plants or produce fertilisers from solid waste.
5. Even though partial private participation (contracting out some components of

services) is in vogue in some municipalities, this was treated as a means of convenience rather than reducing the responsibilities of municipality. Hiring of trucks or tractors by the municipality from private parties to transport solid waste is a case in point.

6. Any attempt to 'change' or 'modernise' or introduce advanced techniques is generally viewed as unnecessary and perceived as no better alternative, additional risk and resisted by a large section of elected representatives as well as the municipal staff.
7. It is observed that if the chief executives, administrators and elected chairpersons make a serious attempt to revamp the traditional methods of SWM and decide to introduce new and innovative approaches, there is sufficient scope for success. For example, in Anantapur Municipality, the young, dynamic and forward looking chairperson, with the support and co-operation of the Municipal Commissioner, succeeded in introducing new and innovative approaches in SWM ever since he assumed office.
8. There are also a large number of legislative, legal and administrative hurdles to the introduction of new approaches. Every part of municipal functions is coded in the form of municipal Acts, Laws and bye-laws which remain unchanged over decades. For example, public health and sanitation rules, regulations and specifications restrict the appointment of the required sanitary staff, purchase of materials, revision of rates and charges.
9. Even though decentralisation in all respects has been preached, in reality there has been no impact on the urban local bodies, as is evident from the fact that they do not administer as per the aspirations and needs of the local people.
10. Although solid waste management is the responsibility of the municipality, as enshrined in the Act, the latter has been seeking the support of non-governmental organisations like EXNORA, CBOs (Community Based Organisations) and workers' societies. This points to the emerging trend of networking between the municipality and other local organisations for managing solid waste.
11. Studies reveal that there are always some operational problems and financial and other constraints, lack of political support and lack of wholehearted support from the citizens, which hinder the promotion of meaningful, effective and responsive waste management endeavours.
12. Discussions with the households indicate that the local organisations are willing to come together to shoulder the responsibility of waste collection and disposal provided the municipality supports their initiatives.
13. The case studies developed on the workers of the informal sector show that their contribution to solid waste management is on an equal footing with the efforts of the formal sector. They, in a way, are responsible for the re-use and recycling of the

waste generated, which is used by different establishments.

14. There is increasing public awareness of the need for collection and proper disposal of garbage. While solid waste management is becoming more and more an important function of the municipalities, the latter are constrained by the lack of funds to perform this function effectively.
15. Owing to financial constraints and ban on recruitment of sanitary workers, the municipalities have been forced to manage the existing personnel more economically but also to evolve innovative methods of collecting and disposing garbage more effectively. As part of this strategy, the municipalities have (a) gone in for methods that effectively use the existing staff, (b) resorted to privatisation of garbage collection and disposal, and (c) encouraged NGOs and CBOs to voluntarily undertake solid waste management in selected areas of the city.

16. Finally, urban local bodies, as a policy, have been found favourable to the privatisation, collection and disposal of garbage and recycling as it saves them money, is cost effective, and above all makes for effective and efficient service.

## **14. Institutions for Self-Governance of Community Forestry Resources: Experiences from Three Indian States**

*S N Sangita*

### **Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of the study is to examine the role of state and civil society in promoting Community Forestry Management (CFM) in Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Orissa with a view to understanding the policy and theoretical implications. The interrelated objectives of the study are to examine:

1. Whether the government policies, institutions, and finances enable people and Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) to promote CFM; and whether the state leadership (both political and administrative) has the vision and commitment towards CFM policies.
2. Whether the CSO's ideology, commitment and initiatives promote people's confidence in CFM activities. In what way can CSOs collaborate / contest the efforts of GOs to strengthen the CFM activities?
3. Whether the Community Forestry Institutions (CFI's) at the village level are autonomous, representative and accountable to ensure efficient equitable and sustainable use of community forestry resources.
4. The factors responsible for strengthening the synergy between state and civil society in the CFM. In other words, to what extent is social capital (developmental state and leadership, transparent laws, norms and rules, responsive bureaucracy, vibrant civil society, powerful opposition party, and vigilant media) responsible for bringing synergy among government, civil society and community organisations.
5. Whether social capital can be created with state and civil society intervention within a short time. What are the advantages and disadvantages of such capital on collective actions?

### **Analytical Framework**

The framework developed by Peter Evans on state-society synergy has been adopted with some modifications. State-society synergy can be a catalyst in development. Norms of cooperation or networks of civic engagement among ordinary citizens can be promoted by public agencies and used for developmental ends. Synergy is to promote coordination and cooperation among various actors on the basis of trust, norms, networks and rules to achieve the desired goals. Synergy between government and civil society or markets would help to generate social capital and achieve the outcome, which they would not be able to achieve individually. Synergies between government and civil society or markets can be broadly classified into two categories, complementary and contesting synergies, on the basis of nature and context of interaction.

In a situation of complementary synergy, the state contributes social capital by facilitating environment or support to civil society or markets. Examples include predictable policies and supporting laws to facilitate private capital to invest in infrastructure and other public good activities. Similarly, effectively ruled/governed environment strengthens the voices of the poor. On the other hand, contesting synergy refers to the strength of civil society in questioning the State's actions. This framework, as developed by Putnam (1993), posits that societies where citizens trust one another and are more inclined to cooperate, give rise to more accountable and efficient governments, which in turn are able to deliver better quality of public goods and create conditions for society to develop faster. The synergy between state and society depends upon the endowment of social capital prevailing in society, type of government organisation that shapes state and society relations, politics and political interests of the country (open political competition or contained by repression).

### **Methodology**

The study focused mainly at three levels (state, project, and village) to capture the processes and the outcomes. It was carried out in Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Orissa, which represent different patterns of state-society synergies and performance. Five cases were selected to represent three patterns of management systems at the range/cluster level, which are interacting with the village communities. They are Joint Forest Management (JFM), Village Forest Panchayat (VFP) and Community Forest Management (CFM). The government influence in these management systems keeps on declining, as we go from JFM to CFM and vice versa in the case of civil society. Three villages on the basis of performance from each cluster/range were selected to assess the impact of social capital provided by the external agencies on the one hand and the existing natural social capital in the villages (homogeneity, leadership, political factions and traditional community institutions) on the other.

Focused interview method was adopted to collect information from the respondents. Information regarding socio-economic profile, membership, perceptions and involvement were ascertained from 10 to 15 respondents from each village through an interview schedule. Intensive discussions were held with the government official's representatives of NGOs and members of the community forestry institutions. Secondary data were collected from the government departments and NGOs. Minutes of various committee meetings were extensively consulted, and some of these meetings were attended and plantation sites visited to observe the condition of the forest.

## **Findings**

### **Synergy between GO and CSOs at State Level:**

#### **Andhra Pradesh**

The performance of Andhra Pradesh is better in terms of the number of Village Forest Committees (VFCs) and area developed under JFM, while it was moderate in Karnataka and Orissa. On the other hand, the coverage of VFCs under CFM was very high in Orissa.

In Andhra Pradesh, the synergy among Government Organisations (GOs), CSOs and funding agencies appeared to be very high in management of community forestry resources. First, there was effective coordination among government departments, which facilitated the pooling of resources for JFM. Second, the good rapport between state government and funding agency (World Bank) facilitated the availability of the funds for the second phase of JFM unlike in Karnataka and Orissa. Third, the synergy between the government and NGOs was very cordial and NGOs' representatives were present in the policy and review committees of the government at the state and sub-state levels. NGOs were also actively collaborating with the JFM at the field level. Nearly one-third of the total VFCs were formed with the assistance of NGOs. They were even paid honorarium to motivate people to form VFCs under World Bank (WB) funded projects. The main factors responsible for effective synergy were vision and commitment of the political leadership, vibrant civil society, vigilant opposition party and responsive administration. Second, the introduction of wide-ranging reforms and incentives made administrators more responsive and accountable to the people. Third, the state facilitated the participation of CSOs in JFM by creating incentives. Fourth, the state was also compelled to be more responsive to the people in the light of the strong opposition from political parties and civil society organisations. Organisations like People's War Group (Naxalite), Raitha Coolly Sangha, intellectuals and trade unions are critical of the ongoing economic reforms, including CFM, with WB assistance. Mobilisation of people against these policies by the civil society made the state to protect the interests of the vulnerable sections of the society.

#### **Karnataka**

Both complementing and contesting synergies among the GOs and CSOs in Karnataka did not appear to be very strong. First, JFM was not effectively integrated with other programmes and departments. Second, the interaction between GOs and CSOs had been declining over the years. Even the existing interaction mechanisms like the state-level steering committee had become ineffective. FD evinced very little interest in resolving various conflicts with NGOs regarding conceptual issues and flaws in the design. The non-renewal of the second-phase Western Ghat Programme can be partly attributed to poor interaction between CSOs and GOs.

The absence of synergy among the GOs and CSOs in Karnataka can be attributed to the absence of political will, conservative bureaucracy and weak civil society. Although Karnataka has adopted the Andhra Pradesh model of development, forestry has not

received the attentions of the state leadership. Second, the conservative bureaucratic culture, absence of dynamic NGO leadership, and weak NGO network were also a major hurdle to the expansion of the programme. Added to this, there were no strong CS movements against the state since people's dependency (particularly tribals) on forest was very low unlike that in Orissa and Andhra Pradesh. On the other hand, there was no strong pressure from the opposition party and civil society against the state as it prevailed in Andhra Pradesh.

### **Orissa**

In Orissa, contesting rather than complementary synergy appears to be dominant in relation to community forestry movement, although it was not the case with other spheres of life. The Forest Department was not very strong in its presence and effectiveness, although it played a significant role in social forestry in the late 80s. First, there was no coordination among the different wings of the forest department. Second, FD was not able to respond to the needs of the people creatively. However, NGOs close to the FD were nominated in state and district-level committees. Added to this, the non-extension of the SIDA second phase regarding community forestry further weakened the finances of the FD. The absence of budgetary support prevented the state from taking up many programmes. On the other hand, the formation of CFMs at the initiative of civil society was on the increase over the years. Even the number of CFM federations had been increased over the years. Most of the CFMs were better protected and cost effective. Biomass needs of the people were met. Infrastructural facilities were better provided. Bio-diversity had been maintained. The presence of civil society is mainly due to dependency on forests for their livelihood. A large proportion of biomass needs of the people are met from the forests. Communities are also protecting forests to undertake such activities as construction of schools, temples and organisation of festivals.

### **Comparison of Joint Forest Management (JFM), Community Forest Management (CFM) and Village Forest Panchayat (VFP)**

VFCs in CFM and VFP villages are more autonomous, participative, transparent and accountable when compared with JFM. The initiative for starting forest protection in CFM came from the people, while in JFM villages it came from the top, particularly from the government. VFCs were formed within 3 to 6 months without building necessary base for formation of social capital (habits of cooperation). Individual and community incentives were adopted to motivate the people to protect the forests. This de-motivated the people after the stopping of government funds.

Women and poor were well represented in governing bodies of JFM when compared to CFM and VFP. However, their participation was not effective due to illiteracy, social stigma and lack of awareness. Elite domination was very common, and the voices of the poor and the women were not articulated effectively.

Accountability was better ensured in CFM and VFP when compared to JFM villages. Honest and accountable leaders got elected through regular polls in CFM and VFP villages. However in JFM villages, leaders continued for more than 3 to 6 years,

although elections are to be conducted every two years. Regular consultations in rule formulation enhanced the rule compliance in VFP. Such consultations helped not only to own the forest but also facilitated people's participation in forest patrolling and development. Absence of such consultation in JFM villages in recent years resulted in loss of people's trust and confidence in VFCs. Information about access rules and sources of income and expenditure are easily accessible to people in CFM villages. VFPs and CFMs were having complete autonomy in management and use of resources although it was limited in JFM.

### **Access, Use and Sustenance of Resources**

In CFM villages, communities had used a variety of innovative approaches for protection and access. Penalties were imposed depending upon the type of offence. However in JFM, forest was protected through trenches, fencing and watchmen, although people's patrolling prevailed.

### **Factors Responsible for Accumulation of Social Capital**

Credible and transparent laws, participatory democracy (regular free and fair election, representation and transparency in governance) committed leadership (political administrative and NGO) and vibrant civil society are mainly responsible for the creation of social capital.

In conclusion, the study suggests policy prescription in the form of pathways for accumulating social capital within a short time both by the state and civil society for prompting national resource management.

## 15. Panchayat Jamabandi in Karnataka: An Evaluation Study

*N Sivanna and M Devendra Babu*

In recent decades, the responsibilities of governments have increased manifold. The democratic framework in which most modern governments work also has placed upon them the additional social responsibility of being accountable to their clientele whom they serve. This social responsibility can be best understood and measured by what is popularly known as 'social auditing'. Social auditing is thus a way of measuring the social and ethical performance of an organisation, be it a non-profit organisation or a corporate body. Hence the process is inclusive, participatory, transparent and accountable. Seen against this backdrop, the government of Karnataka recently launched (**GO. NO. RLP1 182 RPA/2000**) an innovative administrative mechanism popularly called 'Jamabandhi', or 'social auditing,' to examine the working of grama panchayats in the State. The sole purpose of this policy move by the Rural Development and Panchayat Raj (RDPR) Department has been to assess the performance of grama panchayats against their objectives and the expectations of the stakeholders. The broad objectives of the study are to

- ◆ review the Jamabandhi in the light of its philosophy and objectives.
- ◆ examine the process of its implementation.
- ◆ examine the extent of participation of citizens and panchayat members in the programme.
- ◆ assess the impact of Jamabandhi in ensuring transparency and accountability in panchayat governance.
- ◆ suggest measures to strengthen the mechanism and offer corrective steps if there are any gaps in its implementation.

The present study was conducted in sixteen selected grama panchayats. The method of study was both descriptive and analytical. The analysis was based on quantitative and qualitative information.

### **Findings and Suggestions**

- As per the guidelines, the authorities were expected to keep the public informed through tom tom, pamphlets, notice board, and local newspapers. But there were lapses on the part of the authorities in putting them into practice. This resulted in poor participation of the citizens, particularly from the adjoining villages, in the meetings. Hence, there is a need to streamline the dissemination process by effectively using the services of local organisations such as youth clubs, mahila mandals, and the services of anganawadi and health workers.
- The prime motive behind the introduction of the Jamabandhi programme has been to bring transparency and accountability into the system. To meet this objective, the

public was given direct access to panchayat records and registers. In this connection, the officers present were expected to extend their help to citizens by clarifying their doubts or explaining omissions and commissions committed by the panchayat in the previous year. Further, in order to ensure quality in the implementation of rural development programmes, the officers in charge of the meeting had to make field visits along with the affected persons. Field visits and discussions with the local people reveal that this was a low-key affair. Wherever field inspections were conducted, the officers had made serious remarks, particularly about the quality of materials used for construction.

- As revealed by the case studies, successful implementation of promotional programmes like Jamabandhi depends on the flow of information to the public, resulting in the latter's active participation, adherence to guidelines and necessary arrangements made thereof.
- The two cases presented have some important lessons to be learnt. One such lesson would be to take care of disseminating the information and helping the public to understand better the purpose and implications of the programme. Since the Jamabandhi programme was specially meant to activate the public to participate in their panchayat activities, it is necessary that they be taken into confidence first, otherwise, this well-intended programme might lose its very purpose.
- Adherence to the prescribed guidelines is crucial to the successful implementation of any promotional programme. This is reflected in the results of Case-I where the panchayat had made almost all the arrangements to hold the meeting and mobilised the public in large numbers. The guidelines, in fact, are the guiding force behind the success of the event. Their absence in Case-II had led to negative implications.
- The foregoing analysis of the Jamabandhi programme reveals more of negative aspects than of positive ones. However, this should not be taken to imply that the programme, initiated as an administrative mechanism, has failed to achieve its objectives like ensuring transparency and accountability in grama panchayat administration. In fact, it did create a significant impact among the citizens, the representatives and the officials of the panchayats. The citizens, who participated in the programme by attending the meetings, endorsed its usefulness as it provided them with an opportunity to know in detail the activities of their panchayats; prior to this, they hardly had access to such details. While reiterating their positive views on the programme, the citizens strongly felt that the government should initiate measures to educate the people about the new programmes and mechanisms by arranging specially designed awareness camps.
- Discussions with the officials of the zilla panchayat, taluk panchayat and grama panchayat suggest that the programme ensured both vertical and horizontal accountability, particularly among the officials. Further, the process had made the secretaries of the grama panchayats more responsible and accountable to their scheduled tasks and responsibilities. This, indeed, testifies to the fact that Jamabandhi has to some extent ensured accountability of the functionaries of panchayats to the citizens.
- On the whole, although the Jamabandhi programme had many slips here and there which can be seen as initial jolts, in the final analysis, the programme has been giving positive signals by ensuring transparency and accountability in the working of the

grama panchayats. To make Jamabandhi more meaningful, accountable and sustainable, there is a need to legislate **guidelines as mandatory** for conducting Jamabandhi meetings. The success of this programme at the GP level may in due course lead to its replication at the higher-level panchayats too. In fact, there were queries from the non-officials and officials of the grama panchayats as to why only their panchayats were targeted for public scrutiny and not taluk panchayats and zilla panchayats also!

## **16. Economic and Environmental Impact of Policy on Transportation Subsidy to Wood-Based Industries in Andaman and Nicobar Islands**

*Syed Ajmal Pasha*

### **Introduction**

The study aims at understanding, analysing and commenting on the role, effects and issues related to transportation subsidy provided by the Government of India to wood-based industries operating in Andaman and Nicobar Islands. It has tried to examine both the positive and the negative aspects of these industries. It attempts to analyse the economics of wood-based industries both with and without transportation subsidy. It also attempts to assess the extent to which these industries contribute to national, particularly to local, economies, and to identify the beneficiaries of transportation subsidy. Further, it assesses the negative effects of these industries on local environment and ecology in terms of deforestation, soil erosion, and loss of biological diversity, as well as the effect on local farming and livelihood systems.

### **Data and Methodology**

The study is based on both secondary and primary data. Secondary data were collected from official records, published and unpublished documents and reports of the Forest Department, Industries Department, wood-based industries and other related government departments in Andaman and Nicobar Islands. Data and information were also collected through discussions with the officials of industries and forest departments, and personnel of wood-based industries. Primary data were collected at household, community and village / regional levels across the Andaman Islands. It was collected through discussions and with the help of brief structured questionnaires. Personal observations and assessment were also used wherever they were reliable and justifiable.

A total of 35 wood-based industries covering medium-scale plywood/veneer units (2), composite unit (1), sawmills (12), furniture and tiny handicraft units (20) operating across Andaman group of Islands were selected for the study. From these, data on all the components of costs and returns, direct and indirect employment created, and revenue to the government were collected and analysed.

### **Findings**

As per official records and published reports, area under forests of Andaman and Nicobar Islands has declined from 740, 000 hectares (93.7 per cent of reporting area) during 1970–71 to 691, 000 hectares (87.5 per cent of reporting area) during 1996–97. This could be due to an increase in net sown area during the same period. Net sown area was 18, 000 hectares (2.3 per cent of reporting area) during 1970–71, which has increased to 38, 000 hectares (4.8 per cent of reporting area) during 1996–97.

The share of forestry and logging in state domestic product (SDP) of the Union Territory is substantial, though it has declined during the period 1980–81 to 1994–95. Across sectors, it ranks second, after agriculture. In fact, the share of agriculture has declined much more than the share of forestry and logging sector, from 44.2 per cent in 1980–81 to 33.9 per cent in 1994–95.

In terms of direct employment, wood-based SSIs have employed 1,402 persons, which is 21 per cent of the total employment by SSIs in the Islands. In addition to this, the three medium-scale units producing plywood and veneer directly employ around 2,000 persons.

There are many stakeholders in A&N Islands' forests and forest resources — there are settlers, in-migrants, wood-based industries, forest department, ANIPFDC, A&N Islands administration, aboriginals, environmentalists, poachers and the central government.

The net returns of medium-scale units are negative over total costs, and the rate of return is  $-0.2$  per cent, which is not encouraging. It is transportation subsidy that adds to the unit's substantial gains. When transportation subsidy is subtracted from total costs, net returns would be positive and increase substantially, and the rate of return will be around 5 per cent. The low rate of return is due to the cost of timber and excise duty, which is around 49 and 16 per cent of total costs respectively. Moreover, at 15,628 Cbm, these units are operating below their full licensed capacity of around 22,000 Cbm.

As compared with medium-scale units (plywood and veneer), the economics of sawmills (SSIs) is quite different. Some of these sawmills used to produce match splints, pencil slats, etc., but stopped due to increase in the cost of production, and difficulty in selling their products in the mainland. Now all of them have become saw millers. These units are commercially viable, as their net returns over all costs, including depreciation, and excluding transportation subsidy, are substantial, at Rs.796, 000 per unit per annum. Even if transportation subsidy were removed, the net returns would be positive and substantial, yielding a rate of return as high as 17.3 per cent. If transportation subsidy were included, the rate of return would jump to 27.1 per cent, which is very impressive. Total transportation costs of these units, including loading and unloading, are just 10.5 per cent of the total costs. A transportation subsidy makes hardly any difference to the total costs. Moreover, operators are getting positive net returns, even without subsidy.

There are around 200 tiny furniture units, both wood-based and cane-based, which are playing an important role in the economy of these Islands. Even without any kind of subsidy, the net returns of these units are positive, with a rate of return as high as 19.3 per cent over all costs.

The other type of tiny units is the cane-based furniture producing units, which are also largely family based, depending on local forests for canes. In their total variable costs, the cost of canes is around 12 per cent. Though these units are family based, the cost of hired labour constitutes around 43 per cent of the total variable costs. These units

too are commercially viable, with a rate of return as high as 126.4 per cent over total variable costs.

With social costs, net returns of wood-based industry declines substantially, and in the case of medium scale and sawmill units, it is negative. This shows that these units are financially viable with transportation subsidy, but commercially non-viable even with subsidy. To be sustainable, their gross returns should also cover the social costs. In particular, medium-scale plywood and veneer industries are not suitable to A&N Islands, unless the social costs are met out of their returns.

Further, at the aggregate level, taking all wood-based industries into account, net benefits (per annum) of these industries is negative.

### **Policy Suggestions**

Since net returns of medium-scale plywood and veneer units are negative on all costs (fixed and variable costs excluding transportation subsidy), these units are no longer commercially viable. If transportation subsidy were taken into account these units would become commercially viable but still the rate of return would not be encouraging. Their social costs are also much more than the social benefits and these units are economically non-viable. Also since the market for plywood and veneer is in the mainland, there could be no justification for these units to continue on A&N Islands' timber. Further, since the Supreme Court has ordered (order dated May 7, 2002) relocation of these units in the mainland away from forest areas, there is hardly any justification for transportation subsidy to these units.

Sawmills may be required to meet the local demand for timber. If government sawmills can meet this demand efficiently, there is no need for even these units. In fact, the Supreme Court order of May 7, 2002 says that licences shall not be extended or renewed even even in respect of the existing sawmills beyond March 31, 2003. In this situation the government sawmills would have to be more efficient. But government sawmills are subject to limitations. In that case, the existing sawmills may be allowed to continue, but no licence may be issued for new sawmills. Further, export of sawn timber to the mainland should not be allowed. And since net returns over all costs of these units are positive, there could be no need of any subsidy for them.

## 17. A Study of Kendriya Vidyalayas in Karnataka and Kerala

*M N Usha*

### **Introduction**

Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan, an autonomous (Registered) body, was set up in 1965 to start and manage Kendriya Vidyalayas. Kendriya Vidyalayas (KVs) cater to the educational needs of the children of Central Government employees, including defence and paramilitary personnel, by providing a common programme of education throughout the country. It has a mandate to pursue excellence and set the pace in school education. KVs all over the country follow a common syllabus and bilingual medium of instruction (Hindi and English). They are affiliated to CBSE. A well-knit organizational set-up forms the backbone of the Sangathan.

The Sangathan has registered considerable growth, expansion and progress over the years. In 1997–98, there were 874 KVs with 7,42,320 students and 31,886 teaching staff, of which Karnataka accounted for 1,350 teachers and 29,110 students in 31 KVs. In Kerala, there were 26 Vidyalayas with 28,403 students and 1,152 teaching staff during the same period.

### **Objectives**

The main objectives of the study sponsored by the Planning Commission, New Delhi, were:

- Why do the KVs in Karnataka and those in Kerala differ in their functioning?
- What are the socio-cultural, administrative, managerial and financial factors/circumstances for the success or failure of the scheme of KVs in the states under review?
- Does the scheme of KVs as introduced/implemented in the States have inherent weaknesses and require any modification to suit the socio-cultural features of the region?
- Are there any administrative lapses that hinder the implementation of the KV scheme in terms of adequate funds / benefits not reaching the targeted groups, lack of convergence of schemes, etc?
- What problems are encountered by various functionaries involved in the conduct of Kendriya Vidyalaya?
- Are alternative strategies needed to enable the KV scheme to achieve its avowed goals?

### **Tools**

Simple descriptive statistical techniques such as percentages, mean, standard deviation and CV were used to analyse the data.

## **Conclusions**

1. Participation rates of students in KVs were higher in Kerala than in Karnataka, the average participation rate in Kerala being 1,092 as against 939 in Karnataka during 1998–99.
2. There existed significant differences in principals' perceptions about the organizational climate in KVs in Karnataka and Kerala. There was more democratic and participatory management in Karnataka than in Kerala.
3. In Karnataka, principals and teachers worked as a team towards the goals of KVs. They also acted collectively to enhance the prestige of Vidyalayas. Students performed well owing to the healthy atmosphere of the Vidyalayas and to the support systems provided by their parents at home.
4. Decentralisation of administration was well received by principals in both states.
5. In both Karnataka and Kerala, the setting up of Vidyalaya Executive Committee elicited mixed reactions.
6. Karnataka KVS had the advantage of well-knit communication facilities; hence the flow of information and communication from the regional administrative unit was smooth and swift. In Kerala the distance of the administrative unit seems to have slowed down the communication process.
7. Most of the teachers expressed the need for restructuring of the curriculum, re-designing of textbooks and modifying evaluation and assessment patterns.
8. In-service courses needed different kinds of inputs.
9. Supervision and inspection by the authorities was more effective in Karnataka than in Kerala.
10. KVs in Karnataka had more contributory factors—institutional factors, teacher factors, student factors, parental involvement and commitment to school education, educational management, investment decisions made by institutions and regional level offices, team approaches by staff and principals and implementation of policies and performance by students that yielded in quality education.

## **Recommendations**

- ❖ Setting up of sub-regional administrative units within the region is essential.
- ❖ There is scope for further expansion of KVs in the regions.
- ❖ Re-framing of grant-in-aid codes and C and R rules is required (essential).
- ❖ The wide disparity in pay and allowances of principals and teachers needs to be examined.
- ❖ Capacity-building programmes for staff need to be planned.
- ❖ Short-term sandwich courses should be conducted for teachers using multi-media to introduce modern techniques of teaching modes of assessing and evaluating students' work.
- ❖ In-basket workshops and seminars need to be organised for teachers.
- ❖ Serious attention needs to be given to the multi-media approach to school education with KVs.
- ❖ Vocationalisation of education programmes could be tried out at the diversified secondary stage. Vocational counselling cells could be set up in schools.
- ❖ A perspective plan needs to be drawn up with strategies for networking with other institutions as well as establishing linkages with industries in the region.

- ❖ Action plans are needed to introduce and implement neighbourhood schools schemes and complexes.
- ❖ Examination at regional and sub-regional levels could be tried out after class V and IX to ensure entry of worthy students into X and XI classes.
- ❖ Self-learning support materials need to be supplied to students by KVs.
- ❖ Parental accountability to schooling needs to be ensured and popularised through a campaign approach and through non-print media.
- ❖ Management of information systems needs strengthening.
- ❖ Orientation training courses need to be organised for non-teaching staff at the school level.

## **18. Empowerment of Panchayati Raj Institutions on Health Issues through Electronic Media: A Pilot Project in Karnataka**

*T V Sekher*

The Institute for Social and Economic Change launched an innovative action project on the Empowerment of Panchayati Raj Institutions on Issues of Population, Health, and Social Development through Electronic Mass Media in Karnataka. This project was sponsored by the Population Foundation of India, New Delhi, and Sir Ratan Tata Trust, Mumbai, and implemented in consultation with the Department of Health and Family Welfare, Govt. of Karnataka.

The objectives of the project are:

- to educate and sensitize members of the Panchayati Raj Institutions on issues such as population, health, and social development through the electronic media in Karnataka; and
- to utilize the electronic media to reach the larger audience of opinion-makers of rural communities such as Panchayati Raj members, health workers, anganawadi workers, ANMs and non-governmental organizations in Karnataka.

The Government of Karnataka, under the India Population Project –IX, produced television programmes on various issues related to Reproductive and Child Health. ISEC sponsored the telecast of 12 episodes of the production through Bangalore Doordarshan Kendra (DD-1) on Thursdays, from 6.00 to 6.30 p.m. during June to September 2002.

The TV episodes were on the following topics:

- ❖ Health problems of the adolescent girls
- ❖ Menstruation and related developments
- ❖ Age at marriage
- ❖ Health problems of married women
- ❖ Ante-natal care
- ❖ Post-natal care
- ❖ High-risk pregnancy
- ❖ Breast-feeding practices
- ❖ Importance of breast-feeding
- ❖ Immunization (BCG and Polio)
- ❖ Immunization (DPT and others)
- ❖ Temporary and permanent family planning methods

The project was implemented in six districts of Karnataka covering 115 Gram Panchayats. The following six NGOs, with many years of experience in providing health care services and imparting health education, collaborated with ISEC in implementing the project activities.

- Family Planning Association of India, Dharwad, Dharwad District
- Swami Vivekananda Youth Movement, H.D. Kote ( Mysore District)

- Jayanthi Grama Women and Children Welfare Association, Bijapur District
- Grameena Abhyudaya Seva Samsthe, Doddaballapur (Bangalore Rural District)
- Family Planning Association of India, Bidar Branch ( Bidar District)
- Action for Rural Reconstruction Movement, Shorapur (Gulbarga District)

A two-day workshop was organised in May 2002 at ISEC to design the strategies for project implementation. Selected NGO personnel, health education and media experts, and government officials participated in the workshop at which the modalities for implementation of the project were finalised. A one-day orientation programme to sensitize the volunteers of the six NGOs on the following issues was also organised at the headquarters of the NGO concerned in order to

- discuss the modalities to bring the Panchayat members to the TV viewing sessions in each village;
- familiarize the volunteers with the contents of each episode;
- organize a meeting of all gram panchayat presidents and secretaries to finalize the venue for group viewing and making necessary arrangements before the telecast of the first programme. The idea was to seek their cooperation and active involvement as well as sufficient publicity for the programme;
- brief the volunteers to make necessary arrangements for group viewing, arranging discussions and clarifying the doubts raised by the panchayat members after watching the TV programmes;
- to enable them to organize pre- and post-telecast evaluation by administering a well-designed questionnaire supplied by ISEC; and
- supervise the implementation of all aspects of the programme in the project areas.

The volunteers from selected NGOs were trained on various aspects of health care and health education, and each one was entrusted with the responsibility of bringing PRI members to the TV viewing sessions for group viewing and facilitating discussions in each village. This training methodology was appreciated by both panchayat members and volunteers. Through this project, we were also creating a pool of trained and committed health volunteers in villages for availability in future programmes.

The active involvement of NGOs in the project areas helped ensure the participation of Gram Panchayat members. This training experiment also illustrated that television could be used as a powerful and effective medium for training panchayat members in our country. The state government might take up this methodology, after making necessary adaptations while planning their future training programmes.

As a part of the project, the State Department of Health and Family Welfare had requested the ISEC project team to prepare a comprehensive Handbook on Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) for the use of field staff in Karnataka. ISEC has brought out the handbook in consultation with the leading health education and medical experts of Karnataka. Dr. M Ramakrishna Reddy and Mr. N M Narayanamoorthy served as consultants for the preparation of the Handbook. The Govt. of Karnataka printed and distributed 47,000 copies of the Handbook to all health and anganwadi workers (ICDS) in

the state.

An analysis of the pre- and post- telecast questionnaires reveals that the TV programmes were helpful in increasing the awareness among the panchayat members on various aspects of Reproductive and Child Health and governmental programmes. A final evaluation, carried out in December 2002, demonstrated that the methodology evolved was found to be more effective and acceptable to Gram Panchayat members, though there were few operational difficulties during the implementation of the project. In India, where we have to train a large number of elected representatives of PRIs and create awareness about various developmental issues, the government and training institutions alone cannot handle this task. It is, therefore, imperative to look for more effective and acceptable training methodologies, including the use of powerful electronic media. This action project in Karnataka is an innovative effort in that direction.

## **19. Functional Review of Department of Health and Family Welfare in Karnataka**

*T V Sekher*

### **Introduction**

In recent years, there has been growing disappointment and dissatisfaction among the public with the performance of various government departments responsible for provision of basic and essential public services. Despite the economic reform measures that have been introduced, efficiency in public service provision remains neglected. Performance of the public service system, in general, depends on many factors. These include organizational structures, financial resources, transparency and accountability, attitudes and perceptions of people towards service delivery, interaction between service providers and clients, and above all, the functioning of government machinery and its linkages with other departments including local self-governments.

The Government of Karnataka has initiated several innovative measures to improve the performance of government departments and local bodies. Setting up of the Karnataka Administrative Reforms Commission (KARC) is one such initiative, intended to provide necessary inputs to streamline the administrative machinery and service delivery system. To fulfil its mandate, KARC has decided to undertake functional reviews of various departments in the state. At the instance of KARC, ISEC undertook the functional review of the Department of Health and Family Welfare during May to September 2001, sponsored by the Ford Foundation, New Delhi. This review pertains to the specific issues of policy making and operational aspects of the Department, keeping in view the overall objective of improving efficiency in service delivery, transparency in administration, and people's participation with devolution of powers.

### **Objectives of the Review**

1. To conduct an objective assessment of the functioning of the state health department at policy making and implementation levels;
2. To study the organizational structure of the department and its effectiveness including manpower planning.
3. To study the functioning of the health department at the district level and below under the decentralized set-up.
4. To understand the availability and utilization of public health services at various levels.
5. To examine the clients' perceptions and suggest measures to improve interaction between service providers and beneficiaries for provision and accessing of quality health care services.
6. To make specific recommendations to the state government for improving efficiency and accountability in service delivery at all levels in the health department to promote a responsive administration through civil service reforms.

## **Methodology**

A review of this nature and magnitude demands not only information and inputs from macro levels but also insights from the grass-roots level. Accordingly, a two-pronged approach was adopted for the study. First, discussions were carried out with health functionaries at all levels, starting from Principal Secretary and Commissioner of State Health Department to ANMs and male health workers in the villages. Officials at the State Secretariat, Directorate, Divisional, district and taluk levels were interviewed for this purpose. Institutions such as district and taluk hospitals, community health centres, primary health centres and sub-centres were visited and their functioning examined. Functionaries of Panchayati Raj Institutions at district, taluk and gram panchayat levels were interviewed to seek their views and concerns. Detailed discussions were held with Deputy Commissioners and Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) of Zilla Panchayats to assess the performance of the department and the existing inter-sectoral and inter-departmental co-ordination. Data were also obtained from Training Institutions of the Department at various levels. Second, to understand the effectiveness of service delivery from clientele perspective, a sample survey was conducted among 454 service seekers of public health facilities. In addition to this information, the findings and recommendations of major surveys, reports and research studies were reviewed for this purpose.

Five districts in the state — Kolar, Uttara Kannada, Gulbarga, Chamarajanagar and Bijapur — were selected for a detailed investigation. It was considered that these districts broadly represent all the administrative divisions and geographical regions of Karnataka. From each district, three taluks were identified to undertake sample survey, focus group discussions (FGDs) and in-depth interviews.

## **Major Findings and Recommendations**

In the light of the above review, the following recommendations have been made:

1. In the state as a whole, out of 63,963 sanctioned posts, around 24 per cent of the posts are vacant, considering all categories. However, in certain critical cadres, the vacancy position is alarming. Nearly 50 per cent of the pharmacist posts and 39 per cent of the lab-technician posts are lying vacant. Even in the case of Medical Officers, the vacancy level is around 17 per cent.
2. But what is shocking is the regional disparities in the staff position at different centres. In Gulbarga district, nearly 42 per cent of the posts of Medical Officers are vacant even after the appointment of contract doctors. 74 per cent of pharmacists are not in a position in Chamarajnagar district. The vacancy level of Lab Technician is as high as 37 per cent both in Uttara Kannada and Chamarajnagar districts. In the category of male health workers, 67 per cent of the posts are not filled in Kolar, whereas the critical category of ANMs — the real link between the health department and the public — about 36 per cent of the posts are vacant in Gulbarga district. All existing vacancies, particularly in the categories of PHC Medical Officer, pharmacist, lab-technician, staff nurse and ANMs, must be filled at the earliest. A special recruitment drive to fill these crucial posts must be undertaken with all seriousness.
3. The health infrastructure in the state, in terms of number of institutions, is quite

satisfactory. The average area and population covered by a PHC or sub-centre is well within the prescribed national norm. However, many new PHCs have been started in certain locations based on political considerations, rather than established criteria. Attention should be paid to the location of primary health centres and sub-centres with the view to greater integration of the staff with the local population. Instead of sanctioning new health institutions, Government should focus on strengthening the existing institutions in terms of infrastructure and manpower, to make it really functional.

4. The mere existence of a health institution does not ensure its satisfactory functioning and utility to the common man. Many of them lack basic facilities like electricity, water, telephone and a vehicle. Some of them are located in rented buildings. Measures should be initiated to improve the infrastructure and its proper maintenance.
5. The main reason cited during the study for the poor functioning and low utilization of PHC facilities is the absence of the Medical Officer / Lady Medical Officer at the headquarters. Facilities should be made available for the stay of crucial medical staff at the PHC compound itself.
6. Soft loans should be provided to ANMs and Medical Officers to purchase two-wheelers. This will facilitate field visits and supervision in the villages as well as their availability in PHCs and sub-centres.
7. Though attempts were made at district levels to recruit doctors on contract basis, in many areas it is not very successful. Their salary should be raised on par with regular Medical Officers. There is no systematic attempt to regularise the services of these doctors working in difficult situations even after many years, which in a way affects their morale.
8. In a service department like health, abolition of existing posts must be done with extreme caution. The blanket decision of abolishing a certain percentage of posts with immediate effect may not be feasible, even in spite of the mounting financial burden. However, we need to differentiate between the posts 'providing health care services' and posts of purely 'administrative' nature in the Health Department.
9. Regarding the appointment of Medical Officers, tenure-specific posting should be given and rural service should be made compulsory in the initial years. Those doctors/paramedical staff working in the remote and backward areas of the state must be encouraged with substantial incentives, both in terms of cash, PG education and promotions.
10. A highly responsible post like District Health and Family Welfare Officer (DHO) should have tenure-specific appointments. Most of the newly appointed DHOs have only a few months of service before their retirement and have no interest in initiating any improvement.
11. To ensure proper supervision of the functioning of PHCs, the position of the Taluk Health Officer (THO) should be strengthened. In most of the taluks, the THO is the chief Medical Officer in-charge of taluk hospitals / CHCs, and he/she has very little time to monitor the functioning of PHCs. It is recommended that THO should be given full administrative powers and time to discharge duties as a supervisory officer, rather than as a mere 'manager' of a particular hospital in the taluk.
12. The administrative structure of the department at state and district levels, as proposed by the Task Force on Health and Family Welfare, is appropriate in terms of

improving efficiency and responsive administration. However, at the district level the two posts of the District Medical Officer (DMO) and District Health Officer (DHO), may lead to dual centres of authority and lack of co-ordination and a huge financial burden. Necessary administrative procedures must be evolved to avoid this.

13. Though the government has provided a large network of health facilities throughout the state, their utilisation by the public is considerably low. There are many factors such as distance, lack of health personnel, non-availability of medicines, hostile behaviour of health staff, absence of doctors, etc., which determine the utilisation of services. It is a well-known fact that people have a very poor image of government health facilities. It is the responsibility of the government to ensure that quality health care is available and accessible to the needy at an affordable price.
14. A review of training programmes of the department reveals that it is more 'project-driven activity' rather than a regular responsibility of the department, based on any need-based appraisals. It was also found that the four Regional Health and Family Welfare Training Centres (RHFUTC) are mostly inactive. At least once in five years, every staff member of the department should receive refresher training. The Department should chalk out an action plan for future training programmes, in accordance with a need-based appraisal.
15. The State Institute of Health and Family Welfare (SIHFW) should be strengthened with capable faculty and facilities to discharge its responsibility as an apex training institute in the State.
16. Decentralisation of health services through intervention of Panchayati Raj Institutions is expected to provide better service delivery and make health personnel accountable to the public. To some extent this is true in Karnataka. It has resulted in better functioning of PHCs and improved attendance of doctors and paramedical staff. But in many instances, this study observed lack of faith and respect between health functionaries and panchayat leaders, which has adversely affected the services.
17. Though at the district level, there is frequent interaction and supervision between ZP and district health office, it is practically non-existent at the taluk and village levels. The health committees rarely meet and even in taluk and gram panchayat meetings, health issues were seldom discussed. There is an urgent need to activate the health committees for the benefit of the community.
18. Training and orientation programme on health and related issues should be given to all panchayat members at the beginning of their tenure. This will help them to realise their responsibilities and the need for co-operating with health functionaries at all levels.
19. Regarding drug management, certain new procedures need to be adopted. In many instances, the drugs purchased are not utilised in time. There were frequent delays in supply of medicines from the General Medical Stores. Irrespective of the coverage of the population and staff strength of PHCs, medicines were supplied to all PHCs in similar quantities. This has resulted in an acute shortage of drugs in some places and wastage of medicines in some other places. Distribution of medicines should be based on the criteria of demand.
20. A corporation may be set up to take care of procurement, storage and distribution of drugs, equipment and ancillary items.

21. The department should seriously consider 'privatising' the non-clinical services in hospitals /CHCs / PHCs. The experience of a few hospitals under KHSDP, where the non-clinical services have been contracted out, is encouraging.
22. The user charges are expected to provide additional revenue for maintaining hospitals. Recognising the patients' ability to pay, certain sections of the people can be targeted for levying user charges. While doing so, the poor must be protected, since most of the people availing of government health facilities are from the poorer segments of society.
23. Private practice by government doctors can be allowed under certain conditions. However, their presence in the PHCs/hospitals during working hours must be made compulsory and strict action initiated against those who violate the rules.
24. The per capita expenditure on health in Karnataka, which includes public health, medical and family welfare, in 1999-00 was Rs.185.10 and compares favourably with those in the neighbouring states. The comparatively larger figures in Karnataka in some years are related to injection of funds through Externally Aided Projects (EAPs). The overall expenditure on health and family welfare is in the range of 1.1 and 1.4 of net state domestic product, but the reliance on EAPs is increasing. Considering that EAPs are more of loans rather than grants, utilisation of these funds demands utmost care and efficiency.
25. Appreciation and recognition of individual contributions are motivational factors for committed personnel. However, outstanding contributions of our health administrators, specialists and health personnel have never been recognised by the state government. Awards should be instituted for noteworthy performance of doctors and field workers, which will boost morale and instil pride in undertaking certain tasks.
26. Many states have formulated their own population policies, which gave an impetus to their efforts to address state-specific problems. The results of 2001 Census indicate that Karnataka is lagging behind all other South Indian states in demographic transition. The state should formulate a population and health policy within the broad framework of National Population Policy (2000) and National Health Policy (2002) and implement it sincerely.

## **20. Functioning of Health and Family Welfare Training Institutions in Karnataka**

*C S Veeramatha*

Over the years, a large number of health institutions have been established in the State to provide healthcare services closer to the people. To improve the quality of services provided by these institutions, the skills of health workers need to be upgraded through refresher and specialised in-service training. For this purpose, the health department has established a network of training institutions, namely, State institute of health and family welfare (SIHFW), regional health and family welfare training centre (HFWTCs), LHV training centre (LHVTCs), district training centres (DTCs) and ANM training centres (ANMTCs) in the State to cater to the training needs of medical and paramedical workers at different levels. The functioning of these training centres depends on various factors. The present study tries to understand the nature and functioning of these training centres.

### **Focus of the Study**

The study focuses on the following issues:

- ❖ the infrastructure facilities available with respect to the training centres;
- ❖ the adequacy of the staff position;
- ❖ the nature of training programmes conducted and participation of the staff members;
- ❖ the type of training programmes undertaken and their linkage with service delivery,
- ❖ the implication of training for future work.

### **Universe of the Study**

For the purpose of the study, the State has been divided into two, northern and southern. The southern division of Karnataka (i.e., 13 districts) has been covered for the present study.

### **Summary**

The RCH programme with target-free approach lays emphasis on acquiring better skills and bringing qualitative changes into the functioning of health staff. For this purpose, more and more rigorous in-service training was felt necessary for the health staff working as medical and paramedical workers in different set-up. In addition to the existing health institutions catering to the training services such as HFWTCs, LHVTCs and ANMTCs, SIHFWTC and DTCs have been set up in Karnataka by IPP-IX with World Bank assistance.

The SIHFW aims at improving the total effectiveness of healthcare delivery system by imparting knowledge and technical skills at different levels. For this purpose, the State institute introduced different types of training for medical and paramedical workers, namely, training of trainers (TOT), integrated skills development training (IST)

in reproductive and child health, specialised skill development training (SST in RCH), general RCH programme, etc.

Two rounds of training programmes were conducted during the IPP- IX project period. The first round during 1995–99 emphasised orientation and management. About 37 per cent of the medical officers and 83 per cent of the health staff were trained. During the second round, two new training programmes, IST and SST, were designed and executed. In this programme about 36 per cent of the medical officers and junior and senior health assistants were trained. The plan was to cover 100 per cent of the staff by March 2003 (PRC, ISEC). All the faculties of the training centres have undergone relevant training except a few in HFWTC, LHVTC and DTCs. Nearly 50 per cent of the ANMTC teaching staff are yet to receive training.

RHFWTCs prepares the training manuals in compliance with the regional requirements and provides consultation services to other governmental and non-governmental organisations on healthcare delivery and related training programmes.

Bangalore and Mangalore LHVTCs have been considered for the purpose of the study. Mangalore LHVTC covers eight districts and Bangalore covers nine districts. LHVTCs conduct only promotional training courses. The faculties of these institutions are sufficiently oriented and are of the opinion that the training builds knowledge and is very useful. They also felt that the coverage of topics is relevant and adequate.

DTCs are assigned the task of conducting orientation on training in RCH programmes and skill-based integrated training programmes in health and family welfare services. The training programme started in these DTCs only during 1999–2000.

ANMTCs provide a foundation training course for newly recruited ANMs. The skills imparted during the foundation course include community health MCH, FW, immunisation and motivation. In addition to these, some of the practical experiences such as conducting household survey, home delivery, IUD insertion, ANC/PNC check-up and ORS preparation are included.

## **Recommendations**

The following measures are recommended for the success of the training programme:

- ❖ Provision of own buildings for the LHVTCs.
- ❖ Repair and renovation of HFVTCs and ANMTCs should be undertaken.
- ❖ Sanctioned posts for both teaching and supporting should be filled.
- ❖ Each centre should have a vehicle of its own.
- ❖ Funds should be allocated and distributed at proper intervals.
- ❖ Regular in-service training for the staff at all levels of medical and paramedical should be given.
- ❖ Minimum prescribed qualification for the post of principal of ANMTC should be changed.
- ❖ The ANMTCs felt the need for new office premises and teaching equipment.