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PART - 2

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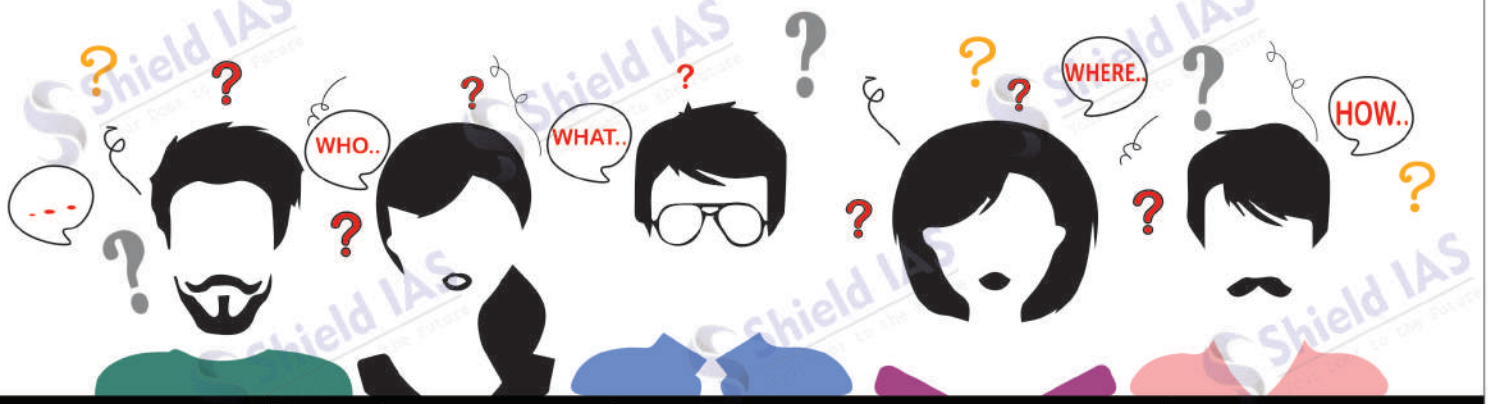

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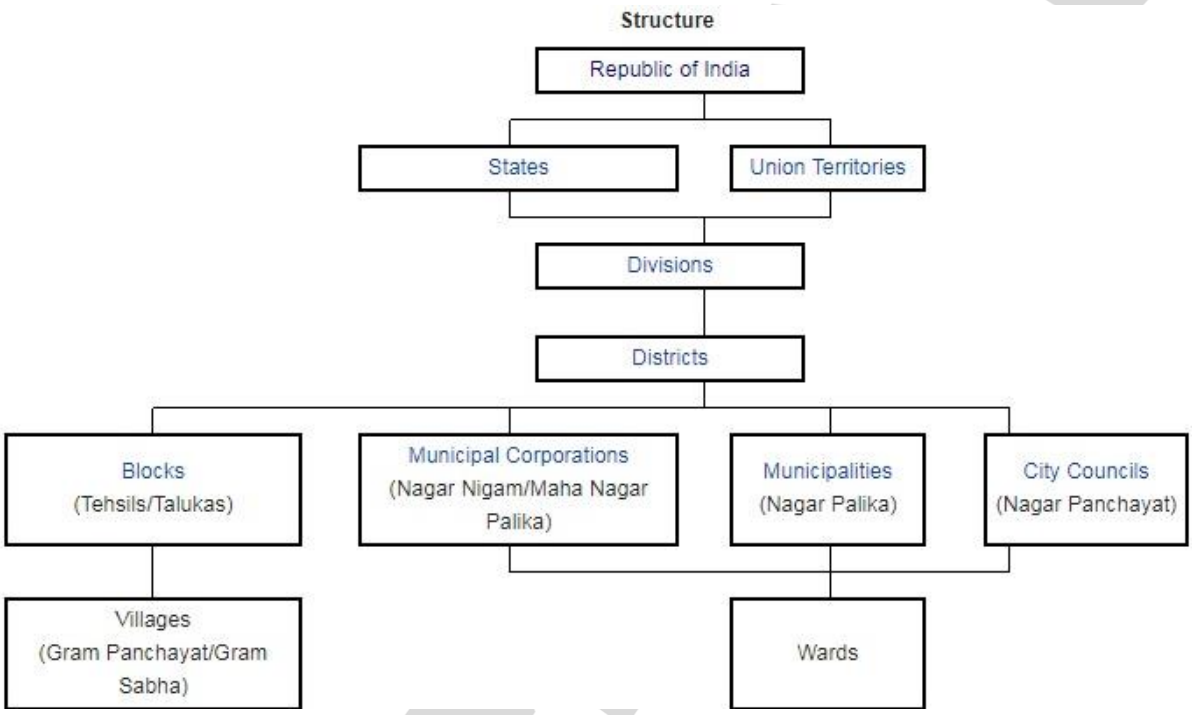
INDIAN POLITY
BOOK - 2

PART 9 OF COI – LOCAL GOVERNMENT



G.V.K. RAO COMMITTEE

The Committee to review the existing Administrative Arrangements for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation Programmes under the chairmanship of G.V.K. Rao was appointed by the Planning Commission in 1985. The Committee came to conclusion that the developmental process was gradually bureaucratised and divorced from the Panchayati Raj. This phenomena of bureaucratisation of development administration as against the democratisation weakened the Panchayati Raj institutions resulting in what is aptly called as 'grass without roots'. Hence, the Committee made the following recommendations to strengthen and revitalise the Panchayati Raj system:

(i) The district level body, that is, the Zila Parishad should be of pivotal importance in the scheme of democratic decentralisation. It stated that

"The district is the proper unit for planning and development and the Zila Parishad should become the principal body for management of all development programmes which can be handled at that level."

(ii) The Panchayati Raj institutions at the district and lower levels should be assigned an important role with respect to planning, implementation and monitoring of rural development programmes.

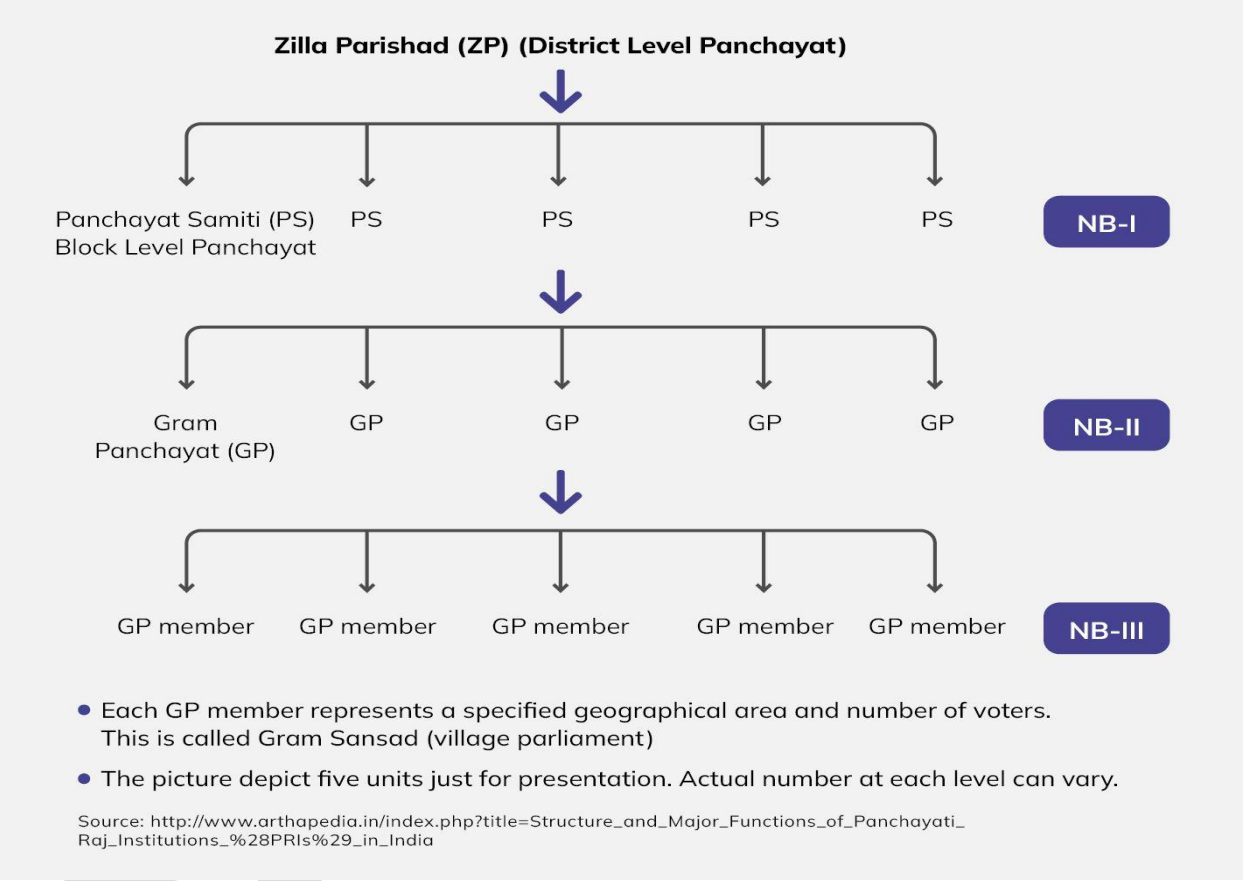
(iii) Some of the planning functions at the state level should be transferred to the district level planning units for effective decentralized district planning.

(iv) A post of District Development Commissioner should be created. He should act as the chief executive officer of the Zila Parishad and should be in charge of all the development departments at the district level.

(v) Elections to the Panchayati Raj institutions should be held regularly. It found that elections became overdue for one or more tiers in 11 states.

Three-Tier System

The act provides for a three-tier system of panchayati raj in every state, that is, panchayats at the village, intermediate, and district levels. Thus, the act brings about uniformity in the structure of pan- chayati raj throughout the country. However, a state having a population not exceeding 20 lakh may not constitute panchayats at the intermediate level.



Part 9A of COI- The Municipalities

The term 'Urban Local Government' in India signifies the governance of an urban area by the people through their elected representatives. The jurisdiction of an urban local government is limited to a specific urban area which is demarcated for this purpose by the state government.

There are eight types of urban local governments in India– municipal corporation, municipality, notified area committee, town area committee, cantonment board, township, port trust and special purpose agency.

The system of urban government was constitutionalised through the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act of 1992. At the Central level, the subject of 'urban local government' is dealt with by the following three ministries:

(i) Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs.

(ii) Ministry of Defence in the case of cantonment boards

(iii) Ministry of Home Affairs in the case of Union Territories

Municipal Revenue

There are five sources of income of the urban local bodies. These are as follows:

1. **Tax Revenue:** The revenue from the local taxes include property tax, entertainment tax, taxes on advertisements, professional tax, water tax, tax on animals, lighting tax, pilgrim tax, market tax, toll on new bridges, octroi and so on. In addition, the municipal bodies imposes various cesses like library cess, education cess, beggary cess and so on. Octroi (i.e., taxes on the entry of goods into a local area for consumption, use or sale therein) has been abolished in most of the states. Property tax is the most important tax revenue.
2. **Non-Tax Revenue:** This source include rent on municipal properties, fees and fines, royalty, profits and dividends, interest, user charges and miscellaneous receipts. The user charges (i.e., payment for public utilities) include water charges, sanitation charges, sewerage charges and so on.
3. **Grants:** These include the various grants given to municipal bodies by the Central and State Governments for several development programmes, infrastructure schemes, urban reform initiatives and so on.
4. **Devolution:** This consists of the transfer of funds to the urban local bodies from the state government. This devolution is made on the basis of the recommendations of the state finance commission.

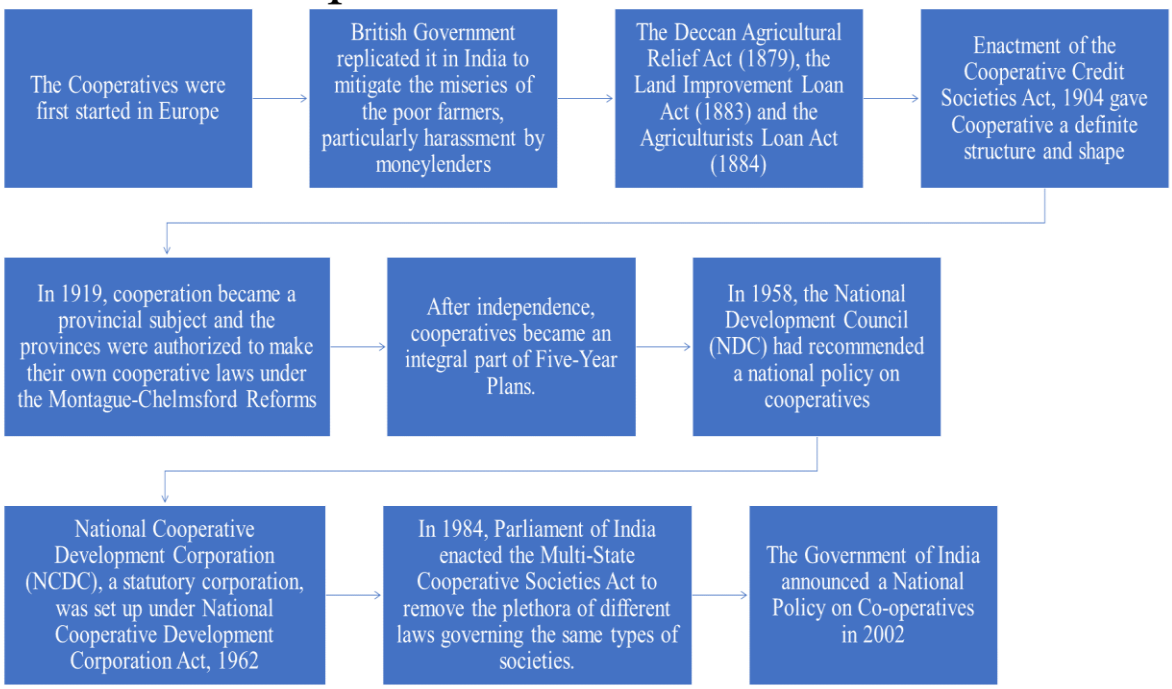
PART 9B OF COI – THE CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

The International Cooperative Alliance (ICA) defines a Cooperative as "an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social, and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly-owned and democratically-controlled enterprise."

There are many types of cooperatives such as Consumer Cooperative Society, Producer Cooperative Society, Credit Cooperative Society, Housing Cooperative Society and Marketing Cooperative Society. The United Nations General Assembly had declared the year 2012 as the International Year of Cooperatives.

India is an agricultural country and laid the foundation of World's biggest cooperative movement in the world. Recently, a separate 'Ministry of Co-operation' has been created by the Central Government to give a new push to the cooperative movement.

Co-operative Movement in India



PART 10 OF COI- THE SCHEDULED AND TRIBAL AREAS

Administration

Scheduled Areas

The various features of administration contained in the Fifth Schedule are as follows:

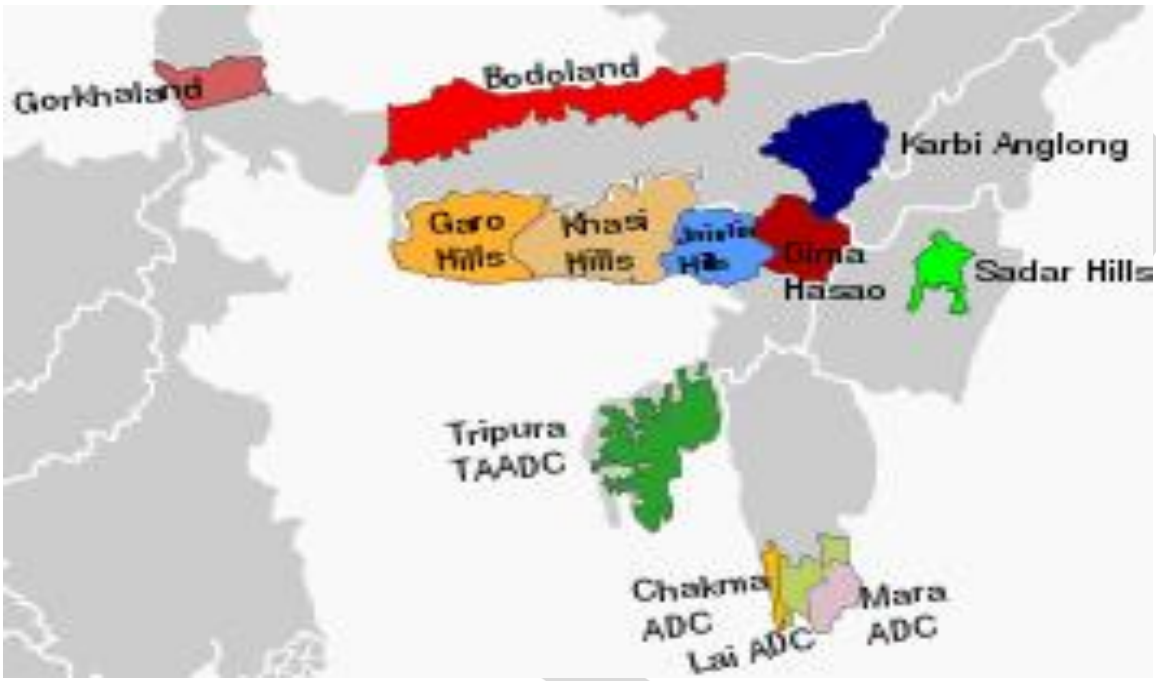
1. **Declaration of Scheduled Areas:** The president is empowered to declare an area to be a scheduled area. He can also increase or decrease its area, alter its boundary lines, rescind such designation or make fresh orders for such redesignation on an area in consultation with the governor of the state concerned.
2. **Executive Power of State and Centre:** The executive power of a state extends to the scheduled areas therein. But the governor has a special responsibility regarding such areas. He has to submit a report to the president regarding the administration of such areas, annually or whenever so required by the president. The executive power of the Centre extends to giving directions to the states regarding the administration of such areas.
3. **Tribes Advisory Council:** Each state having scheduled areas has to establish a tribes advisory council to advise on welfare and advancement of the scheduled tribes. It is to consist of 20 members, three-fourths of whom are to be the representatives of the scheduled tribes in the state legislative assembly. A similar council can also be established in a state having scheduled tribes but not scheduled areas therein, if the president so directs.

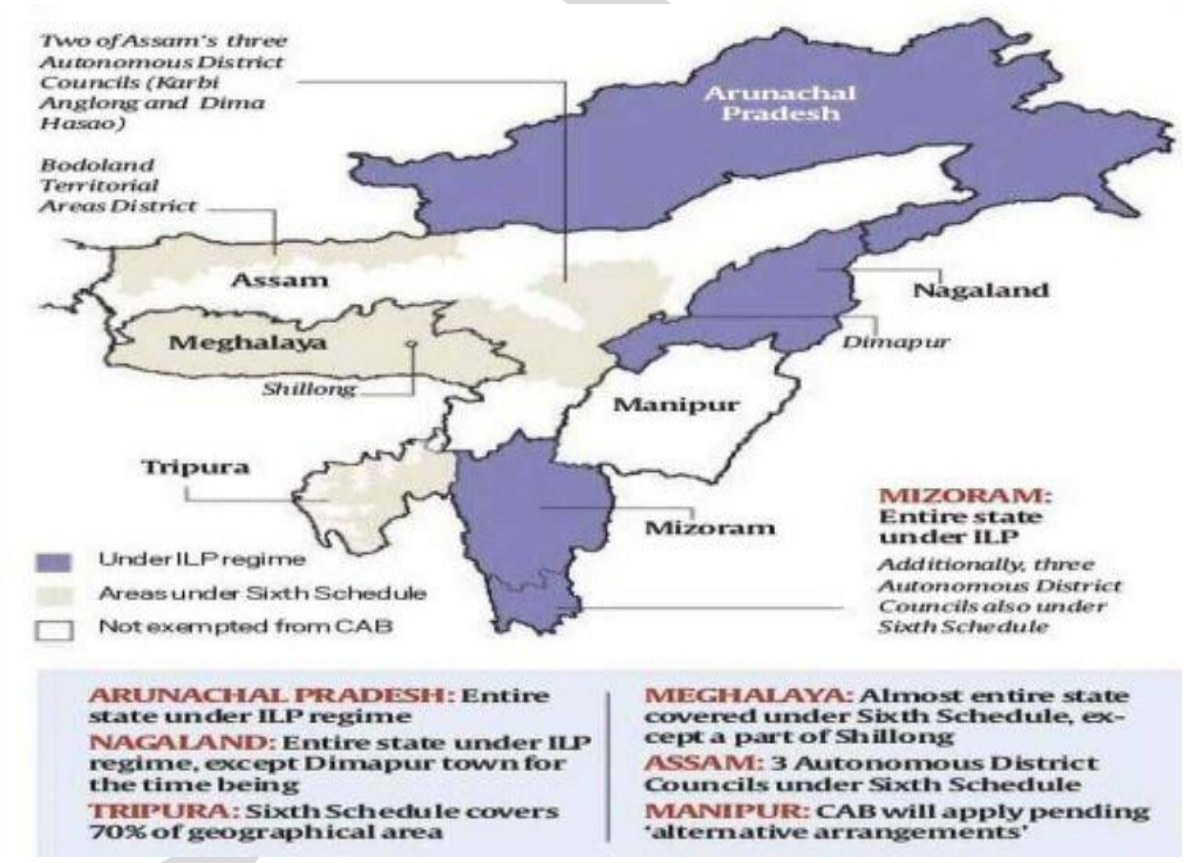
Tribal Areas

The various features of administration contained in the Sixth Schedule are as follows:

1. The tribal areas in the four states of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram have been constituted as autonomous districts. But, they do not fall outside the executive authority of the state concerned.
2. The governor is empowered to organise and re-organise the autonomous districts. Thus, he can increase or decrease their areas or change their names or define their boundaries and so on.
3. If there are different tribes in an autonomous district, the governor can divide the district into several autonomous regions.
4. Each autonomous district has a district council consisting of 30 members, of whom four are nominated by the governor and the remaining 26 are elected on the basis of adult franchise. The elected members hold office for a term of five years (unless the council is dissolved

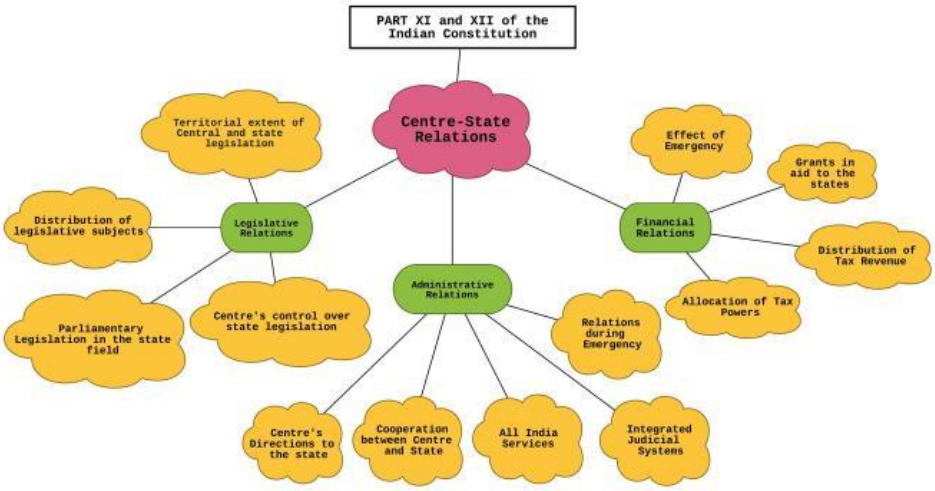
earlier) and nominated members hold office during the pleasure of the governor. Each autonomous region also has a separate regional council.





*Source: Law & Policy: Sixth Schedule areas

PART 11 OF COI- RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE UNION AND THE STATES



"The dual polity which is inherent in a federal system is followed in all federations by a dual service. In all federations, there is a Federal Civil Service and a State Civil Service. The Indian federation, though a dual polity, will have a dual service, but with one exception. It is recognised that in every country there are certain posts in its administrative set up which might be called strategic from the point of view of maintaining the standard of administration. There can be no doubt that the standard of administration depends upon the calibre of the civil servants who are appointed to the strategic posts. The Constitution provides that without depriving the states of their rights to form their own civil services, there shall be an all-India service, recruited on an all India basis with common qualifications, with uniform scale of pay and members of which alone could be appointed to those strategic posts throughout the Union".

Relations During Emergencies

(i) During the operation of a national emergency (under Article 352), the Centre becomes entitled to give executive directions to a state on 'any' matter. Thus, the state governments are brought under the complete control of the Centre, though they are not suspended.

(ii) When the President's Rule is imposed in a state (under Article 356), the President can assume to himself the functions of the state government and powers vested in the Governor or any other executive authority in the state.

PART 12 OF COI – FINANCE, PROPERTY, CONTRACTS AND SUITS

Financial Relations

Articles 268 to 293 in Part XII of the Constitution deal with Centre- state financial relations. Besides these, there are other provisions dealing with the same subject. These together can be studied under the following heads:

Allocation of Taxing Powers

The Constitution divides the taxing powers between the Centre and the states in the following way:

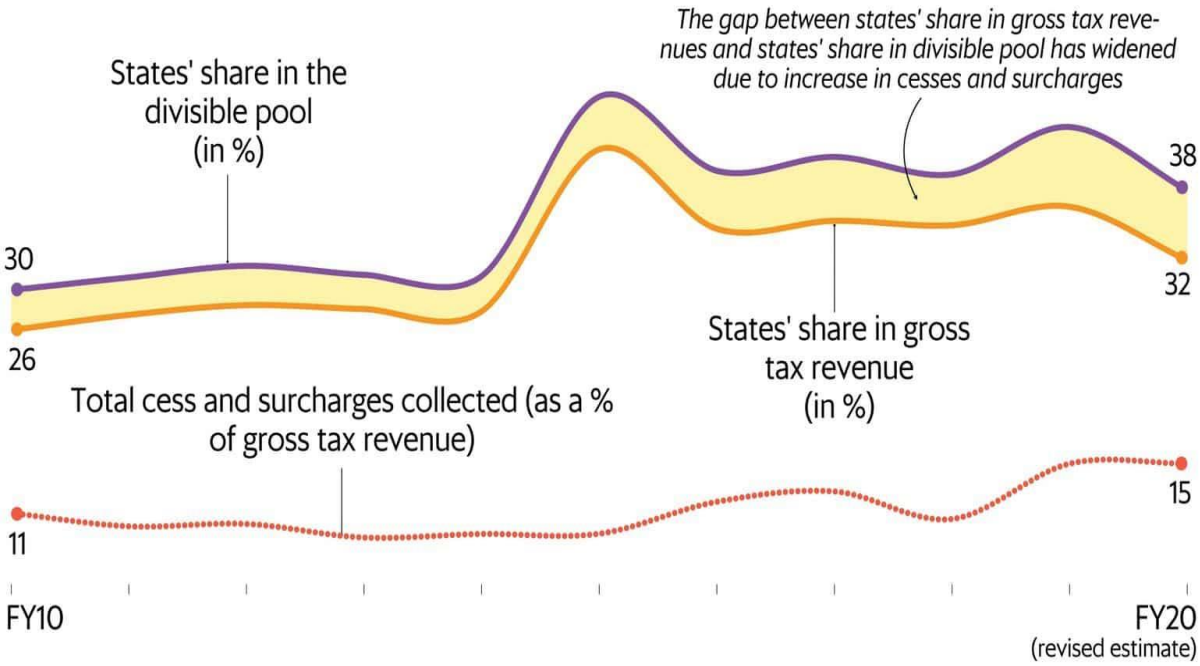
- The Parliament has exclusive power to levy taxes on subjects enumerated in the Union List (which are 13 in number12).
- The state legislature has exclusive power to levy taxes on subjects enumerated in the State List (which are 18 in number13).
- There are no tax entries in the Concurrent List. In other words, the concurrent jurisdiction is not available with respect to tax legislation. But, the 101st Amendment Act of 2016 has made an exception by making a special provision with respect to goods and services tax. This Amendment has conferred concurrent power upon Parliament and State Legislatures to make laws governing goods and services tax.
- The residuary power of taxation (that is, the power to impose taxes not enumerated in any of the three lists) is vested in the Parliament. Under this provision, the Parliament has imposed gift tax, wealth tax and expenditure tax.

The Constitution also draws a distinction between the power to levy and collect a tax and the power to appropriate the proceeds of the tax so levied and collected. For example, the income-tax is levied and collected by the Centre but its proceeds are distributed between the Centre and the states.

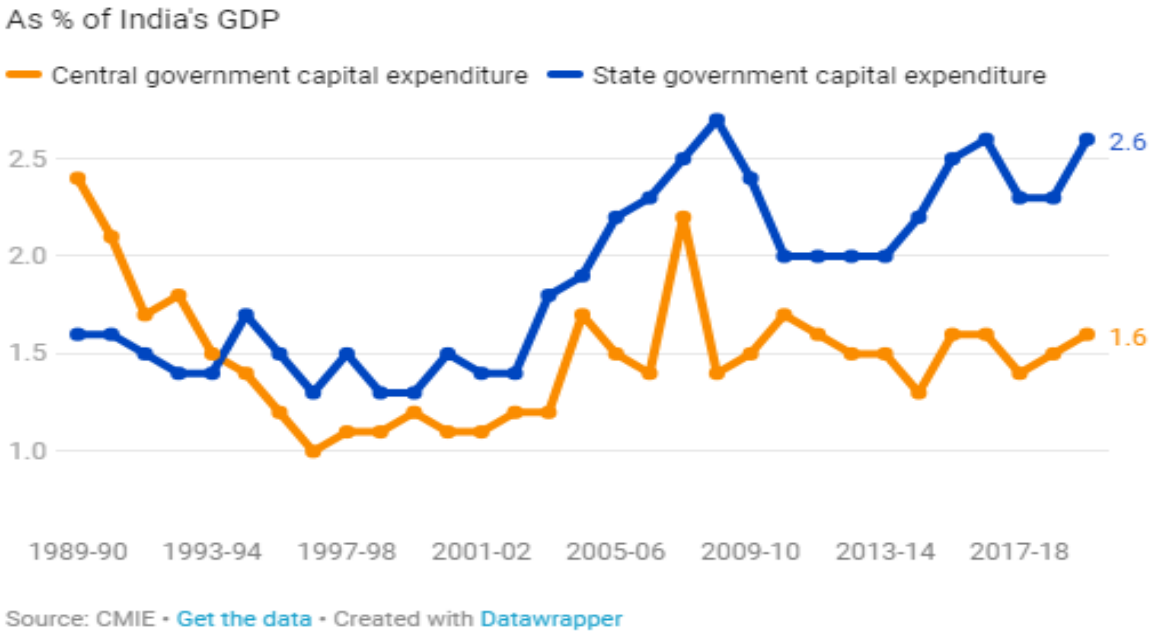
GRANTS-IN-AID TO THE STATES

Besides sharing of taxes between the Centre and the states, the Constitution provides for grants-in-aid to the states from the Central resources. There are two types of grants-in-aid, viz, statutory grants and discretionary grants:

States' share in gross tax revenue of the Centre is much lower than the recommended 42%



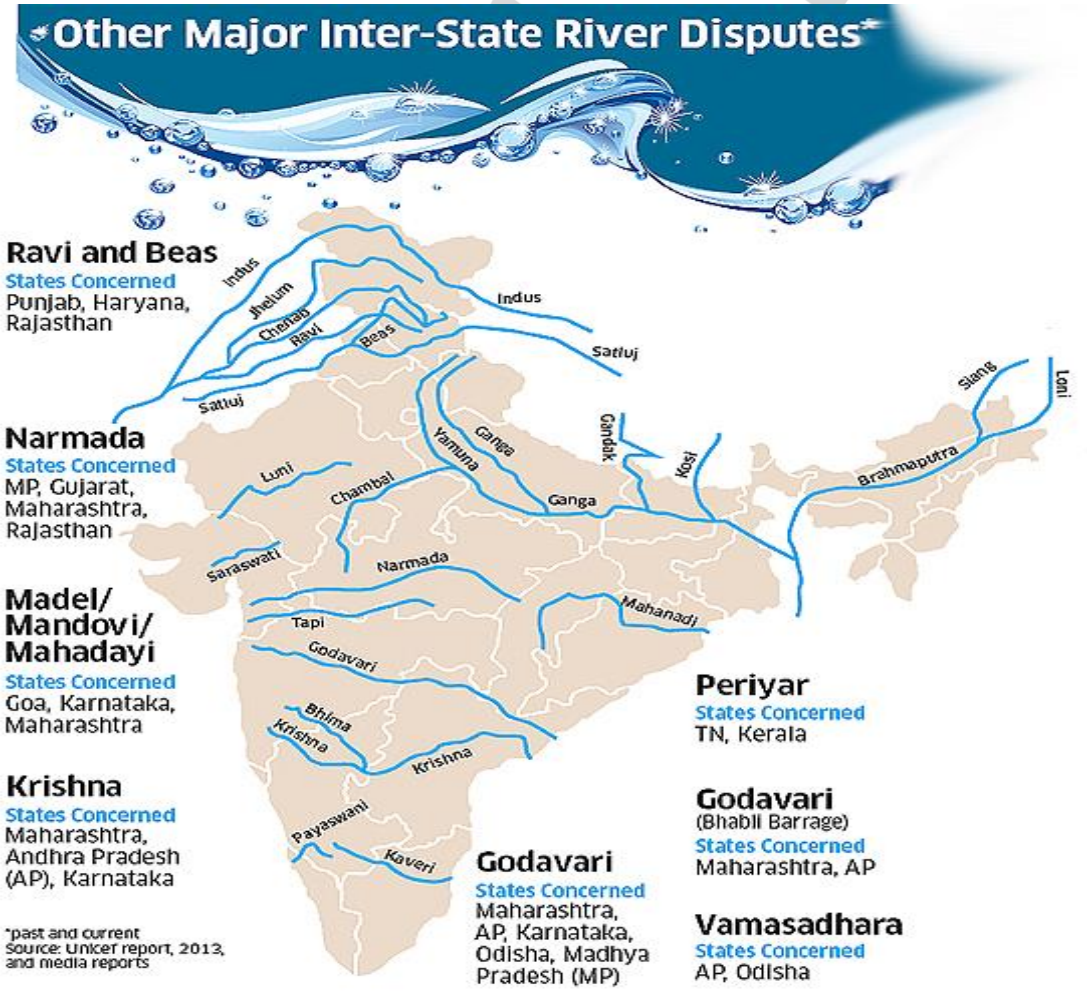
About two-thirds of capital spending in India is incurred by state governments

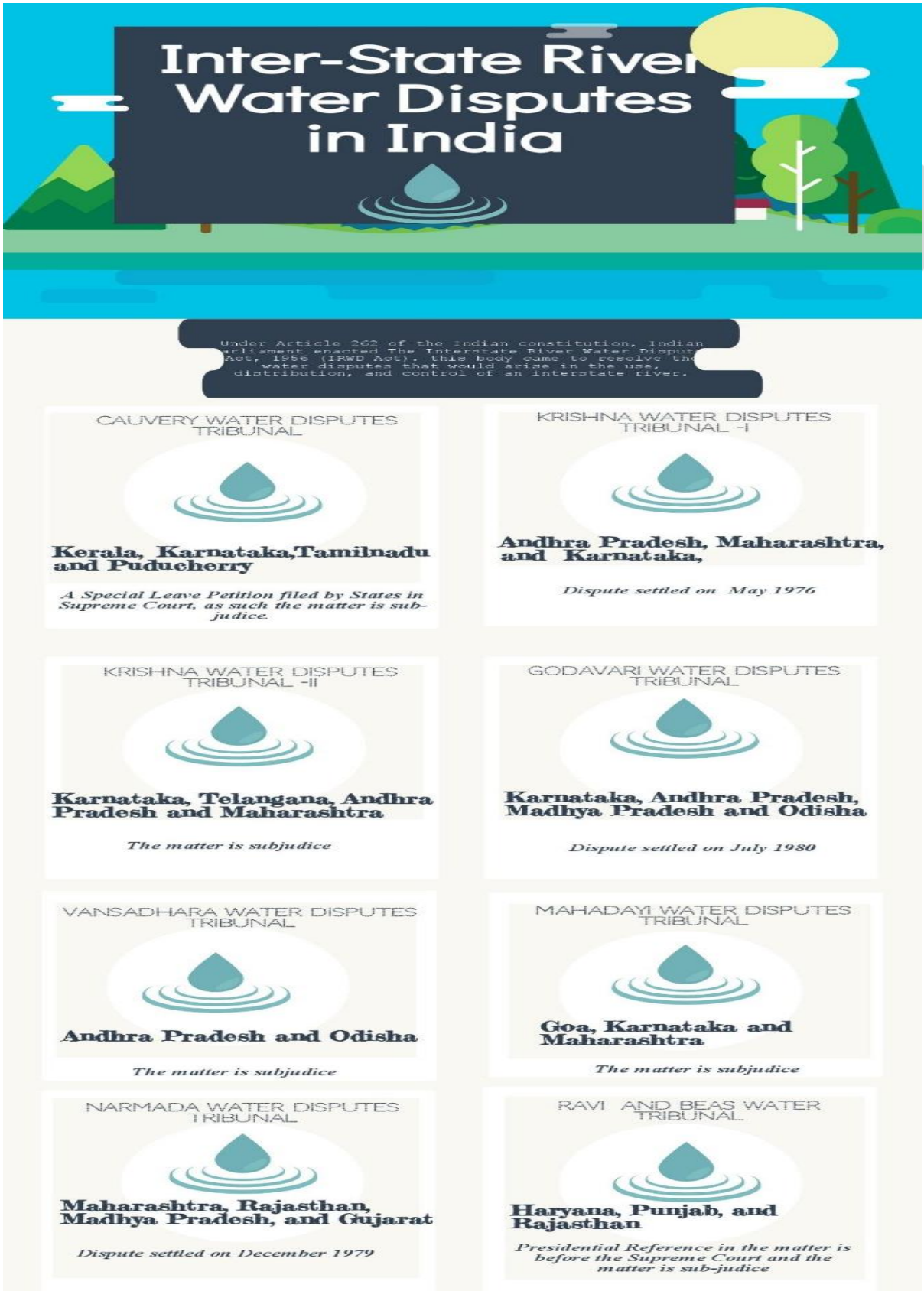


PART 13 OF COI- TRADE, COMMERCE AND INTERCOURSE WITHIN THE TERRITORY OF INDIA

The Inter-State Water Disputes Act empowers the Central government to set up an ad hoc tribunal for the adjudication of a dispute between two or more states in relation to the waters of an inter-state river or river valley. The decision of the tribunal would be final and binding on the parties to the dispute. Neither the Supreme Court nor any other court is to have jurisdiction in respect of any water dispute which may be referred to such a tribunal under this Act.

The need for an extra judicial machinery to settle inter-state water disputes is as follows: "The Supreme Court would indeed have jurisdiction to decide any dispute between states in connection with water supplies, if legal rights or interests are concerned; but the experience of most countries has shown that rules of law based upon the analogy of private proprietary interests in water do not afford a satisfactory basis for settling disputes between the states where the interests of the public at large in the proper use of water supplies are involved." So far (2019), the Central government has set up nine inter-state water dispute tribunals.




Inter-State River Water Disputes in India
Under Article 262 of the Indian constitution, Indian Parliament enacted The Interstate River Water Dispute Act, 1956 (IRWD Act), this body came to resolve the water disputes that would arise in the use, distribution, and control of an interstate river.
CAUVERY WATER DISPUTES TRIBUNAL
Kerala, Karnataka,Tamilnadu and Puducherry
A Special Leave Petition filed by States in Supreme Court, as such the matter is sub-judice.
KRISHNA WATER DISPUTES TRIBUNAL -I
Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, and Karnataka,
Dispute settled on May 1976
KRISHNA WATER DISPUTES TRIBUNAL -II
Karnataka, Telangana, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra
The matter is subjudice
GODAVARI WATER DISPUTES TRIBUNAL
Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Odisha
Dispute settled on July 1980
VANSADHARA WATER DISPUTES TRIBUNAL
Andhra Pradesh and Odisha
The matter is subjudice
MAHADAYI WATER DISPUTES TRIBUNAL
Goa, Karnataka and Maharashtra
The matter is subjudice
NARMADA WATER DISPUTES TRIBUNAL
Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, and Gujarat
Dispute settled on December 1979
RAVI AND BEAS WATER TRIBUNAL
Haryana, Punjab, and Rajasthan
Presidential Reference in the matter is before the Supreme Court and the matter is sub-judice

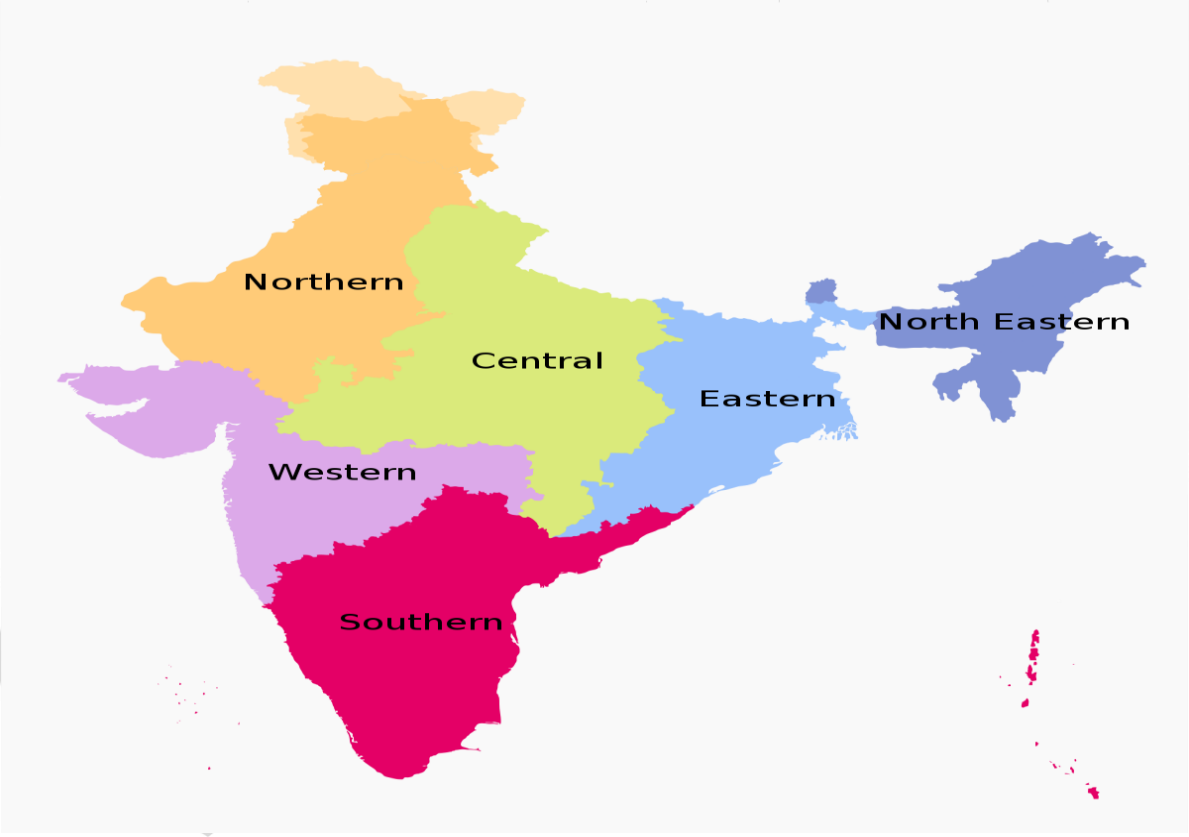
Public acts, records and Judicial proceedings

Under the Constitution, the jurisdiction of each state is confined to its own territory. Hence, it is possible that the acts and records of one state may not be recognised in another state. To remove any such difficulty, the Constitution contains the "Full Faith and Credit" clause which lays down the following:

(i) Full faith and credit is to be given throughout the territory of India to public acts, records and judicial proceedings of the Centre and every state. The expression 'public acts' includes both legislative and executive acts of the government. The expression 'public record' includes any official book, register or record made by a public servant in the discharge of his official duties.

(ii) The manner in which and the conditions under which such acts, records and proceedings are to be proved and their effect determined would be as provided by the laws of Parliament. This means that the general rule mentioned above is subject to the power of Parliament to lay down the mode of proof as well as the effect of such acts, records and proceedings of one state in another state.

(iii) Final judgements and orders of civil courts in any part of India are capable of execution anywhere within India (without the necessity of a fresh suit upon the judgement). The rule applies only to civil judgements and not to criminal judgements. In other words, it does not require the courts of a state to enforce the penal laws of another state.



STRUCTURE OF TRIBUNAL SYSTEM IN AUSTRALIA, FRANCE, UNITED KINGDOM, AND UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Australia	Tribunals in Australia deal with administrative and civil matters. Appeals against most tribunals lie with the Court of Appeal. The Court of Appeal is a division of the Supreme Court of Australia
France	France has a dual legal system which classifies courts into judicial courts (dealing with private law) and administrative courts (dealing with public/administrative law). France has a three-tier tribunal system within the category of administrative courts. The first tier is Tribunal Administratif (Administrative Court), which has jurisdiction covering all administrative matters. The appeals against Tribunal Administratif lie to Cour Administrative d'appeal (Administrative Court of appeal). The third tier is the Counseil d'Etat, which finally adjudicates on appeals against the first and second tier. The appellate courts do not have jurisdiction of judicial review over subordinate courts.
United Kingdom	United Kingdom has a two-tier tribunal system, which consists of: (i) a First Tier Tribunal, and (ii) an Upper Tribunal. The appeals against the First Tier Tribunal lie with the Upper Tribunal. Within the First Tier Tribunal there are several Chambers with jurisdiction over different subject matters. For example, the Tax Chamber has jurisdiction over matters related to: (i) direct and indirect taxation, and (ii) expenses of Members of Parliament.
United States of America	In the United States of America, tribunals are empowered to exercise only quasi-judicial functions related to administrative actions. The country's Constitution does not allow vesting judicial powers in a body which is not a court. The decisions of these administrative tribunals are subject to judicial review by courts having jurisdiction over them.

Parameter	Article 323 A	Article 323 B
Contemplation	contemplates establishment of tribunals for public service matters only	contemplates establishment of tribunals for certain other matters
Establishing authority	tribunals under Article 323 A can be established only by Parliament.	tribunals under Article 323 B can be established both by Parliament and state legislatures with respect to matters falling within their legislative competence
Hierarchy	There is no question of hierarchy of tribunals	a hierarchy of tribunals may be created

Various Doctrines

Doctrine of Pith and Substance

When the question before a court is the competence of a legislature to enact a law it must first find out to which list it relates. It may not be an easy task in many cases because every problem has many dimension and Entries may touch each other. The Bengal Money Lenders Act sought to give protection to debtors. To attain that objective it limited the amount recoverable by a money lender both by way of principal and interest. The Act effected Promissory notes which falls in the Union list. The Privy Council upheld the validity of the Act on the ground that in pith and substance the Act pertains to money lending. The Bombay Prohibition Act was impugned on the ground that it impliedly prohibited import of liquor. Import is a subject assigned to the Union. Hence the State was incompetent to enact the law. The argument was rejected by the Supreme Court holding that the Act was really and substantially an act the object of which was prohibition. The Court looks at the true character and nature of the Act having regard to the purpose of the Act, its object and scope and the effect of its provisions. The Doctrine of Pith and Substance identifies the List to which an impugned law may be ascribed.

Doctrine of Reading down

When a Legislature has used wide or vague words which may extend the operation of an Act to a subject outside the relevant Entry the Court interprets the wide terms giving them restricted meaning. This is called reading down. The Act with the meaning assigned remains intra vires. The courts avoid striking down an Act.

Doctrine of Occupied field

Even where there is no repugnancy between a Union law and a State law the Union law will not allow a State law to co-exist if the Parliament intended to occupy the whole field relating to the subject e.g. An Assam Act provided that a person may be appointed as a member of an Industrial Tribunal only in consultation with the High Court. Later Parliament made a law which stated only the qualifications and did not mention consultation with High Court. It was held the Central legislation was indeed to be an exhaustive code and no consultation was required. In Deepchand the Supreme Court held that the intention of Parliament while enacting the Motor Vehicles Amending Act, 1956 was to occupy the whole field of nationalization of motor transport. Hence that the U.R Act providing for nationalization of transport services could not co-exist

The intention to occupy the whole field should be clearly established. Where this intention can be inferred the Union law shall prevail

Part 17 of COI – OFFICIAL LANGUAGE

HINDI IS NOT INDIA'S NATIONAL LANGUAGE.
NEITHER IS IT LANGUAGE OF COMMUNICATION BETWEEN STATES & CENTRE.
BOTH HINDI AND ENGLISH ARE OFFICIAL LANGUAGES OF INDIA.

Part 17 of the constitution of India (Articles 343 to Article 351) makes elaborate provisions dealing with the official language of the Republic of India. The main provisions dealing with the official language of the Union are embodied in Articles 343 and 344 of the Constitution of India. The Official languages have been listed in the 8th schedule of Constitution of India.

Parliamentary Committee for Official Language

The Parliamentary Committee on Official Languages was established in 1976 under section 4 of the Official Languages Act, 1963.

Mandate:

- The Committee will review the progress made in the use of Hindi for the official purposes of the Union and submit a report to the President making recommendations.
- The President will then submit the report to each House of Parliament and forward it to all State Governments.

Composition:

- The Committee consists of 30 Members of Parliament, 20 from LokSabha and 10 from RajyaSabha.

Chairperson:

- The chairperson of the Committee is elected by the members of the Committee. As a meeting, the Minister of Internal Unions was elected as the Chairperson of the Committee from time to time.

Classical Language status

In 2004, the Government of India decided to create a new category of languages called "classical languages". In 2006, it laid down the criteria for conferring the classical language status.

Once a language is declared classical, it gets financial assistance for setting up a centre of excellence for the study of that language and also opens up an avenue for two major awards for scholars of eminence

The criteria for declaring a language as classical mandates high antiquity of its early texts/recorded history over a period of 1,500 – 2,000 years, a body of ancient literature/texts which is considered a valuable heritage by generations of speakers and a literary tradition that is original and not borrowed from another speech community.

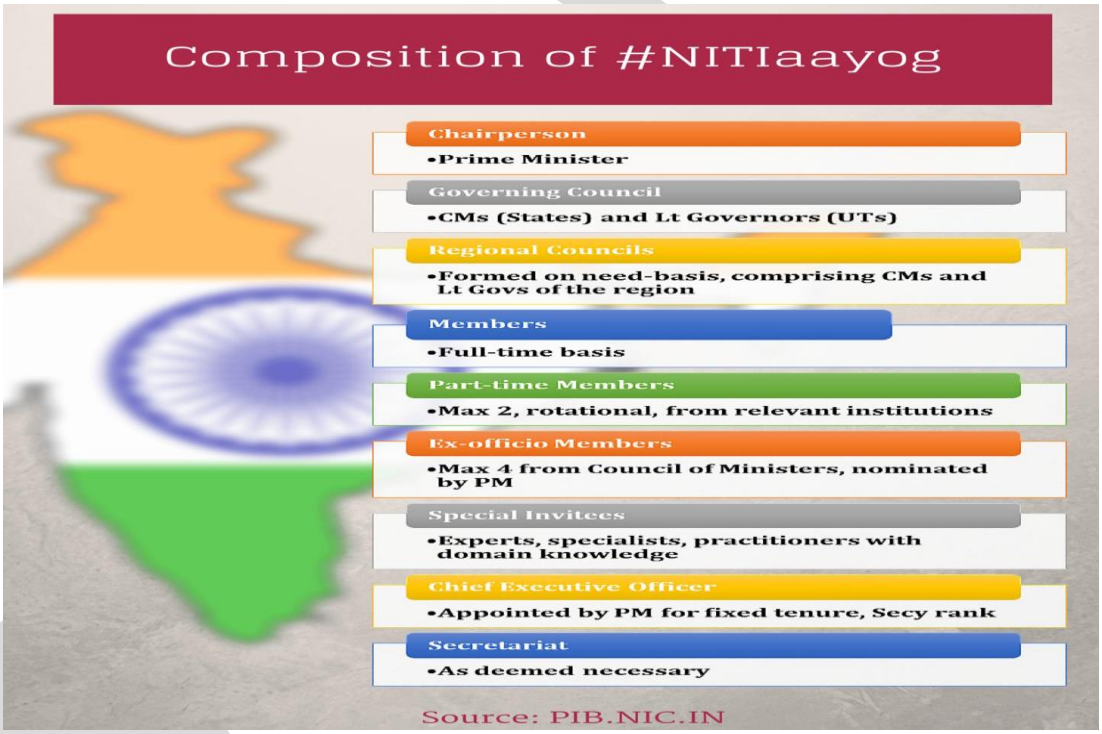
Also since the classical language and literature is distinct from the modern, there can also be a discontinuity between the classical language and its later forms or its offshoots.

So far (2019), the six languages are granted the classical language status

Year	Language
2004	Tamil
2005	Sanskrit
2008	Telugu
2008	Kannadda
2013	Malayalam
2014	Odia

Major Non-Constitutional bodies

NITI Aayog

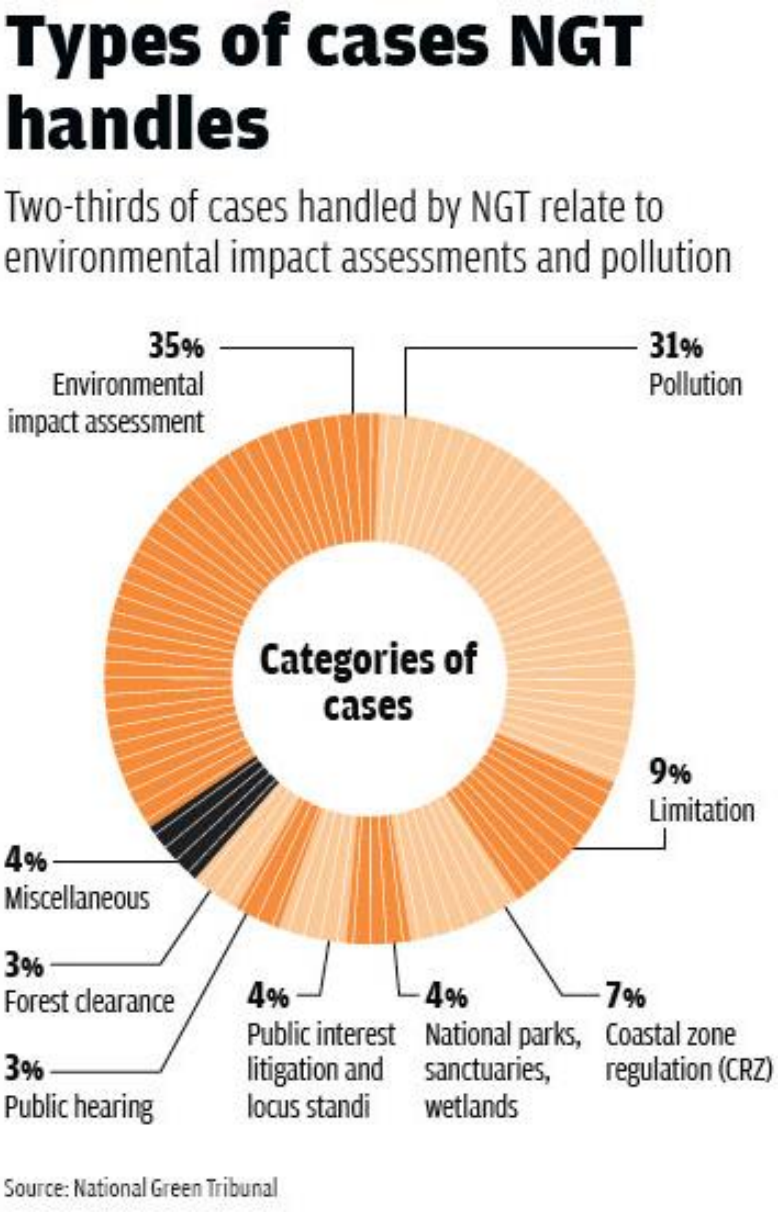


NGT

The National Green Tribunal has been established on 18.10.2010 under the National Green Tribunal Act 2010 for effective and expeditious disposal of cases relating to environmental protection and conservation of forests and other natural resources including enforcement of any

legal right relating to environment and giving relief and compensation for damages to persons and property and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto. It is a specialized body equipped with the necessary expertise to handle environmental disputes involving multi-disciplinary issues. The Tribunal shall not be bound by the procedure laid down under the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, but shall be guided by principles of natural justice.

The Tribunal's dedicated jurisdiction in environmental matters shall provide speedy environmental justice and help reduce the burden of litigation in the higher courts. The Tribunal is mandated to make and endeavour for disposal of applications or appeals finally within 6 months of filing of the same. Initially, the NGT is proposed to be set up at five places of sittings and will follow circuit procedure for making itself more accessible. New Delhi is the Principal Place of Sitting of the Tribunal and Bhopal, Pune, Kolkata and Chennai shall be the other place of sitting of the Tribunal.



National Green Tribunal Act, 2010 (NGT)is a federal legislation enacted by the Parliament of India, under India's constitutional provision of Article 21, which assures the citizens of India the right to a healthy environment. The tribunal itself is a special fast-track court to handle the expeditious disposal of the cases pertaining to environmental issues

COMPARISON OF INDIAN CONSTITUTIONAL SCHEME WITH OTHER COUNTRIES

The sources of Indian Constitution include the imaginative aspirations of the nationalist leaders, the actual working of the Government of India Act, 1935, and the experience gained from the actual working of some of the Constitutions of important countries of the world. Its sources thus include not only the sources upon which the founding fathers of our Constitution drew but also the developmental ones such as the judicial decisions, constitutional amendments, and constitutional practices and so on.

The following overview of the major constitutions of the world has been laid down below.

Constitution of India - An overview

The Indian Constitution is unique in its contents and spirit. Though borrowed from almost every constitution of the world, the constitution of India has several salient features that distinguish it from the constitutions of other countries. It should be noted at the outset that a number of original features of the Constitution (as adopted in 1949) have undergone a substantial change, on account of several amendments, particularly 7th, 42nd, 44th, 73rd and 74th Amendments. In fact, the 42nd Amendment Act (1976) is known as 'Mini-Constitution* due to the important and large number of changes made by it in various parts of the Constitution. However, in the Kesavananda Bharati easel (1973), the Supreme Court ruled that the constituent power of Parliament under Article 368 does not enable it to alter the 'basic structure' of the Constitution.

Impact of various Constitutions

Before getting on to comparison of Indian constitutional scheme with that of other countries, it is indespensible to sketch out the impact of various constitution on India and the subsequent features borrowed.

The founding fathers of the Indian Constitution were wise enough to borrow from the experience gained in the working of various other Constitutions, It is on this account that the Constitution of India is regarded as a bag of borrowing from the various working Constitutions:

BRITISH CONSTITUTION

The British Constitution had its impact in the following respects

(1) Constitutional head of State

(2) Lower House of Parliament (Lok Sabha) is more powerful than the Upper House;

(3) Responsibility of Council of Ministers towards Parliament;

(4) Parliamentary system of Government; and

(5) Prevalence of Rule of Law.

INDIAN AND SUPREME COURT AND AMERICAN SUPREME COURT COMPARED

INDIAN SUPREME COURT	AMERICAN SUPREME COURT
• Its original jurisdiction is confined to federal cases. • Its appellate jurisdiction covers constitutional, civil and criminal cases. • It has a very wide discretion to grant special leave to appeal in any matter against the judgement of any court or tribunal (except military). • It has advisory jurisdiction. • Its scope of judicial review is limited. • It defends rights of the citizen according to the 'procedure established by law'. • Its jurisdiction and powers can be enlarged by Parliament. • It has power of judicial superintendence and control over state high courts due to integrated judicial system. • An impeachment motion for the removal of a judge does not lapse on the dissolution of the Lok Sabha,	• Its original jurisdiction covers not only federal cases but also cases relating to naval forces, maritime activities, ambassadors, etc. • Its appellate jurisdiction is confined to constitutional cases only. • It has no such plenary power. • It has no advisory jurisdiction. • Its scope of judicial review is very wide. • It defends rights of the citizen according to the 'due process of law'. • Its jurisdiction and powers are limited to that conferred by the Constitution. • It has no such power due to double (separated) judicial system. • This means that the inter-government agreements (i.e., the agreements between states or between Centre and states) can exclude the original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in so far as the disputes arising out of them are concerned The Inter-State Water Disputes Act of 1956 has excluded the original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in disputes between states with respect to the use, distribution or control of the water of Inter-state River or river valley. • These include treaties, covenants, etc. between the Central Government and the formerly princely states during 1947 to 1950.

SALIENT FEATURES OF THE REPRESENTATION OF PEOPLE'S ACT

The Representation of People's Act is an Act to provide for the conduct of elections to -the Houses of Parliament and to the House or Houses of the Legislature of each State, The qualifications and disqualifications for membership of those 'Houses, the corrupt and illegal practices and other offences at or in connection with such elections and the decision of doubts and disputes arising out of or in connection with such elections.

Representation of the People Act is a short title for legislation enacted by the Parliament of the United Kingdom and the Parliament of India dealing with the electoral system.An Act to provide for the conduct of elections to the Houses of Parliament and to the House or Houses of the Legislature of each State, the qualifications and disqualifications for. membership of those Houses, the corrupt practices and other offences at or in connection with such elections and the decision of doubts and disputes arising out of or in connection with such elections. Under the Representation of the People Act, as it stood at the end of 1994, the power to decide an election petition is vested in the High Court, with appeal to the Supreme Court.

1. The Parliament has laid down the following additional qualifications in the Representation of People Act (1951).
2. He must be registered as an elector for a parliamentary constituency. This is same in the case of both, the Rajya Sabha and the Lok Sabha.
3. The requirement that a candidate contesting an election to the Rajya Sabha from a particular state should be an elector in that particular state was dispensed with in 2003.

Differences between RPA 1950 and RPA 1951

RPA, 1950	RPA, 1951
• The allocation of seats in, and the delimitation of constituencies for the purpose of election to the House of the People and the Legislatures of States; • The qualification of voters at such elections; • The methodology of preparation of electoral rolls; • The manner of filling seats in the Council of States.	• Methodology for the conduct of elections of the Houses of Parliament and to the House or Houses of the Legislature of each State; • The qualifications and disqualifications for membership of those Houses; • The corrupt practices and other offences at or in connection with such elections and; • The decision on doubts and disputes arising out of or in connection with elections

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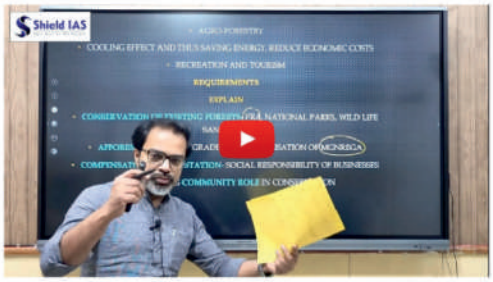

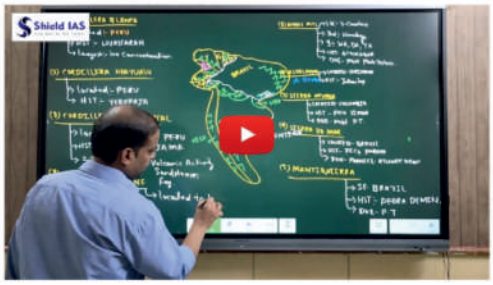
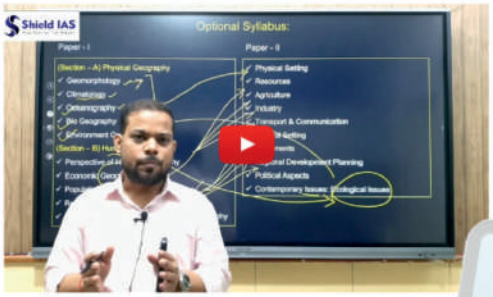

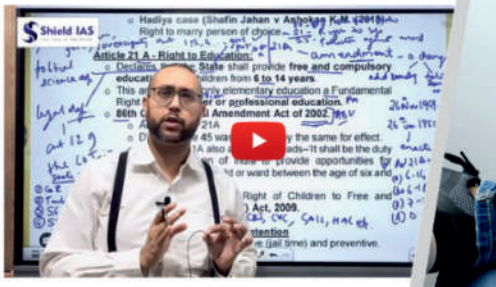

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