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## Local Government in Uzbekistan

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Published in: Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance

DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-31816-5 3665-1

2018

Document Version: Version created as part of publication process; publisher's layout; not normally made publicly available

#### Link to publication

Citation for published version (APA): Urinboyev, R. (2018). Local Government in Uzbekistan. In A. Farazmand (Ed.), Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-31816-5\_3665-1

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## 2 Local Government in

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#### 10 Synonyms

- 11 Decentralization in Uzbekistan; Local
- 12 government in Central Asia; Public administra-
- 13 tion in Uzbekistan; Subnational government in
- 14 Uzbekistan

#### 15 Introduction

Uzbekistan became an independent state in 1991 16 following the demise of the Soviet Union. 17 Coming on the heels of a global discourse on 18 good governance and decentralization, Uzbeki-19 stan embarked on the highly complex task of 20 reforming its public administration system. The 21 implementation of these reforms, however, pro-22 ved to be a daunting task, since the country had to 23 deal with its Soviet legacy and its internal power 24 structures and contradictions: weak state institu-25 tions, poorly developed national identities, and 26

entrenched subnational political networks (cf., 27 Ilkhamov 2004; Markowitz 2008; Melvin 2004). 28

Local government is one of the most problem- 29 atic areas in Uzbekistan where the failure of the 30 reform initiatives is quite evident. This chapter 31 delineates the processes involved and explores 32 the context, problems, quality, and trajectories of 33 local governance in Uzbekistan. More specifi- 34 cally, it addresses the following two questions: 35 (a) What are the responsibilities of local govern- 36 ments and do they carry them out in an adequate 37 and efficient manner? (b) How do local govern- 38 ments involve communities and their organiza- 39 tions in the governing process in terms of the 40 principles of good governance, such as transpar- 41 ency, accountability, rule of law, voice, democ- 42 racy, and accountability? In doing so, the paper 43 examines four conditions: contextual, structural, 44 institutional, and human resource. These condi- 45 tions are considered to be factors that can account 46 for the capacity of local governments in 47 Uzbekistan. 48

The rest of the chapter proceeds as follows: the 49 next section describes the internal structure of 50 local governments, which will be instructive in 51 understanding the conditions under which they 52 function in Uzbekistan. This is followed by the 53 presentation of a brief overview of the tasks 54 and service delivery responsibilities of local gov-55 ernments. The financial conditions and actual ser-56 vice delivery capacity of local governments are 57 then discussed. The section after that examines 58 the relations between the central and local 59

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60 government, followed by concluding remarks on

61 the main trends and challenges local governments

62 face. Suggestions on areas for governance reform

63 are also provided.

# 64 The Internal Structure of Local65 Governments

In Uzbekistan, the local government consists of 66 a local state administration (administrative body) 67 and an elected local council (legislative body) at 68 the regional (oblast) and district (raion) levels. 69 Representatives are appointed/elected for a period 70 of 5 years. The local administration represents 71 the executive and regulatory bodies of the state 72 at the regional, district, or city/town levels and 73 implements the policies of the president and cen-74 tral government in the provinces. All the heads of 75 the local state administrations are appointed by 76 the central government, subject to [symbolical] 77 approval by the corresponding local councils 78 (Bektemirov and Rahimov 2001). The president 79 appoints regional (oblast level) governors, who in 80 turn appoint district and city/town governors that 81 come under regional subordination. Thus, the dis-82 trict and city governors are accountable to the 83 regional governor, who in turn is accountable to 84 the president. This means that local governors 85 often experience double or even triple subordina-86 tion, being accountable to the regional governor, 87 the central government, and the president. 88

The local councils, running alongside the local 89 state administrations, are the primary local legis-90 lative bodies. The council representatives are 91 elected by the residents of the respective 92 administrative-territorial units through general 93 and direct vote (Bektemirov and Rahimov 94 2001). As elected bodies, the local councils are 95 expected to express and realize the will of the 96 citizens in their respective administrative-97 territorial units. At least in theory, local councils 98 can exert some influence over their administrative 99 bodies. However, this is not the case in practice 100 as the heads of the local state administrations 101 enjoy absolute power in the management of local 102 affairs (e.g., Popa and Munteanu 2001). Since all 103 the governors are appointed, the local councils 104

cannot exert significant influence on them. Even 105 though governors periodically report to their 106 local councils on the current situation of the territory, this process is mainly symbolic in nature 108 (Bektemirov and Rahimov 2001). This is because 109 the governors of the regional, city, or district state 110 administrations simultaneously exercise executive authority and serve as local council chairmen. 112 This means it is very difficult to distinguish 113 between the functions of the local state administration and the local self-government bodies, since 115 the same individual (i.e., the governor) heads both 116 branches of power. 117

In addition to the regional and district 118 state administrations, there are sub-district level 119 governance institutions - mahalla committees - in 120 towns and rural areas. Mahalla committees 121 were part of the state farms, collective farms, 122 and enterprises during the Soviet era, but 123 shortly after independence, Uzbek authorities 124 revamped these institutions, assigning them 125 new legal status as "local self-government 126 bodies of citizens" (Giffen et al. 2005). Mahalla 127 committees assist district/town administrations 128 in implementing local development projects, 129 collecting taxes, administering social welfare pro- 130 grams, maintaining and repairing roads, disposing 131 of waste, ensuring security and order, removing 132 garbage, maintaining playgrounds and sports 133 fields, and many other tasks that are of local 134 importance (Bektemirov and Rahimov 2001; 135 Urinboyev 2011). Regarding the financing and 136 autonomy of these sub-district self-government 137 institutions vis-a-vis the higher-level local state 138 administrations, they are fully dependent on 139 budget allocations from the latter and regularly 140 report to the head of the district or city/town 141 administrations. The chairmen and secretaries 142 of the mahalla committees are salaried state offi- 143 cials. This means that mahalla committees do not 144 have any real capacity to act as sites of local 145 democracy and participation but merely serve 146 as sub-district extensions of the local state 147 administrations. 148

However, it should be noted that some form 149 of informal autonomy can be observed at the 150 level of the informal/social mahalla. Hence, 151 there is a need to distinguish between the mahalla 152

committees (administrative mahalla) and the 153 informal mahallas (social mahalla). The Uzbek 154 people usually refer to the chairmen of the 155 mahalla committees as the "eyes and ears of the 156 local government" ("quloq" in the Uzbek lan-157 guage), given the fact that they serve the interests 158 of the local government. The leaders of the social 159 mahallas, on the other hand, are elected by 160 mahalla residents during informal gatherings in 161 mosques or teahouses (guzar). They work pro 162 bono for the community and represent the inter-163 ests of the mahalla people. The social mahallas 164 function informally and autonomously and can 165 thus be regarded as a genuine citizen self-166 government institution (Urinboyev 2014, 2018). 167 They offer a community-based alternative dispute 168 resolution mechanism and provide a space for 169 informal governance of everyday life and social 170 relations. The analysis of scholarly literature 171 shows that for many Uzbeks, social mahallas are 172 more legitimate and easily accessible than the 173 formal state institutions (Aminova and Jegers 174 2011; Masaru 2006; Sievers 2002; Urinboyev 175 2011, 2013a, b). 176

## 177 Tasks and Service Delivery178 Responsibilities of Local Governments

The tasks decentralized to local governments 179 in Uzbekistan include environmental protection, 180 prevention of natural and technological accidents, 181 fire protection, public sanitation, public order and 182 security, local economic and social development, 183 culture, tourism, sports, maintenance of leisure 184 facilities, communal services (e.g., water, gas, 185 electricity, heat, waste management, sewage, 186 engineering infrastructures), construction, main-187 tenance and local road repair, public transport, 188 employment and job creation support, and the 189 development of small and medium enterprises. 190

Almost all healthcare services are provided by the public authorities. The central government manages healthcare services through the regional, district, and city/town level healthcare offices of the Ministry of Health. Healthcare services are primarily financed by the central budget and administered by territorial structures of the respective ministry. The local government is 198 only responsible for the maintenance and renova-199 tion of healthcare institutions (Bektemirov and 200 Rahimov 2001). Schooling is the joint responsi-201 bility of the central and local government in the 202 sense that the local offices of the Ministry of 203 Education pay teachers' wages and oversee 204 administrative control; other expenditures such 205 as school maintenance are included in the local 206 government budget (Bektemirov and Rahimov 207 2001). 208

Unlike Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and 209 Tajikistan where local governments are responsi- 210 ble mainly for providing social assistance to 211 families, the mahalla committees 212 needy (administrative mahalla) in Uzbekistan are 213 responsible for the administration and targeting 214 of state social welfare benefits, such as child 215 and maternity benefits, and social assistance to 216 low-income families, families with children 217 under 16, and single mothers with children under 218 2 (Coudouel and Marnie 1999; Micklewright and 219 Marnie 2005). Funding for these programs is 220 established centrally as part of the consolidated 221 budget expenditures, which in turn are transferred 222 to the mahalla committees. The remaining social 223 protection programs (e.g., pensions, veterans of 224 the war benefits) are the responsibility of the dis- 225 trict/city level units of the Ministry of Labor and 226 Social Protection (Bektemirov and Rahimov 227 2001). 228

#### Financial Conditions and Actual Service 229 Delivery Capacity of Local Governments 230

One of the most important criteria used by the 231 citizens to assess the performance of local 232 governments is the quality and accessibility of 233 local public services (Popa and Munteanu 2001). 234 However, there are only a few studies with data on 235 citizens' satisfaction with local government 236 performance in Uzbekistan. This is because 237 Uzbekistan has long been a heavily authoritarian 238 and closed country, making it difficult for local 239 and foreign organizations and researchers to evaluate the performance and effectiveness of the 241 local government in the country. Neema Noori's 242

(2006) study of decentralization processes in 243 Uzbekistan is one of the few in this respect. 244 As Noori argues, decentralization has had a 245 negative impact on public service delivery in 246 Uzbekistan because it was not accompanied by 247 the corresponding resources and consequently 248 worsened the quality and accessibility of public 249 services. Hence, the central government has dele-250 gated numerous tasks and service delivery respon-251 sibilities to the local governments without 252 providing adequate funding (Kandiyoti 2007; 253 Noori 2006). One of the key challenges to 254 improve the performance of local governments 255 in Uzbekistan is to bridge the gap between 256 their economic and social functions and the 257 meagre financial means available for their 258 implementation. 259

The healthcare provision situation is also 260 problematic. In Uzbekistan, the healthcare system 261 is financed by the state, which means medical 262 services should be free of charge. However, 263 the healthcare system is de facto private and 264 highly reliant on informal forms of financing. 265 Most patients have to make informal payments 266 to medical professionals in order to receive proper 267 medical treatment, even though the public author-268 ities claim that citizens are entitled to free medical 269 care. Local governments do not have sufficient 270 271 resources to maintain adequately the healthcare infrastructures, the majority of which were built 272 during the Soviet period. 273

A similar situation can also be observed in the field of education. Due to their vulnerable financial situation, local governments do not have sufficient resources to maintain local schools and provide an adequate number of books or to build modern sports facilities. The parents usually cover these expenditures.

These problems can be largely explained by 281 the fact that the local governments in Uzbekistan 282 have limited financial autonomy and are strongly 283 dependent on the central government (Ergashev 284 et al. 2006; Sievers 2002; Urinboyev 2015). Local 285 budgets mainly consist of transfers from the cen-286 tral government and local tax revenues. Local 287 budget planning is centralized and closely tied to 288 the national budget. This implies that central gov-289 ernment bodies determined the revenue bases of 290

the local budgets. The local governments cannot 291 independently establish tax rates or collect their 292 own revenues through local taxes, with the excep- 293 tion of some insignificant local fees, taxes, and 294 duties, such as a land tax. National budget funds 295 are redistributed among different regions by 296 deducting budget surpluses from the regions that 297 perform well and making allocations in the form 298 of subventions, subsidies, or equalization trans- 299 fers to vulnerable regions that cannot cover their 300 needs. The revenues collected from local taxes 301 constitute a small portion of the local govern- 302 ments' revenues and are insufficient for covering 303 even the basic expenses. Hence, the ability of 304 local governments to raise their own revenues is 305 considerably limited, and they remain dependent 306 on transfers from the central government to fulfill 307 their service delivery functions. Consequently, 308 they neither enjoy fiscal autonomy nor do they 309 receive transfers from the central government that 310 are sufficient to meet their service delivery needs 311 (Leschenko and Troschke 2006). 312

Due to the incapacity of the local government 313 to address adequately the local needs, social 314 mahallas have evolved to respond to the declining 315 state capacity in the post-Soviet era, acting as a 316 pseudo-local government entity. This means that 317 people living in the same neighborhood (mahalla) 318 pool their efforts and engage in mutual aid prac- 319 tices by exchanging labor, money, material goods, 320 and services. Typical mutual aid practices include 321 the community financing of constructing irriga- 322 tion facilities, cleaning streets, asphalting roads, 323 building houses or mosques, organizing wed-324 dings, funerals and circumcision feasts, and 325 many other services not provided by the local 326 government. 327

## The Relations Between the Central and328Local Government329

The local government in Uzbekistan functions in a 330 rather complex environment characterized by an 331 authoritarian political culture, limited financial 332 autonomy, and weak local legislative bodies. 333 The power and functions between the central 334 state agencies and local governments are 335

ambiguously distributed, which largely derives 336 from the deficiencies in national laws that do 337 not clearly specify the functions and powers 338 across various tiers of the government. The central 339 government bodies make most of the administra-340 tive decisions concerning district and regional 341 public service delivery issues. In these bodies, a 342 hierarchy of power starts at the ministry, followed 343 by the ministry's main regional departments, and 344 followed by the district or city units. Ministries 345 control the daily activities of their territorial 346 agencies and directly appoint their heads, in 347 coordination with the governor, which implies 348 that the territorial units of the ministries are 349 accountable to their central bodies and thereby 350 rarely coordinate with local governments. 351

Local councils, despite having official status 352 as local legislative bodies, are in practice subordi-353 nated to the local state administrations. Hence, 354 institutions of self-governance fulfill completely 355 different functions and aims than the officially 356 declared ones. This means that there is very 357 little or no understanding of the true essence 358 of local government reform in the country. As 359 Abdukhalilov (2007) notes, in Uzbekistan, 360 administrative reforms are often understood as a 361 cutback in staff or an attempt to save money. More 362 importantly, administrative reforms do not con-363 tain a single paragraph about the necessity to 364 change the hierarchical norms and mentality of 365 the managers. 366

Accordingly, Uzbekistan's public administra-367 system can hardly be regarded tion 368 as "decentralized" given that local governments are 369 highly dependent on the central government at 370 all levels - administratively, financially, and polit-371 ically. Overdependence on the central government 372 limits the ability of local governments to support 373 local development. The malfunctioning local 374 governments are mainly the outcome of a central-375 ized government that does not delegate any real 376 autonomy to local administrations (Bektemirov 377 and Rahimov 2001). Under these circumstances 378 political and civil servants at all levels do not feel 379 any accountability to the citizens; rather, they try 380 to meet the expectations of those who have the 381 power and authority to hire them. Public partici-382 pation in local politics is almost nonexistent, and 383

local elections are merely used to assert and legitimize the central government's influence in the periphery. Openness and transparency are not viewed as a norm in the day-to-day operations of the local administrations. Local government officials care less about informing people about their work or listening to their opinions on the level and quality of public services. They are chiefly oncerned with fulfilling the orders and expectations of the central government.

#### Concluding Remarks

As shown in the previous sections, the relation- 395 ship between the local state administrations and 396 the central government is often based on subordi- 397 nate relations rather than on mutual cooperation. 398 Local government reform is interpreted merely 399 in terms of citizens' active participation in local 400 government, but other key conditions for local 401 self-government (i.e., autonomy of local self- 402 government structures from the state) are largely 403 neglected (Ilkhamov 2004; Urinboyev 2015). As 404 the results demonstrate, the core challenge hinder- 405 ing local government reform in Uzbekistan comes 406 from the persistence of authoritarian style admin- 407 istrative practices. Although there have been some 408 local government reform initiatives in the country, 409 they remain "on paper" and have little or no effect 410 on the governance processes. In practice, the local 411 governments continue to be subordinated to the 412 central government in all public policy issues, be 413 it education, taxation, health care, welfare, or 414 agriculture. As a result, the local governments do 415 not have any real capacity to adequately address 416 the needs and concerns of citizens, as they are 417 merely concerned with implementing centrally 418 designed policies. 419

Another area of concern is financial autonomy. 420 Since the local governments do not have a solid 421 financial base and the important public policy 422 decisions are made at the central government 423 level, there is little or no possibility at the local 424 level for citizens to voice their concerns about 425 public goods and services. One visible conse- 426 quence is the emergence of citizens' alternatives: 427 informal coping strategies that are based on 428

394

- 429 mutual aid practices. These alternative strategies
- are short-term solutions that have little to do with
- 431 local development issues and negatively influence
- 432 the image and legitimacy of the central govern-
- 433 ment. It is thus suggested that local government
- 434 reform should go beyond official proclamations
- and rhetoric and grant more political and financial
- 436 autonomy in practice.

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