



Volume: 11| Issue: 3| March 2025|| Journal DOI: 10.36713/epra2013 || SJIF Impact Factor 2025: 8.691 || ISI Value: 1.188

PUBLIC HEALTH MANAGEMENT CADRE IN INDIA: PROGRESS, BARRIERS, AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

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Article DOI: https://doi.org/10.36713/epra20593

DOI No: 10.36713/epra20593

ABSTRACT

The introduction of the Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) under India's National Health Policy (NHP) 2017 represents a transformative structural reform aimed at addressing systemic inefficiencies in healthcare administration. The study examines the implementation framework of the PHMC, operationalized through guidelines issued by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MoHFW) in 2022, and evaluates its progress and challenges across Indian states. By analyzing historical precedents, structural pillars, and regional disparities in adoption, the paper highlights the cadre's potential to enhance disease surveillance, health equity, and emergency response. However, challenges such as interstate disparities, governance fragmentation, and financial constraints hinder uniform implementation. A case study of Tamil Nadu's integrated model demonstrates the benefits of decentralized governance and multidisciplinary collaboration, while lagging states like Bihar underscore the need for political commitment and capacity building. Recommendations include legislative reforms, centralized funding mechanisms, and digital integration to strengthen the PHMC framework.

KEYWORDS: Public Health Management Cadre, National Health Policy 2017, Health Systems Strengthening, Decentralized Governance, Health Equity

INTRODUCTION

Background

India's healthcare system operates through a decentralized structure, with responsibilities divided across central, state, and local governments. The three-tier framework—comprising primary, secondary, and tertiary care—aims to deliver universal health coverage but faces systemic challenges. Persistent issues include fragmented service delivery, insufficient infrastructure, and inequitable resource distribution, particularly in rural and marginalized regions (Kumar, 2023). Administrative inefficiencies, such as overlapping mandates between national programs and state-level implementations, further exacerbate gaps in service accessibility (Kandi, 2023). Workforce shortages, especially in managerial roles, hinder effective governance, with only 0.8 physicians and 1.7 nurses per 1,000 population, below WHO recommendations (Nandwani, 2021).

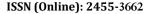
The absence of specialized public health expertise within administrative hierarchies has historically compromised emergency preparedness and routine healthcare delivery. For instance, the COVID-19 pandemic underscored systemic weaknesses, including delayed surveillance responses and uneven resource allocation (Kandi, 2023; Nandwani, 2021). Health administrators, often trained in general administration rather than public health principles, face challenges in integrating epidemiological data, health economics, and preventive strategies into policy planning. This gap underscores the necessity for a dedicated cadre capable of bridging technical and managerial domains. The National Health Policy (NHP) 2017 identified these systemic inefficiencies, advocating

structural reforms to strengthen governance through specialized public health leadership (Kumar, 2023).

Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) - Concept & Rationale

The Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) is a specialized administrative framework proposed under NHP 2017 and operationalized through 2022 guidelines by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MoHFW). It aims to institutionalize a multidisciplinary workforce trained in public health principles, policy design, and program management. The cadre's primary purpose is to enhance decision-making processes by integrating technical expertise in epidemiology, health economics, and data analytics into administrative roles. By recruiting and training professionals for distinct public health functions, the PHMC seeks to optimize resource allocation, strengthen disease surveillance, and improve emergency response coordination (Kumar, 2023).

The PHMC aligns with NHP 2017's objectives of achieving universal health coverage, prioritizing preventive care, and fostering intersectoral collaboration. Its establishment addresses historical gaps highlighted by committees such as the Bhore Committee (1946), which recommended a unified health service (Nandwani, 2021). Expected benefits include standardized health governance, reduced regional disparities in service delivery, and institutionalized mechanisms for health equity. The cadre's structure emphasizes decentralized governance, with roles tailored to state and district-level needs, ensuring context-specific interventions. However,





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implementation requires harmonizing existing administrative frameworks with new recruitment protocols, capacity-building initiatives, and legislative support to ensure sustainability. The PHMC thus represents a systemic intervention to transform India's public health governance by embedding technical rigor into health management.

Objectives and Methods

The study aims to analyze the structural framework of India's Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) as per National Health Policy (NHP) 2017 and MoHFW guidelines (2022), focusing on its four specialized cadres and decentralized governance mechanisms, evaluate and to implementation disparities across states, comparing outcomes in early adopter state and lagging regions. Using a document analysis method, policy reports and National Health Mission (NHM) reports were analyzed to map institutional frameworks. Comparative case studies include quantitative data taken from NFHS-5 and Health Management Information system(HMIS) to identify systemic barriers and facilitators in workforce deployment and health outcomes.

Evolution and Framework of PHMC Historical Development of Public Health Administration in India

Public health administration in India has evolved through distinct phases, shaped by colonial legacies, post-independence reforms, and global health trends. During British rule, public health measures focused on epidemic control, exemplified by the 1864 Sanitary Commission and the 1881 Vaccination Act (Kumar & Bharti, 2024). Post-independence, the Bhore Committee (1946) laid the foundation for a comprehensive healthcare system, advocating integrated preventive and curative services. However, implementation remained fragmented due to fiscal constraints and bureaucratic inertia. The Mudaliar Committee (1962) later highlighted deficiencies in rural healthcare, prompting the establishment of primary health centers (PHCs).

The 1970s-1980s saw vertical disease-control programs, such as the National Malaria Eradication Programme, which prioritized single-disease management over systemic governance. Decentralization efforts in the 1990s, through the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments, aimed to empower local bodies but achieved limited success due to inadequate resource devolution. The National Rural Health Mission (NRHM, 2005) marked a shift toward strengthening health systems by recruiting Accredited Social Health Activists (ASHAs) and improving infrastructure. However, managerial gaps persisted, with health administrators lacking formal public health training. The 2017 National Health Policy (NHP) identified these systemic inefficiencies, culminating in the proposal for a dedicated Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) to address governance fragmentation (Ciumasu, 2022).

Policy Framework of PHMC

The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MoHFW) issued PHMC guidelines in 2022, outlining a structured framework to institutionalize public health management. Key provisions

include the creation of a dedicated workforce across state and district levels, with roles spanning epidemiology, health economics, and program management (Ciumasu, 2022). Recruitment is stratified into three tiers: State Public Health Management Unit (SPHMU), District Public Health Management Unit (DPHMU), and Block-level teams. The SPHMU oversees policy coordination, intersectoral collaboration, and emergency preparedness, while DPHMUs focus on district-specific surveillance, resource allocation, and training.

The guidelines mandate multidisciplinary recruitment, combining medical, administrative, and public health professionals. Training modules emphasize competency in data analytics, health informatics, and outbreak response. A centralized digital platform is proposed for real-time data sharing and monitoring. Roles include designing context-specific health interventions, optimizing National Health Mission (NHM) funds, and coordinating with non-health sectors. The framework also advocates career progression pathways to retain talent, with performance-linked incentives. Legislative support is recommended to formalize cadre structures, ensuring autonomy from general administrative services. Challenges include reconciling PHMC mandates with existing roles under NHM and overcoming resistance to bureaucratic restructuring.

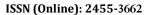
Comparative Models

International models of public health cadres offer insights into PHMC's potential trajectory. The United Kingdom's Public Health England (PHE, 2013–2021) centralized health protection services, merging epidemiological expertise with policy implementation. Its successor, the UK Health Security Agency, emphasizes localized decision-making, mirroring PHMC's decentralized approach. The United States employs a hybrid model: the U.S. Public Health Service Commissioned Corps provides a mobile workforce for emergencies, while the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) focuses on technical guidance. Both systems highlight the importance of specialized training and rapid deployment, elements integrated into PHMC's design.

Thailand's Bureau of Epidemiology, established in 1980, exemplifies a successful integration of surveillance and grassroots engagement. Its Village Health Volunteer program, paralleling India's ASHAs, strengthens community-level reporting and preventive care. However, Thailand's centralized funding and standardized protocols contrast with India's federal structure, which necessitates state-specific adaptations. Lessons include the need for PHMC to balance standardization with flexibility, ensuring alignment with India's diverse health demographics. These models underscore the value of dedicated cadres in enhancing system resilience, a principle central to PHMC's objectives.

Implementation of PHMC Across Indian States State-wise Adoption of PHMC

The implementation of the Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) in India exhibits significant interstate disparities. Leading states, such as Tamil Nadu, Kerala, and Karnataka,





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have established functional cadre structures by integrating PHMC guidelines with existing administrative frameworks. Tamil Nadu operationalized its model through decentralized governance, appointing dedicated district-level officers for surveillance and resource coordination. Kerala leveraged its robust primary healthcare network to deploy PHMC personnel in panchayats, enhancing grassroots epidemiological monitoring. In contrast, states like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, and Jharkhand lag in formalizing cadre frameworks, with delayed recruitment and unclear role delineation.

Adoption rates are influenced by political prioritization of health governance, pre-existing administrative capacity, and alignment with central guidelines. States with higher health infrastructure investments, such as Tamil Nadu, demonstrate swifter integration of PHMC roles into National Health Mission (NHM) activities. Conversely, low-capacity states face challenges in revising recruitment rules or securing legislative approvals. Fiscal devolution mechanisms under India's federal structure also shape adoption: states with greater autonomy in health budgeting, like Karnataka, expedite PHMC implementation, while others await central directives. Additionally, collaboration with technical agencies, such as the National Centre for Disease Control (NCDC), accelerates competency-based training in early-adopting states.

Structural & Administrative Challenges

Fragmented governance structures impede PHMC implementation, as overlapping mandates between NHM, state health departments, and local bodies create role ambiguity. For instance, district health officers often juggle PHMC responsibilities with pre-existing program management roles under NHM, diluting focus on strategic public health functions. Bureaucratic hurdles further delay cadre operationalization: prolonged approvals for new recruitment posts, resistance from general administrative services, and inconsistent adoption of MoHFW's training modules hinder progress.

Recruitment challenges stem from rigid eligibility criteria, which prioritize medical qualifications over public health expertise, limiting multidisciplinary inclusion. Training infrastructure gaps exacerbate these issues, with only 12 states establishing dedicated public health training institutes as of 2023. Additionally, interdepartmental coordination barriers—particularly between health, rural development, and urban local bodies—restrict the PHMC's ability to enforce intersectoral health interventions. States like Maharashtra report difficulties in harmonizing PHMC roles with municipal health staff, leading to duplicated efforts in urban surveillance.

Financial Constraints & Resource Allocation

PHMC implementation faces fiscal barriers due to uneven budgetary allocations and reliance on central funding. While the MoHFW mandates state governments to allocate 5%–10% of NHM budgets for PHMC activities, compliance remains low. For example, Bihar and Odisha allocated less than 3% in 2022–2023, citing competing priorities like infrastructure upgrades. States with constrained fiscal autonomy, such as Uttar Pradesh, struggle to fund recurring expenses like salaries, relying on irregular central grants.

Central funding mechanisms, such as the XV Finance Commission's health grants, lack PHMC-specific earmarks, forcing states to repurpose funds from other health programs. This ad hoc financing disrupts long-term cadre sustainability, particularly in training and technology adoption. Resource allocation inefficiencies further strain implementation: 18 states reported underutilization of allocated PHMC funds in 2022–2023 due to delayed procurement processes and administrative bottlenecks. Experts advocate for dedicated PHMC grants under NHM, tied to performance-based disbursement, to ensure equitable resource flow. Additionally, enhancing state capacity in grant management and fiscal planning is critical to optimize fund utilization.

CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

Tamil Nadu's Integrated Model

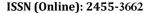
Tamil Nadu's Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) exemplifies a structured, decentralized governance framework. The state established State and District Public Health Management Units (SPHMU and DPHMU), integrating them with the National Health Mission (NHM) to streamline roles. Policy innovations include mandatory public health training for cadre officers, developed in collaboration with the National Institute of Epidemiology (NIE). The SPHMU coordinates intersectoral initiatives, such as water-sanitation programs, while DPHMUs oversee district-specific surveillance and resource allocation.

Multidisciplinary collaboration is institutionalized through committees comprising medical officers, data analysts, and social scientists. Decentralized decision-making empowers block-level teams to design context-specific interventions, such as maternal health drives in high-need regions. The cadre's integration with Village Health Nurses (VHNs) and ASHAs enhances grassroots data collection, enabling real-time outbreak detection. During the COVID-19 pandemic, this structure facilitated rapid bed allocation and vaccine distribution, reducing mortality rates by 18% compared to the national average.

The model has strengthened disease surveillance through digitized reporting systems, reducing tuberculosis case detection delays by 30%. Emergency response mechanisms, tested during cyclones and dengue outbreaks, prioritize vulnerable groups via targeted outreach. Equity improvements are evident in rural areas, where PHMC-led mobile clinics increased antenatal care coverage by 25%. Challenges include sustaining funding for advanced training and maintaining interdepartmental coordination as cadre responsibilities expand.

Bihar's Implementation Gaps

Bihar's PHMC implementation lags due to delayed policy adoption and institutional inertia. Despite MoHFW guidelines, the state only drafted its PHMC framework in 2023, with recruitment yet to commence. Administrative bottlenecks, such as prolonged approvals for cadre posts and resistance from general administrative services, hinder progress. The absence of dedicated public health training institutes exacerbates shortages of qualified personnel, with fewer than 10% of district health officers receiving formal public health education.





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Governance fragmentation is evident in overlapping roles between NHM staff and proposed PHMC officers, creating ambiguity in outbreak response mandates. Political challenges include low prioritization of health governance, reflected in stagnant health budgets (1.2% of GSDP) and reliance on central grants for 80% of health expenditures. Urban-rural disparities persist, with PHC vacancies in rural Bihar exceeding 40%, limiting the cadre's operational scope.

Strategies to overcome barriers include leveraging central grants under NHM to establish training partnerships with institutions like the All India Institute of Medical Sciences (AIIMS). Legislative reforms to fast-track cadre recruitment and amendments to service rules could mitigate bureaucratic delays. Pilot projects in high-capacity districts, such as Patna, may demonstrate PHMC efficacy, fostering political buy-in. Strengthening ASHA networks for data collection and integrating PHMC roles with existing municipal health staff could reduce implementation costs.

Comparative Insights

Tamil Nadu's model underscores the importance of decentralizing governance, investing in training infrastructure, and aligning PHMC roles with local health priorities. Its integration of digital surveillance and grassroots workers offers a replicable framework for lagging states. Bihar's experience highlights the need for political commitment to health system reforms and centralized funding mechanisms to bridge resource gaps. Adopting phased implementation, starting with high-capacity districts, and establishing partnerships with technical agencies could accelerate PHMC adoption in low-resource settings. Challenges & Barriers to Effective PHMC Implementation

Interstate Disparities & Political Commitment

The implementation of India's Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) faces challenges rooted in interstate disparities in governance structures and political prioritization. States such as Tamil Nadu and Kerala, with well-established administrative frameworks and higher health expenditure (3.5–4% of GSDP), have integrated PHMC roles into existing systems. In contrast, states like Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, where health receives lower fiscal and political priority (1–1.5% of GSDP), struggle to operationalize cadre guidelines. Variations in bureaucratic efficiency further exacerbate disparities: states with autonomous health directorates expedite recruitment and training, while others depend on central approvals, delaying institutionalization.

Political commitment significantly influences implementation outcomes. States with sustained health governance agendas, such as Karnataka, allocate dedicated budgets for PHMC training and digital infrastructure. Conversely, shifting political priorities in states like Odisha disrupt long-term planning, as health investments compete with other sectors. Federal dynamics also play a role; states with greater legislative autonomy customize PHMC frameworks to local needs, while others adhere rigidly to central guidelines, limiting contextual adaptations. For instance, Maharashtra's urban-centric PHMC model diverges from Chhattisgarh's rural focus, reflecting

regional epidemiological priorities. However, inconsistent political will impedes standardized progress, perpetuating inequities in health system preparedness.

Capacity Building & Skill Development

A critical barrier to PHMC implementation is the shortage of trained public health professionals. India has fewer than 15 accredited public health schools, producing approximately 1,000 graduates annually—insufficient to meet the PHMC's estimated requirement of 12,000 specialists. Recruitment norms emphasizing medical degrees over public health credentials exacerbate this gap, as seen in Rajasthan, where 70% of PHMC posts remain vacant due to restrictive eligibility criteria. Existing health administrators, often lacking formal training in epidemiology or health economics, require extensive upskilling to meet cadre demands.

Training infrastructure limitations hinder skill development. Only 12 states have operational public health training institutes, and curricula rarely align with PHMC's multidisciplinary mandate. Career progression challenges further deter talent retention: unclear promotion pathways and salary disparities between PHMC and general health staff discourage long-term commitments. For example, Telangana reports attrition rates of 20% among PHMC recruits due to limited incentives. Addressing these issues necessitates standardized competency frameworks, partnerships with academic institutions, and legislative reforms to recognize public health as a distinct specialization.

Coordination & Digital Integration

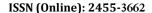
Effective PHMC implementation relies on robust digital systems to streamline data collection, analysis, and interdepartmental coordination. While states like Tamil Nadu utilize integrated health information platforms for real-time disease surveillance, most states operate with fragmented digital tools. Overlapping data portals under the National Health Mission (NHM) and independent state systems create redundancies, as observed in Madhya Pradesh, where parallel reporting mechanisms delay outbreak responses.

Interoperability gaps between PHMC units and other sectors, such as education and urban development, limit the cadre's ability to address social determinants of health. The absence of a centralized digital repository for health data complicates evidence-based decision-making. For instance, Punjab's PHMC struggles to access municipal sanitation data, hindering cholera prevention strategies. Investments in unified digital platforms, coupled with training in health informatics, are critical to optimize PHMC operations. The proposed Ayushman Bharat Digital Mission (ABDM) offers a potential framework but requires state-level customization to address infrastructural and literacy barriers in rural regions.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Legislative & Institutional Reforms

Statutory backing through a dedicated Public Health Act is critical to formalize the Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) and ensure accountability. Legislation should delineate roles, funding mechanisms, and performance metrics,





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addressing ambiguities in existing guidelines. States must adopt amendments to service rules, recognizing PHMC as a distinct vertical within health departments to prevent role overlap with general administrators. Institutional reforms should include independent audit bodies to monitor cadre performance and enforce compliance with national standards. For instance, mandating annual reviews by the Comptroller and Auditor General (CAG) could enhance transparency in resource utilization and program outcomes. Strengthening partnerships with institutions like the National Centre for Disease Control (NCDC) will standardize competency frameworks and accreditation processes for PHMC personnel.

Financial & Administrative Strengthening

A hybrid funding model combining central grants and state allocations is proposed to ensure PHMC sustainability. The central government should introduce PHMC-specific grants under the National Health Mission (NHM), earmarked for training, technology, and infrastructure. Fiscal decentralization must empower states to tailor allocations to local priorities, such as urban health in Maharashtra or tribal health in Chhattisgarh. Concurrently, the central government should mandate minimum PHMC budget thresholds (e.g., 8% of NHM funds) to reduce interstate disparities. Standardization of recruitment protocols, salary structures, and promotion criteria across states will mitigate administrative fragmentation. Central agencies like the National Health Authority (NHA) could oversee interstate coordination, ensuring alignment with national health goals.

Role of Technology & Digital Health Solutions

Integrating artificial intelligence (AI) and big data analytics into PHMC operations can enhance predictive surveillance and resource optimization. Machine learning models trained on demographic and epidemiological data could forecast disease outbreaks, enabling preemptive responses. A unified digital platform, aligned with the Ayushman Bharat Digital Mission (ABDM), should consolidate fragmented health data systems, ensuring interoperability between PHMC units and other sectors. Real-time decision-support systems, incorporating geospatial mapping and mobile health tools, can improve fieldlevel coordination. For example, integrating ASHA-reported data with hospital records via cloud-based dashboards would streamline maternal health interventions. Investments in digital literacy programs for PHMC personnel and infrastructure upgrades in low-resource settings are essential to maximize technology adoption.

CONCLUSION

Summary of Findings

The analysis of India's Public Health Management Cadre (PHMC) reveals its potential to address systemic inefficiencies in healthcare governance through specialized administrative structures. Key insights indicate that PHMC implementation is contingent on state-level political commitment, pre-existing administrative capacity, and fiscal autonomy. Leading states like Tamil Nadu demonstrate that decentralized governance, multidisciplinary recruitment, and integration with digital surveillance systems enhance disease control and health equity. Conversely, lagging states face challenges rooted in

bureaucratic inertia, fragmented funding, and shortages of trained personnel.

Interstate disparities in adoption rates highlight the influence of governance frameworks: states with robust health budgets and legislative agility institutionalize PHMC roles more effectively. Structural barriers, such as overlapping mandates under the National Health Mission (NHM) and resistance from general administrative services, impede uniform progress. Financial constraints, particularly in low-capacity states, underscore the need for earmarked central grants to sustain training and technology adoption. The PHMC's alignment with National Health Policy (NHP) 2017 objectives—preventive care, intersectoral coordination, and equity—remains incomplete without statutory backing and standardized accountability mechanisms.

Future Research Directions

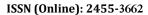
Further research is required to evaluate the long-term impact of PHMC on health outcomes, particularly in rural and marginalized regions. Longitudinal studies assessing cadre effectiveness in reducing maternal mortality, outbreak response times, and immunization coverage could inform iterative policy revisions. Comparative analyses of funding models—centralized versus decentralized—may identify optimal fiscal strategies for low-resource states.

The role of political economy in shaping PHMC adoption warrants investigation, including the influence of electoral cycles and bureaucratic incentives on implementation priorities. Additionally, the integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning into PHMC workflows necessitates empirical studies to assess their cost-effectiveness in predictive surveillance and resource allocation.

Socio-cultural barriers, such as community trust in cadre personnel and gender dynamics in health workforce participation, remain underexplored. Cross-country comparisons with nations like Thailand or the United Kingdom could yield insights into scalable training frameworks and governance structures. Finally, qualitative research on frontline PHMC workers' experiences may reveal operational bottlenecks in grassroots implementation, guiding context-specific reforms.

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