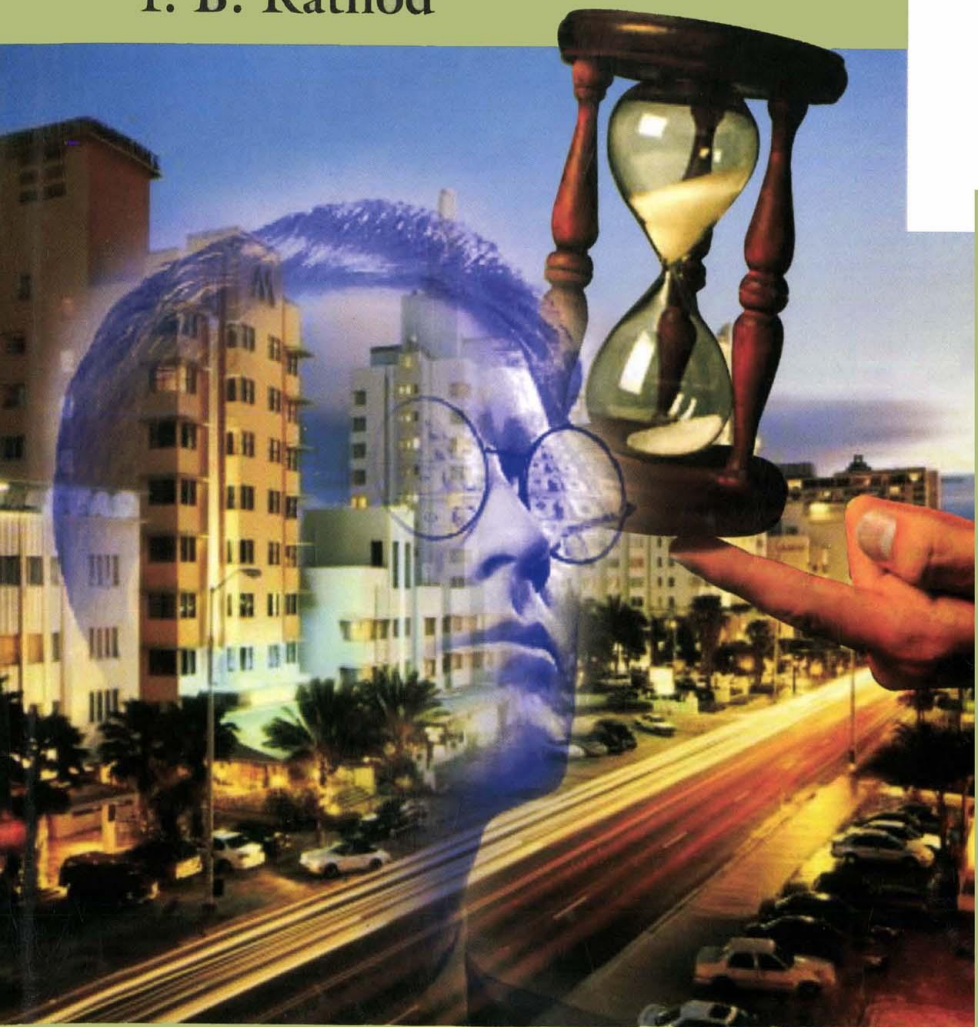


ELEMENTS OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

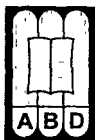
(Theory and Practice)

P. B. Rathod



Elements of
Development-Administration
(Theory and Practice)

Dr. P.B. Rathod



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Contents

1. Development-Administration: An Overview	1
2. Ecology of Development-Administration	34
3. Planning and Development-Administration	53
4. Organisational Aspects and Development-Administration	81
5. People's Participation and Administration	95
6. Enterprises and Development-Administration	110
7. Decision-Making Process	134
8. Administration of Law and Order	157
9. Public Policy and Administration	180

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— 1 —

Development-Administration: An Overview

Introduction

Public administration is undoubtedly a very important branch of political Science. However, the development-administration is a part and parcel of public administration. The development-administration is a very microscopic branch of knowledge which needs special attention.¹ Development is widely participatory process of directed social change in a society intended to bring about both social and material advancement including greater equality, freedom and other valued qualities for the majority of the people through their gaining greater control over their environment.²

The term 'development-administration' originated in 1955 by Goswami, an Indian Scholar. But the conceptualisation and elaboration of the concept were done by the western, especially American Scholars. The development-administration is essentially a concept of administration which is action-oriented rather than structure-oriented. In a broader sense, Weidner views development-administration "as the process

of guiding an organisation towards the achievement of progressive, political, economic and social objectives that are authoritatively determined in one manner or another." Following the initial attempt made by Weidner several prominent scholars—notably Riggs, Heady, Montgomery, Esman and Pye—have made substantial contribution to articulate the concept and its implications, chiefly as byproduct of their comparative studies of administration in the developing countries of Asia and Latin America.

Development-administration ordinarily involves the establishment of machinery for planning economic growth and mobilisation and allocating resources to expand national income. Development-administration has, thus, been conceptualised as a phenomenon characterising change and growth.³

Scholars and students in the discipline and professors of development-administration are busy in researching to bring about rapid socio-economic change in developing countries.

The development-administration is an action-oriented and goal-oriented administration. It is an innovative administration acquiring new skills and new ideas and involving a lot of experimentation. It indicates a willingness to take risks in order to encourage change and growth. It emphasises on-group performance and intergroup collaboration rather than on individual performance. Along with this, individual roles are continuously changing under the development-administration as the structures are shaped and reshaped according to goal requirements. It involves employing of trained manpower and improving the existing staff, using of sophisticated aids to decision-making and adopting empirical approach to problem solving as well as emphasising on problem finding. Development-administration functions in a rapid changing environments and also strives to contribute

to change the environment itself. Thus, it involves an interdisciplinary campaign looking for new functions and new dimensions, having flexibility, innovativeness, dynamism, participation and goal-orientation as its basic elements.

Administration of development and development of administration which fall in the preview of development-administration pose serious organisational problems and administrative challenges for policy makers and administrators alike. Broadly speaking, setting of development goals and objectives and evolution of strategies are covered under the head administration of development, whereas modernisation of administrative techniques, methods and procedures and development of administration capacity or capabilities are covered under the head development of administration. These should equally be emphasised if planned development is to be assured.

Development-administration is mainly concerned with that part of public administration which is geared to the tasks of development planning, projects and schemes. Development-administration, therefore, has been differentiated from routine administration. Development-administration as a matter of fact "is concerned with the will to develop, the mobilisation of existing and new resources and the cultivation of appropriate skills to achieve the development goals." According to Weidner, development-administration is basically "action-oriented and goal-oriented administrative system."

The development-administration although being a part of public administration, has come to occupy a very significant place in the study of political science in general and public policy in particular. The effectiveness of development-administration is the heart of modern democracy and planning. The success and failure of planning and welfare of

the people are dependent on the effectiveness of development-administration.

In development-administration five major themes can be identified. One is that development could only be attained by modernisation (*i.e.* westernisation), that is to say, by the definition of western values and technology. The second is that development could be defined and measured in terms of economic growth.

The third is that quantitative change (economic change) would produce a critical mass leading to qualitative changes. The fourth theme is that the process of development historically entails the movement of societies between a traditional agrarian stage of underdevelopment and that of development after the take-off stage (industrial).

The fifth main theme of development-administration is the emphasis on harmony, stable and orderly change. Development in this context is perceived not only as attainment of change but mainly as adaptation and system maintenance.

Meaning

The term development-administration is of recent origin.⁴ It was first coined by Goswami in 1955, and later popularised by scholars like F.W. Riggs, Edward Weidner, Palmobara, B.S.Khanna, V.A. Panandikar Jagannadham, H.B. Lee and others.

The development-administration is the branch of public administration which deals with the development of a country's economy and society. It is a multi-disciplinary or inter-disciplinary approach. As such, it is a part and parcel of administration which is responsible for carrying out development programmes and projects. Thus, it is that wing of public administration which develops the activity of

government in the economic, political and social spheres of national life.

The functions of development-administration are different from the classical or traditional administration.⁵ The traditional or regulatory or classical administration accepts the society as it is without any vision for the future. On the other hand, development-administration has to be a catalytic agent for social and economic change, qualitative as well as quantitative. Thus, traditional administration is static, constant, fixed, rigid, stagnant, while development-administration is flexible, dynamic, changeable etc.

The essence of development is in the process of change from less desirable to a more desirable state of affairs.⁶ By and large, development has become an umbrella concept that signifies the whole process of change towards desired goals.

Development is not a static process. It is an elusive concept that defines any definition.⁷ A combination of definitions offered by social scientists might provide a balanced view of the meaning of development-administration. In this context, Professor Caiden is of the opinion that "Nobody knows what the word development really stands for."⁸ Economists identify it with economic productivity.⁹ Sociologists with social change or social differentiation. Political scientists with democratisation of political system or expanded government. Administration with bureaucratisation or maximum performance or efficiency or capacity to assume all burdens.¹⁰

Edward W. Weidner, one of the most sophisticated advocate of development-administration, says "Development is never complete, it is relative more or less of being possible. Development is a state of mind, a tendency, a direction, rather than a fixed goal, it is rate of change in a particular direction."¹¹ He defined development-administration as an

"action-oriented and goal-oriented administrative system."

According to F.W. Riggs "Development-administration refers both to administrative problems and governmental reforms."¹²

Prof. Arora says the term development-administration has been used in two senses. First the administration of development and second, development of administration.

Swardlow identified two inter-related tasks in development-administration-(1) Institution building and (2) Planning.¹³ The students of development-administration have recognised that these two aspects are functionally interrelated to each other.

Prof. Brand Schaffer stressed more on the formulation as well as implementation of public policies.¹⁴

Whereas Prof. V. Jagannadham defines Development-administration as "A process of action motivated by and oriented to the achievement of certain pre-determined goals."¹⁵

Riggs considers "Development-administration as both administrative problems and governmental reform." These problems related to governmental tasks connected with agricultural, educational and medical progress etc.

Mohit Bhattacharya considers "Development-administration as an administrative ideology of developing countries."¹⁶

Thus, development-administration is getting intertwined with several development process, modernisation, industrialisation, urbanisation, and social change. "Indeed, development-administration is an instrument in the hands of the government 'every where' who are struggling to improve the lot of man."

In short, development is a function of the political systems.¹⁷ It may be the direct responsibility of a political

system. Development is a dynamic process of growth as well as change. Sometimes development is explained in terms of an ideology.¹⁸ Development is a complicated concept.

It is goal-oriented as well as change-oriented. Development has been conceived as "the process of allowing and encouraging people to meet their own aspirations."¹⁹

Development is a multi-dimensional process. It stands for transformation of society. It indicates qualitative, many-sided and balanced change. It has future orientation.

Nature of Development-administration

The discipline of development public administration is subject to the philosophical controversy. For instance, some who treat it as normative branch, while others consider it as positive and empirical branch of public administration.²⁰ In our view, it is essentially the latter with which we are primarily concerned with it in this study.

In examining the real nature of development-administration we have to pose the following questions:

- (1) Is development-administration a science? or can it be studied scientifically?
- (2) Is development-administration an art?

Let us try to Answer and examine these one by one.

Is Development-administration a Science?

As we know science is a systematised body of knowledge with its distinctive subject matter and distinctive methodology. Development-administration is a growing discipline. As a discipline it belongs to the biggest family of social sciences. It is inter-disciplinary in approach. It can be described as a scientific discipline for the purpose of study, teaching and research.²¹ It can safely claim the status of social sciences. All social science including public administration and

development-administration are 'inexact' because they deal with the human element and human behaviour so the task of explaining and predicting the phenomena is not so exact.

It can be studied systematically and scientifically, it is scientific in nature. It uses scientific method in collection, and verification of data. Data are gathered and tabulated, analysed and compared to hypothesis. Finally, hypothesis are supported or negated.

The study of development-administration and academic discipline is comparatively new. As a field of systematic study, the development-administration has been only recent origin. The word Development-administration was first coined by Indian Scholar Goswami in 1955. And later on, credit goes to Prof. Weidner, because he made the symbolic, systematic and scientific study of development-administration. He laid the scientific foundations of the discipline.

We may sum up as:

- (1) First, it is an intellectual discipline or science to be studied in educational institutions both by the students and scholars.
- (2) Secondly, it is one of the social sciences largely concerned with the investigation of social and economic issues.
- (3) It is a positive, normative and empirical science.

It is positive and normative because it is concerned with the question of values. It is normative science because it is intimately connected or concerned with the life and ideals of the people for whom it has to function. It is empirical because it is concerned with the facts, and actualities.

Is Development-administration an Art?

Development-administration is an activity which requires a skill for its efficient performance. It is an art, and development

administrator is an artist. Talented person becomes administrator. As an art, development-administration is concerned with the practical affairs of administration. As a practice it stands for the process or activity of administering governmental affairs. It is not only an art, but a fine art or discipline. Art is not merely theory, but putting theory in to practice. Similarly we find that development-administration is not merely theory but practice.

It is more practical aspect rather than theoretical discussion. As a practice, it is essentially an art.²² In the olden days of the monarchic period, the royal and the noble families used to pay greater attention to the education of their children in the art of governance. There are examples of scholars who wrote many 'classics' on the art of administration. Some of the notable examples are:

- (1) Kautilya's *Arthashastra*
- (2) Machiavelli's *Prince*

In this way, we can conclude by saying that development-administration is 'both a Science as well as an Art.'

Features of Development-Administration

The following features of development-administration can be identified.

(1) *Change-orientation*

The distinctive mark of development-administration is its central concern with socio-economic change. Development administrators should change their attitudes, outlooks and orientation in order to bring about over all socio-economic transformation in the society.

(2) *Result-orientation*

Development-administration has to be result-oriented,

socio-economic change has to be brought about rapidly and within a time horizon.

(3) Commitment, devotion and dedication

Commitment to the problems of the country, commitment to social and economic change, and commitment is needed to change the socio-economic scene of the country. Administrators should not only commit in planning and implementation of the programme of development but also in the entire process of transformation and modernisation of Indian Society.²³

(4) Client-orientation

Another characteristic of development-administration is that it is client-oriented. There is a close relation or connection between the public and administration, that is an essential attribute of development-administration.

Development-administration is manifestly client-oriented. It has to satisfy the aspirations and urges of the clients *i.e.* the people of the areas. The needs, requirements and wants of the needy people of the underdeveloped countries are to be satisfied and fulfilled within a specified time. Development-administration has to be positively-oriented towards satisfying the needs of the people. The people are not the passive beneficiaries. They are the active participants in the development or public programmes.

(5) Temporal-dimension

Development-administration has only one fundamental constraint *i.e.*, time. This implies that all development programmes are to be necessarily completed within a specified time.

(6) Planned and co-ordinated efforts

Development-administration refers to organised efforts to

carry out the development programmes and projects. These efforts are directed towards national development. Planning and co-ordination are important in organising efforts.²⁴

(7) Goal-oriented administration

Development-administration is not just public administration in the sense of carrying out activities. It is goal, purpose, and objective-oriented administration. Its main goals are social and economic.²⁵ It handles development programmes of a complex nature. It plays an appropriate role in bringing about desired change—social, political and economic. It is flexible in its operation. It is operational in its nature. Its contents are positive.

(8) Management capacities

Development-administration involves creating and enhancing management capacities as a means of achieving development goals. It should have the capacity to face the challenges. These challenges are social and economic change and state building. Indeed its focus is on improving the skills and knowledge of development-oriented administrators so that they may be able to respond to the growing needs of the people. A unique and specific function of development-administration is management. Therefore, they need, adequate development and training in it.

(9) Progressivism

It is the important task of development-administration. In development-administration progression implies training and development of administrators. Development-administration prepares administrators for distant future. This requires forecasting in the light of changing technology and methods. For example, environment protection requires that

administrators be trained in the technical aspects of conservation of environment resources.

(10) *Participation*

Development-goals involve greater participation of the people. In political democracy participation implies strengthening of the pressure groups, political parties, equal opportunity in political-offices and respect for public opinion in government affairs. It is expected of development-administration machinery to create and promote such condition that will facilitate greater participation of the people in the processes of economic and social change and in the delivery of public services, participation by the people in the formulation, implementation, evaluation of programmes and projects, that is a distinct element of development-administration.

For participation to be meaningful and effective people must be familiar with the problems to be addressed. They must demonstrate their ability and willingness in participation. Development-oriented administration effectively utilises the strategies of decentralisation, delegation consultation and thus make administration grassroot-oriented.

(11) *Creativity and innovativeness*

An important element in development-administration is creativity. It means ability and power to develop new ideas. Innovation means application of these ideas. Thus, the important task of government is to promote and carry out innovation. Development-administration is an instrumentality of government, lays stress upon the adoption of new structures, procedures, policies, plans, programmes which will help in achieving the development objectives.

In India, for example, Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), National Rural Employment Programme

(NREP), District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) and Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) are such new innovations for removing of rural poverty. Modern communications are in the form of radio, TV, computers and telephones. All these are the instances of innovation which will help in the development process.

(12) Responsiveness and accountability

In the traditional administrative system, administrators tend to be routine minded, stagnant and generally lacking enthusiasm and ability for innovation.

Development-administration on the other hand requires an administrator who is dynamic, innovative, and development conscious to perform his role in the administration for development. This is indeed a most decisive area in development-administration.

Development-administration is required to be responsive and accountable. A top-down/bottom-up flow, that is the important criteria, innovation, creativity, adaptability, flexibility are crucial in the planning and administration of development activities. All these requirements can be facilitated by development-administration. A development-administration requires highly motivated personnel at all levels. Such personnel should be committed to the development goals and have a high degree of enthusiasm to accomplish them. They need to possess and demonstrate their willingness, dedication to achieve the progressive goals of development.

(13) People-centred administration

Development-administration is essentially people-centred administration. It aims at serving the people, development programmes and projects which are drawn up by the planners

and administrators aims at benefiting the people. The need for a flexible, and action-oriented approach to the administration of community development is widely recognised. Development-administration has to respond to the demands and challenges arising from its environment.

(14) Keeping in touch with social realities

In contrast to the traditional administration, development-administration is required to keep in touch with realities including grassroots situations, local problems etc.

In developing countries which are very heterogeneous with large differences between cities and rural areas, between different socio-economic groups etc., development-administrators are expected to be in constant touch with the rapidly shifting social realities.

(15) Over-lapping

In developing societies there is a overlapping institutional forms as well as behavioural patterns. For example, for aggregating the political-interests of the people, there may be regular political parties but side by side with them there might be caste, tribal, communal organisations also functioning as political-parties. This phenomenon of over-lapping is also to be found in political government as well as administrative structures. Thus, voters might cast their votes on account of caste or tribal considerations rather than political or economic interests. Officers insist not only on western style of clothing manners, but also on administrative aids like organisation charts, work flow charts etc. But in their mode of thinking and working they are still guided by ascriptive orientations of a traditional society. The social role of the officer often overlaps his official role and causes a lot of confusion and maladjustment

(16) *Heterogeneity of forms and institutions*

The developing societies make conscious efforts towards modernisation of their economies and technologies. This places them organisationally and behaviourally in a transitional stage, with the result that society becomes a heterogeneous mix of old and new as well as traditional and modern elements. Bullock carts co-exist with automobiles, chaparasis co-exist with telephones as aids to administration, mud-huts with sky-scrapers.

Further, we also find heterogeneity in administrative systems. There are many administrative malady in these administrative systems, such as favouritism and corruption emanate from behavioural maladjustment.

Goals of Development-administration

Development implies progressive improvement in the living conditions and quality of life enjoyed by society and shared by its members. It is a continuing process that takes place in all societies. Development has been conceptualised as a phenomenon of change and growth. It is indeed a dynamic concept.²⁶

The changing perception of development gave rise to the adoption of an integrated approach to development combining social development with the economic. The removal of poverty acquired a major thrust. In Gunnar Myrdal's perception greater weightage was sought to be given to the institutional factors of change, *i.e.*, social value and removal of social inequality.²⁷

As stated in Dag Hammarsjold Report, the goal of development is to ensure man to decide his own destiny, provide him opportunities for creative development. The report also states that development is an integral, value loaded, cultural process. It encompasses the natural

environment, social relations, education, production, consumption and well-being. The report also says that development is endogenous. It springs from the heart of each society which relies firstly on its own strength and resources and defines its sovereignty. The vision of its future, cooperating with societies sharing their problems and aspirations.²⁸

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) formulated another indicator of development emphasising the human development.²⁹ As per this perspective, development is defined as a process of enlarging people's choices. At all levels of development three essential components of development were identified, *viz.*, to lead a long and healthy life, acquire knowledge and have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. If these essential choices are not available, many other opportunities remain inaccessible. Additional choices, highly valued by many people which range from political, economic and social freedoms to opportunities for being creative and productive and enjoying personal, self-respect, and guaranteed human rights sans development may remain mere dreams to realise.

From the normative point of view, participation of the deprived sections of the society in the socio-political process has been advocated as an objective of development. Marxist scholars emphasised the incorporation of the marginalised and powerless sections of the society into societal processes as the objective of development. Accordingly development has been defined as the process by which powerless people everywhere are freed from all forms of dependency—social, cultural and political—so that they can create a personal sense of history for themselves and thereby express their full potential as human beings. From this perspective mobilisation

of the poor and their participation in socio-political process is the crux of development.³⁰

As we approach the end of this millennium, we can rejoice at the uncommon opportunities which the technological information, social and democratic revolutions of recent decades have opened up for a better common present and future for human kind.³¹ The consensus developed at the international conferences held under the auspices of the United Nations and its specialised agencies during the nineties provides hope that the age old human quest for opportunities for every child. Women and men to lead a healthy and productive life can get converted from a dream into reality, of particular importance are the conclusions of the International Conferences on the child (New York, 1990), environment (Rio-de-Janiro, 1992), human rights (Vienna, 1993), population (Cairo, 1994), poverty and social development (Copenhagen, 1995), women (Beijing, 1995), urban quality of life (Istambul, 1996) and food security (Rome, 1996). A close review of the plans for action envisaged at these conferences can provide a blueprint for sustainable and equitable development.

It would be appropriate to integrate the three goals together, *i.e.*, economic goals should lay stress on eradication of poverty and unemployment and development for overall improvement of quality of life, social goals should aim at brotherhood, welfare, happiness and peace and the administrative goals should work for fairness, justice and service. In our country we must have a clear vision and focussed objectives to achieve our cherished goals of justice, liberty, equality and fraternity.

1. *Economic*

When we try to assess the performance of our five decades of

planned economy, we notice that there fifty years have been a period of rising expectations. The pace of our economic and social changes, when compared to other developing countries particularly of Asia, has been rather slow. The agricultural and industrial growth, per capita national income, literacy and school enrolment, infant mortality, the overall performance of our economy looks impressive. From a food deficit country in 1947 India now presents an image of a country self-sufficient in foodgrains. The impact of green revolution can be seen on agricultural development across the region. Our industrial sector has been so much diversified that we are now in a position to meet substantial portion of our requirements of capital goods through domestic production. We have financial system well developed covering banking sector, capital markets, and insurance sector. Yet measured in terms of rates of economic growth or basic social indicators, our plea of progress has not come to the level of expectations. During all the Five Year Plans, the economic growth has been slow. Average per capita income could not go beyond 1.5 per cent until 1980. The proportion of people living below poverty line could not decline. Providing free elementary education upto the age of 14 to all children remained a pipe dream. Regional imbalance could not be reduced.³²

Though the country has achieved growth in real terms, its relative position in the world has been steadily declining. In 1995 India was the tenth biggest industrial power. But despite growth its relative position slipped to twentieth place two decades later. India's manufactured exports as late as in 1965 were eight times that of Korea, but by 1986 Korea's exports were 4.5 times the value of India. By 2025, India's population may exceed China's predicted population. With 1.5 billion people the prospects are that even the real gains in average per capita income may no longer be environmentally

and economically sustainable and without this democracy may not be sustainable either.³³

As compared to the countries of South-East Asia and East Asia, who are far less endowed with natural resources and human resources, our performance has remained very unsatisfactory. As compared to the economic growth by China after the introduction of the market-oriented reforms of the late 1970s, and the progress of South Korea, Malaysia, Indonesia, our economic growth has remained unimpressive. As regards poverty removal our economic policies suffered severe drawbacks in the areas of effective policy to moderate the rise of population. Capacity building and empowerment of the poor and the weak and the women to participate effectively in the growth, processes through substantial improvement in education, skill and health and infrastructural investment, broad based growth, based on rapid growth of agriculture and labour intensive manufactured exports.

On the front of economic goals, there exists a basis to plan for an annual growth rate of 7 per cent or more on a long-term perspective. Goals have to be reset, measures are required to be taken and sustained efforts have to be made to increase the annual growth rate to double digit which will banish poverty and greatly reduce unemployment for which continued adequate attention is also required to be given to the small business sector. As a matter of fact the small business sector is contributing a great deal to the economy of the US, the UK, Japan, Canada, Korea, South African countries and countries of Latin America. For a self-dependent and self-reliant economy, the economic goal must also look to the principle of "be Indian buy Indian" without suffering any kind of economic isolationism in the global market. As far as export is concerned, we have to develop highly efficient and profitable export industries. We experienced persistent low

profitability of exports. Our share of world trade declined from almost 2 per cent to 0.4 per cent during 1950 and 1990. Due to the neglect of export sector the country faced a chronic shortage of foreign exchange, as a result we had to depend upon the western concessional aid to fill the import-export gap.

In the sphere of public sector we could not protect these enterprises from improper political and bureaucratic influences. The efficiency and profitability of the public sector are eroded by lack of autonomy and accountability. They could not generate sufficient resources to finance their future expansion.

Deficiencies in human resource development and infrastructural bottlenecks emerged as major constraints on the pace of economic development. Inadequate emphasis on elementary education, neglect of the education of the girl child and persistent high rates of infant mortality prevented the growth of a nation. Nobel laureate Amartya Sen called for a constitutional amendment to make elementary education a fundamental right in order to bring faster societal change leading to participatory economic development and gender equality. The west had made great strides in economic development only because it had made the social base strong by making its people educated and literate. Even in Japan and East Asia economic progress was due to development of human resources. Japan at the time of Meiji Restoration in the middle of the nineteenth century already had a higher literacy rate than Europe. General availability of basic education made it possible for the people to participate in the overall economic development. The provision of elementary education as a fundamental right is a real way of making democracy vibrant and transforming the society leading to gender equality. Women's education and education of the

girl child has an impact on empowerment of women. This increases gender justice in the family.³⁴ Everyone has the right to education, which shall be directed to the full development of human resources and human dignity and potential, with particular attention to women and the girl child. Education should be designed to strengthen respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms including those relating to population and development. The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his or her education and guidance that responsibility lies in the first place with the parents.³⁵ As far as poverty alleviation is concerned, it will never be achieved by subsidy. It will never be achieved by reservation, it can only be achieved by developing their skills by education, not merely primary education, but at least upto the higher secondary stage, developing supplementary skills, so that they can get jobs in various industries or intermediate technology jobs which will give them employment.

2. Social

The basic attributes of a good society include maintenance of peace and harmony, achievement of material well being, enhancing of justice and equality, enrichment of community life with a sense of shared identity and commitment to rationality. Exploitation, ignorance, illiteracy, illhealth, exploding population, rampant corruption, variety of scams, the role of money and muscle power, general apathy, unconcern of the people and several other maladies made the country unprogressive. The rural, urban and tribal societies today are in a state of flux, people clamour for their rights and forget their obligations.

Today castes and politics, politics and religion have kept us apart. There is all ground decay of ethics, morals and

values. Material values replacing the eternal values. Tradition is under stress. Blind imitation is growing high.

Growing percentage of unemployment in almost all countries of the world, unequal payments between genders, races, citizens immigrants, etc., shaking the foundations of family and marriage, increasing number of single women-headed families, feminisation poverty, criminalisation in sinisterly sophisticated forms spreading to all sections and levels of populations further deteriorating into psychological deprivations and perversions alarming spread of terrorist violence, ethnic cultural, linguistic and regional tensions and conflicts are some of the more outstanding problems in addition to the earlier chronic problems of ill health, ignorance and squalor which directly affected the quality, the pace and pattern of social development. Robert Helbronder, an eminent American thinker, suggests that socialism can still serve as the vision of a society, such a society might have the level of social welfare of Sweden civil liberties of Holland, income distribution of Norway, health care of Germany, public culture of France and security of employment of Japan. The collapse of (Soviet or Chinese) socialism should not put an end to our social imagination.³⁶

Material well-being of people at large is another important element in man's quest for a good society. It is true that man does not live by bread alone. He cannot live without either. Material well-being is a precondition for security and peace and even of progress. Every religion and philosophic system acknowledges material well-being as a base of any worthwhile human activity—practical or philosophical. It is a wrong notion altogether for people to argue that we in India were lost in metaphysical reveries and regarded secular and material aspects of life to be inconsequential. Truth is that the secular and material aspects of life received as much attention

as any other. And even those who were regarded as spiritual minded were not oblivious of the needs of ordinary human beings. After attaining enlightenment, the Buddha did not retire into solitude. He came out healing the sick and helping the poor and aging. Similarly, when Swami Vivekananda thought he should lose himself in the delights of the inner spiritual life and not get involved in matters of the world. Ramkrishana Paramhansa chided him, "Shame on you! Why are you trying so much to seek your own personal salvation instead of first rescuing others who were suffering poverty, deprivation and hunger?" That made him think and he felt the pangs of all human beings. He said, "How can I content myself with my own salvation? It is my duty to look after others and rescue them from sufferings. The Upanishad says, after the achievement of wisdom—let me have wealth. Wealth and prosperity in the hands of the enlightened are a source of blessing. Wealth and prosperity in the hands of the unenlightened are curse." Some of us can perhaps live like saints but few have that discipline. The rest of us need three square meals a day, decent shelter, amenities such as electricity, fresh water, sanitation, access to affordable transportation, good education and books, radio, and television which open us up to the world around—these nourish our bodies, minds and spirits. For that, poverty must be fought, disease and illiteracy removed and everyone must be given a chance to grow better, feel nobly, think clearly and act rightly. Humans must free themselves from the iron laws of necessity.³⁷

One important social goal has to be the continuance and protection of the family as basic human and social institution for the welfare, happiness and peace of individual members within the group and the society. Strengthening of the family will be needed for the preservation of cultural heritage and

tradition. The strength of our social life is the harmonious relationship among the people belonging to various linguistic, cultural and religious groups living in any part of this country. Therefore our social goals will be creating and promoting global social network through messages of universal brotherhood, human welfare, happiness and peace.

(3) *Administrative*

The administrative goals must call for certainty, stability, creativity, innovativeness, super-sensitivity, responsiveness, fairness, openness and transparency in national life.

Currently in the Less Developed Countries (LDCs) there exists a highly bureaucratic civil service and excessive centralisation of authority and control. This excessive centralisation of authority and control is reflected in government ministers assuming overall and total control of their respective ministries and departments in terms of decision-making and paying inadequate attention to or giving little opportunity of middle or lower level civil servants to participate not only in the decision-making process but in the development process as well. This situation continues to be prepared because the civil service in most LDCs has become an institution in which personal survival in terms of longevity of service, depends on political affiliation situation which does not conform to the regulations governing the non-political nature of the civil service.

There exists a great deal of friction tension and mutual suspicion between government ministers and career officials. Both have adopted an attitude toward implementation of policy that has alienated the public and has hampered effective functioning of the government. Basically the career civil servants are in a position of great insecurity due to the enormous powers of the government ministers. Most of the

civil servants are usually better educated than the ministers. As such the career civil servants find it difficult to abide by the decisions of the ministers whom they regard as inadequately educated and not competent enough to take decisions pertaining to administration of development. The ministers on the other hand, conscious of their newly acquired powers and determined to dispel any suggestion of inferiority, are anxious to assert their authority and to make it clear beyond doubt as to who are the masters.

Inevitably, for reasons of survival within the civil service career civil servants have to adopt a sycophantic and fanatical attitude towards their ministers not offering technical and administrative advice in a firm and objective manner. After attaining independence bureaucratic colonial-oriented administration in the LDCs was transformed into a bureaucratic organisation that emphasised sovereignty of politics rather than supremacy of administration.³⁹ Politics became the most important activity and the politician (minister) came to occupy a position of unquestionable supremacy in matters of decision-making.⁴⁰

The factors affecting the administration of development in the LDCs is the lack of political leadership's total support for improvement of the nation's administrative system. Administrative change inevitably involves a challenge to accepted modes of action and traditional values and prerogatives.⁴¹ If political leaders are to inspire a population and direct the bureaucracy to higher levels of performance and development, their words and actions, must carry an aura of legitimacy. Historically, political leaders in the LDCs have been primarily concerned with maintaining their own existence as politicians which has resulted in much confusion between the administrative and political functions in the decision-making process and also in the creation of political

elites. These elites among themselves alone cannot execute the services and achieve developmental goals. Functional reform of development-administration, as needed in the LDCs can only be brought about through a derived effort and critical support of the political leadership. The LDCs cannot afford to have inefficient bureaucracy if the primary emphasis has to be laid on the promotion of growth, development, equity and provision of basic needs for once colonised people. The administration of development in the LDCs has also been hampered by the failure of the public, to realise what can be achieved by community effort. In many cases considerable potential awaits development but no action is taken by the people because: (1) they do not understand the opportunities, which exist, (2) the lack confidence to venture into new activities, and (3) their traditional leaders frequently fail to see that they have any function to guide and inspire their people in these matters.

Our administrative goals must include inculcation of high sense of ethics and values to curb the rising, influence and growing interference of politics, pressure groups and money and should find a way out for administrative corruption and other ills. The political-bureaucrat-businessman-mafia nexus must be broken. If India is to regain a pride of place in the comity of nations. A politician administrative structure based on merit and fairplay should be evolved to check the ever-rising corruption in India. There is an urgent need to simplify the administrative procedures. Unnecessary controls and cumbersome procedures are breeding grounds of corruption. Therefore it is necessary to reorient the administrative structure and revamp the time consuming procedures with a view to helping citizens. The administrative set up must be cost-effective and result-oriented. It must be accountable, responsive to the needs and

responsible to the job assigned. The tools of government must be redesigned in the areas of public services, human resource development reward-punishment systems, data gathering and data processing, surveillance and control mechanism. There should be greater distributive justice. The administrative machinery, must be made transparent and the public should have free access to government records except the classified items. With regard to Indian Administration, Shri N.A. Palkiwala remarked: "We have got too much of government but too little governance, we have got too many public servants but too little of public service, we have got too many controls but we have got too little of welfare, we have got too many laws, but have got too little of justice."

So, the goal should be to have an administrator who should be less generic and more public, less descriptive and more prescriptive, less institution-oriented and more client-oriented, less neutral and more normative. Hence, Indian administrative system should become more modernised without losing its cultural identity.⁴²

In short the significant goals of development-administration are as follows:

- (1) It is concerned with protection of tenancy, that means tenant as the landowner.
- (2) Development-administration is concerned with distribution of surplus land to the poor farmers and the landless workers.
- (3) It aims at 'Reservation' in the distribution of surplus land.
- (4) Poultry farming is another important aim of development-administration.
- (5) It is concerned with the ceiling on agricultural land.
- (6) A minimum standard of living.

- (7) Improvement in the well being of the individual.
- (8) Sharing of benefits by all.
- (9) Equitable distribution of income and wealth.
- (10) A greater degree of income security.
- (11) Expansion and improvement of health, education, housing, social welfare etc.
- (12) Safeguarding the environment.

Scope of Development-Administration

The field of study and action represented by developmental administration may be conveniently divided into the following areas, though other classifications may also be thought of:

1. Extension and community services.
2. Problems of programme management.
3. Project management.
4. Area development.

This is by no means a complete list and leaves out, for instance, areas like the role of administration in guiding and regulating private activity, labour administration, financial administration and others.

(1) *Extension and community services*

Extension and community services are best seen as a form of partnership between the government agencies which provide technical, institutional or financial services to the people. Their significance comes from the fact that they are a substitute for a system based on government action alone and are rooted in the belief that it is community at the local level which receives the services, responds to them and in the process itself grows in initiative and responsibility. They imply community organisations of one kind or another at the base. The most difficult problem met within extension is that,

within the limits of the resources available, benefits do not easily reach out to sections of the population who are in a situation of weakness, unable to contribute their own share or to claim what is due to them.

(2) Problems of programme management

These run right through the entire range of development in various sectors of the economy. They include questions of organisation, personnel, delegation, and attitudes in administrations, but if issue should be identified more sharply than the other, it is the critical role in programme management of planning for supplies and inputs.

(3) Project management

More especially, the management of public enterprises, has become an altogether crucial area, because major projects account for a high proportion of new investment and make demands on resources in men, materials and organisation which are frequently underestimated. They call for decisions and procedures at the level of policy which would facilitate their preparation and execution and at the same time, there must be efficiency, initiative and compactness in the organisation responsible for them. They are undoubtedly a major challenge to administrative and technical capacity to achieve development.

(4) Area development

It is an extremely difficult field of administration and one for which most of the developing countries do not yet have sufficient experience. It is generally assumed that the problems which arise at the area level would be adequately dealt with by men and institutions on the spot. It is, however, not realised that area development requires a clear frame of delegations and procedures within which, both at the state

level and in district and blocks, each agency could act on its own, as well as identification of the points at which its activities should be complementary to those of other agencies. Again, at the district level, in India, for example, there are three sets of institutions which have to work together- Panchayat Raj Institutions in the rural areas, district officials functioning with the collector outside the scheme of Panchayat Raj, and local self governing institutions in towns and cities. The role of co-operative organisations and voluntary agencies, at the area level should also be noted. Before development-administration can make a success of area development, for more knowledge and understanding has to be brought to bear on problems at the local level, local problems are best regard as facets of difficult national problems, looked at in terms of given areas and communities. They demand no less expertise and knowledge from higher levels of administration and from universities and research institutions than problems at the state and national levels.

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Ecology of Development-Administration

Introduction

Ecology is a branch of biology. In biology the term ecology means the scientific study of the living things *i.e.* plants, animals and people in relation to each other and their environment.¹

The term ecology suggests the relations and interdependence between living organism and their environment. Ecology deals with the organic life on the earth. It examines the interaction between the living organism and their environment.² Animals, men, and plants are conditioned by their environment.

The study of development-administration also includes ecology. The ecological approach is based on the view that an administrative system may not act as an independent variable in all situations.³ The main contributors to the ecological study of development-administration are John. A. Gaus, Robert. A. Dahl and F.W. Riggs.⁴ But the most notable contribution to the ecology was made by F.W.Riggs. He wrote a book known as *The Ecology of Public Administration*.

Riggs in his book stressed the relationship between public administration and its environment. His main ecological emphasis is not on physical or biological aspects but rather on the human social system itself.

Development-administration is a multi-dimensional or interdisciplinary approach.⁵ It has its own set of environment. Development-administration is surrounded by social, political, economic and cultural sets of environment.⁶ It influences and is being influenced by its environment. It interacts with its social, political, economic and cultural environment. It has to be studied in different contexts *i.e.* social, political, economic and cultural.

1. Social Context of Development-Administration

Development-administration is rooted in a larger social system. Any social system exists within a three sets of environment:

1. Physical environment (climate).
2. Cultural environment (norms, values, goals).
3. Technological environment (the state of knowledge and instrumentation available).

Social system is a comprehensive term which includes in its fold many other sub-system like economic, political system.⁷ It also includes social change or social reform and it can be brought about by social policies. Social policies have to be implemented by administrators. Many social problems are the challenges to the development administrator. So development-administration has to face all those emerging challenges. Development-administration has both the negative and positive sides.⁸ The negative sides are the problems like poverty, unemployment, beggary, untouchability, racial discrimination, unemployment, dowry system, prostitution,

delinquency, destitution, zamindari system *i.e.* concentration of the wealth in the hands of the few.⁹ These are all the hindrances to development-administration. All these are the anti-social activities which requires proper policies to be framed by the Government. And these policies should be effectively implemented by efficient administrators.

Social conflicts arises in society due to the scarcity of resources¹⁰ and the administrator should have sufficient knowledge of such conflicts and he should seek the means to resolve or manage those conflicts. He has to see that society is not attacked by evils like casteism, communalism, regionalism, sectionalism, linguism, and so on. Implementation of laws and policies with regard to social problems is a great task before the administrative machinery.¹¹

The problems of society in every country whether democratic or communistic are too complex and complicated.¹² Every person has to live in society as a civilised member. But due to the development made in science and technology and growing population, society has been facing many problems. Society is getting divided into 'haves' and 'havenots'.¹³ And that will affect the development-administration. All people are not equal with regard to resources, facilities and other opportunities. Most of the people are poor who are not able to make their both ends meet.¹⁴ They are not in a position to get their minimums. They are illiterate, ignorant about the development set up, political set up, economic set up etc. Social conflicts are increasing day-by-day, that will seriously affect the development activities. There is no peace, unity, harmony among the members of the society. So, the people are forced to engage in anti-social activities like theft, rapism, looting, demonstration, murdering, killing, kidnapping and so on.¹⁵ All this they do because, they (both men and women) have

been facing the problems of poverty, hunger, unemployment and so on. Sometimes some people are forced to commit suicide crimes knowingly or unknowingly—due to the pressing of time and circumstances. Women are suffering from the evil practices of the society like Devadasi system,¹⁶ sati, divorce, dowry and other problems. All these various evils, issues and problems of the society require the passing of the proper laws and formulation of proper policies by the government. That is why, in many democratic countries like India, the government has formulated many plans and launched many programmes for the welfare of the people. In India, Dowry Prohibition Act has been passed and anti-poverty programmes have been launched towards the goal of welfare state.¹⁷ Some sort of social policy or social legislation has been passed and introduced. Still the problems are not completely solved. Whether it is social law or social legislation or social policy it should be effectively and timely implemented. The implementation of social law or social legislation is the job of development-administration.

Unless, there is an efficient, honest, non-corrupt, well trained administrative machinery to implement social policies, plans, programmes and laws, there is no development, no social justice or social welfare. So the ideals of social justice or social welfare can be realised only when there is good administration.¹⁸

The positive side of development-administration with regard to social context is removal of corruption, prohibition, abolition of untouchability, inter-caste marriages, minimising social conflicts or quarrels, removal of caste system etc. In this way, social environment influences both positively and negatively development-administration.

2. Political Context of Development-Administration

Development-administration is very close to a political

system. Development-administration is completely depends upon the political system. Therefore, the political factor influences the structure and functioning of development-administration. The influence of politics on development is very great. No aspect of development can be studied without political influence. Politics influences almost every aspect of development-administration. The whole field of administration operates in the political environment or milieu.¹⁹ Every aspect of development-administration is influenced by politics. The administrators activities are politically directed and controlled.

Political process and development process although distinct, different, separate and independent, still, they are inter-related, inter-linked, inter- connected and inter-woven. Politics is, thus, the 'struggle' for the control of public policy.²⁰ Politics frames the policies. Politics is the study of the state, government and administration.²¹ It is behavioural and empirical. Politics is defined in the context of power relations. It is as the study of power.²² It is a struggle to acquire power, retain power and expand power. Power is the central theme of politics. Power is the central topic or concept of politics. Power is the heart of politics. Politics is a very complex of interaction by which power is acquired, transferred and exercised. Prof. Lord Action's statement "power corrupts and absolute power corrupts absolutely."²³ It is concerned with how to acquire power, how to retain power and how to expand power. It is the art of manipulating the things. It is the art of governing the mankind by deceiving them.

Harold Lasswell has explained "who gets what, when and how dimension of politics."²⁴ Politics is the process by which power and influence are acquired and exercised. There is a continuous interaction between politics and development. Development-administration has to be linked with the study

of politics. In fact, these two constitute two fundamental instruments of social and political change. They are co-relative. Policy formulation is the job of politics, while enforcing is the job of development-administration²⁵ where policy formation ends, implementation begins. Bureaucracy plays a very important role in development-administration. But inefficient bureaucracy is a great impediment in the way of development. The governmental-administration in India has been proved too weak and inefficient as it cares more for the rules, regulations and formalities without caring for the real needs and problems of the citizens. Corruption has become routine in governmental administration. It cannot be eradicated so easily either by law or by any ordinance of the government. Both citizens and the government are equally responsible for the evil of corruption. We talk of neat, clean, and efficient administration, but in practice, quite reverse is the result. So, the evils like red-tapism, nepotism, corruption etc., have become the hindrances in the way of development-administration.²⁶

Further, India has been completely dominated by party politics.²⁷ Party politics have become more important than economic development. In the west, economic development is more important than politics. The game of politics in India is played only for the sake of politics. Politics is not characterised by stability due to the splits in political parties which is a great difficulty in the way of development. The splits in the different political parties have created a confusion in the minds of the voters. It has become very difficult to say, which party stands for what? No party has established its credibility, faith and confidence in the voters. All parties have become too opportunistic, just to play the game of politics, to get power and misuse power. The ideals like socialism, democracy, secularism have been used as the means

of propaganda by the parties to win the elections. So the ideals have lost their spirit and meaning. Those who contest the elections spends money in terms of lakhs together just as to purchase the votes by making false promises, by fooling and misguiding the voters. Thus it is clear, that the game of politics is played through the means of money.²⁸ The slogans, statements at the time of elections are used as a means to win the elections.

Aristotle, the father of political science, said that “man is a social animal” and he is necessarily a political animal.²⁹ That means he participates in political-affairs. Participation is most important for his development.³⁰ Voting, public discussion, critical assessment of governmental functioning, public interest movements, organisations, consulting and contacting the political-representatives are the political context of development-administration.

3. Economic Context of Development-Administration (Planning, Budgeting and Public Sector)

Economics is the study of the wealth.³¹ It covers almost every economic aspect of human life. Pricing, currency, banking, planning, budgeting, production, distribution, consumption, exchange all these are the economic terms.³² All these affect development-administration. Imports exports taxation policies, acquiring of wealth, saving capacity of man, purchase capacity, industrial development all these have a bearing on development-administration. To Prof. Riggs economic productivity is the most important feature which has influenced development-administration.³³ In other words, production and consumption of material goods affects the nature and characteristics of development-administration. Development-administration is influenced by the mode of production and “Production relations” without doubt.³⁴

In a developing country, the state acts as the dominant change-agent and, therefore, its task is to carryout economic development. State must achieve the development goals and it has to adopt new set of values. In developing countries especially in India there is an unequal distribution of resources. Indian economy is as such people wants more but they get less. Hence there is no satisfaction. And this lack of satisfaction gave the way to many differences, discriminations, divisions, distinctions, and disturbances.³⁵ Hence, conflicts may be violent or non-violent, radical or peaceful, civil war, chaos, confusion and that leads to division of society. And it severely and seriously affects the development-administration.

It is increasingly recognised that public officials in the developing nations are generally dissatisfied with their low salaries, and as such dissatisfaction is the main cause of official corruption.³⁶ Official corruption is the context of administrative-development.

In India "mixed economy" model is followed.³⁷ That means encouraging both the public and private sectors. And that model or policy is adopted to bring about socio-economic transformation. Central planning is an instrument of development. And it is accepted to bring about a socialistic pattern of the society. But the pattern of distribution of income and wealth in India is not yet restructured by the planning commission. There is still a wide gap between the rich and the poor, poor are becoming poorer and rich are becoming richer. That is way, India is called as a rich country inhabited by the poor people. Rich in terms of natural resources.

Planning occupies a very important role in development-administration.³⁸ But we witness the failure of planning in India. As we notice today that there is no timely implementation of the plans. Plans have not been able to reach their

targets. As such neither the agricultural production nor industrial production is increased so as to raise the standard of living of the people. Agriculture is a gambling in India. No timely rains. The failure of plans have been caused on account of national calamities like floods, famine, earthquake and also on account of lack of financial resources.³⁹ The government has been forced to resort to deficit financing. As a result of this, people are forced to pay heavy taxes. That is why it is said that Indians are good planners but bad doers.

The economic context of development-administration have some positive aspects. Such as the protection of tenancy, ceiling of agricultural land, distribution of surplus land to the poor, giving loans and subsidies to the poor and marginal farmers, establishing of employment guarantee schemes or programmes, giving benami lands to poor farmers, reservation in the distribution of surplus lands etc. These are all the positive economic context of development-administrations.⁴⁰

4. Cultural Context of Development-Administration

There are numerous facets of development-administration on which past as well as present administrative systems can be compared from the point of view of their achievement-oriented goals. Here we are concerned only with the cultural context of development-administration with a view to see as to how far this factor has influenced the decision-making process ultimately affecting the entire gamut of development-administration. The impact and the influence of culture on development-administration is quite direct and immediate. Development-administration has a philosophy of its own, culture affects the development-administration. It is bound by peoples culture.⁴¹ Culture is dynamic and influencing

force.⁴² The various developmental policies and programmes of the government have a cultural dimension. Both culture and development-administration act as an instrument of social and economic change.

It is a testimony to the fact that development-administration has to be placed, studied and operated in its cultural context.⁴³ A country like India which aspires to go self transformation, the higher civil service culture is not, cannot be, and should not be, a true reflection of social cultures at large. On the other hand, it has also to be seen as to whether bureaucratic culture and mass social culture are helping or retarding the development process. It is being observed in India that there is a cultural gap between the political culture and the administrative culture.⁴⁴ Further, the cultural gap is also witnessed between the higher and lower levels of bureaucracy. The people who manned development bureaucracy such as BDO, ADO, VDO etc. are culturally apart from the members of the higher bureaucracy like the IAS.⁴⁵ The cultural gap between these levels is distinct and marked. The question, therefore, is whether culturally different people are helping in the cause of development or affecting the process adversely. Indian culture is so rich and diversity and plurality of culture is influencing the social development in India.⁴⁶ The major focus of development-administration in India has been rural development and government is also directed towards this sector. During the last five decades of planning and development, India has experienced with a number of policies, programmes, and projects, but these have not succeed to the desired extent. Many factors have been accountable for this state of affairs and cultural factor is one prime factor. The cultural environment of higher level bureaucracies is markedly different of lower level and middle level bureaucracies in the

country, and all these bureaucracies perform functions or works in altogether different cultural settings and environment.

Often we come across, that our planning is alright, but the implementation is faulty.⁴⁷ If we accept this assessment, it can be argued that because of the cultural disparity, and cross-cultural settings, the implementation of the policies and programmes is not smooth, and friction can be seen at various organisational levels which hampers implementation process. The cultural context of the planners and that of the implementing bodies is entirely different.

These two sets have been very little in common and, therefore, the marriage between the formulation and implementation is faced with problems affecting its being. The cultural gap is predominant and, therefore, it cannot be overlooked while analysing the developmental process. The administrative system and the organisational process both get influenced by the environment in which they operate, and, therefore, the cultural aspect has to be given due thought in the process.

In view of the pressures, organisational and societal, the cultural context of development-administration assumes significance requiring consequential redefining and readjusting of organisational pattern and processes. The development-administration needs to be redefined so as to have more realistic explanation. The cultural gap exists between the different social groups and the bureaucracy and also between the different levels of bureaucracy. The context, therefore, too has to be different so as to reflect a more realistic and representative phenomenon.

It can, therefore, be concluded that, development-administration has occupied the attention of scholars of various countries including the developing ones who are

experiencing the pinch. It is argued that because of the heterogeneous social system and wide variations in cultural-orientation, the task of development-administration could not be adequately achieved. In the entire planning and development process, therefore, the cultural context has to be placed in proper perspective in order to make it realistic and representative. Neither development-administration nor culture can be studied without reference to each other. Individuals, organisations and societies are being influenced by bureaucracy and *vice versa*. The interlinkage of the two with reference to the ideology and environment is considered important. In view of these, therefore, there is a need to redefine and reorganise the bureaucratic process and procedures to match the contemporary thought and action in development-administration.⁴⁸

In short, the cultural context of development-administration is providing entertainment facilities to the rural masses. TVs must be carried out on to the villages in mobile vans, so that villagers get relaxed by seeing the TV. Protecting the good heritage, games, sports, must be arranged, *bhajans* (songs), *keertans*, must be arranged, fairs and festivals are the cultural context of development-administration.⁴⁹

This is in brief cultural context of development-administration. Thus, the social, economic, political and cultural contexts are called as the settings of development-administration. All these are the variables or dimensions. And these variables or dimensions or settings or factors are inter-related, inter-dependent and inter-connected. One influences and affects and is influenced and affected by the other.⁵⁰

5. Pedagogical Aspects

Development has become a major focus of administrative activity in the country today. There has been an increasing

recognition in recent years in parliament, in the press, in academic questions and among the articulate interest groups of the need for gearing the administrative machinery to the new development tasks and responsibilities. The mounting failure in the implementation of schemes, plans and programmes, the growing dissatisfaction of the citizens with the administrative, the slowing down the rates of economic growth the soaring prices, frequent droughts and similar other disquieting developments in more recent times have lent a new urgency to the problem of administrative recognition and reform. The government has become more alive to the necessity of re-orienting and adopting the administrative organisation and procedures to promote effective and fuller realisation of development goals, policies and programmes. At the centre this is evidenced by the appointment of a plethora of working groups on problems of programme administration, enquiries on functional aspects of administration, the creation of special research units and agencies, establishment of organisation and methods units, the administrative reform department, and the setting up of administrative reforms commission in 1966 which completed its work in March 1970.⁵¹ A similar effort, though on lesser scale, has also been made in most of the states. As a result a number of studies and investigations have been carried out on some of the basic problems of development-administration.

Further, the field of public policy has yet been left relatively untouched by the rigorous scientific investigation and has begun to characterise much of contemporary political science. Although political scientists have spent an enormous amount of time, energy and resources studying political processes and the context in which those processes occur, little attention has been paid to policy studies and four related observations may be made about policy studies in general.

First, in terms of policy focus, the concern of most writers is with the merits of the policy. Is it a good policy or not or does it satisfy appropriate values is it administered fairly? Is it comprehensive? Are the funds spent too large or too small? By and large, political scientists who are interested in explaining how and why policies develop the way they do have attempted to shy away from these kinds of questions.

Secondly, in terms of approach the research is problem-oriented in the sense that, the authors speak of problems to be solved with appropriate policies. To think in terms of solutions to problems is to direct ones energies away from discovery (the hallmark of the scientific enterprise) and toward a way of doing things which may not be realistically related to the data being studied.

Third, the research is action-oriented in that political scientists doing policy studies often would like to have an impact on the policy to which they address themselves. It is not only their fellow colleagues for whom they write. It is governmental decision-makers and opinion leaders as well.

Fourth, in terms of research design, the research is often on a single policy, a case study. The pitfalls of case studies for theory building are well known; but since traditional studies of public policy are problem-oriented and action-oriented and focus the debate on the merits of specific policies, the case study format is perfectly appropriate to the aims of the researchers. But for those interested in developing a scientific inquiry, alternative research designs may be more desirable.

Notes and References

1. Fred, W. Riggs, "The Context of Development Administration" in *Frontiers*, p. 105.
2. Administrative system is not a unidimensional, it is multi-dimensional. Some of its studies include B.F. Hoselitt's

Sociological Aspects of Economic Growth, (Glencoe, Ill, Free Press, 1960), *Social Aspects of Economic Development* (Ithaca, N.Y. Cornell University Press, 1951), David C. McClelland, *The Achieving Society* (Princeton, N.J.P. Van Nostrand, 1961).

3. *Economic Survey*, Government of India, 1984-85, p. 29.
4. The main Contributors to Ecological Study of Development Administration or Robert A. Dahl, John. A., Gaus, F.W. Riggs etc.
5. William L. Morrow, *Public Administration Politics, Policy and the Political System*, Random House, 1975-89, pp. 3-6.

Development-administration has many dimensions such as social, economic, political, cultural, administrative etc.

6. B. Kumar; *Planning, Poverty and Economic Development*, p. 13.
7. Gerald Caiden, *The Dynamic of Public Administration*, Holt, Rinehart 1971, p. 188.

Social system is not independent on the other hand it is interdependent. It is closely related to the other systems.

8. Pfiffner and Sherwood, *Administrative Organisation*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey 1960, p. 77.
9. Bhambri, C.P. The Zagirdari system is a part and parcel of Zamindari System. It also have many evils hindering progress. The exploitation of people is the primary goal in them.
10. Steward and Shimkim, *op. cit.*, p. 479.
11. Manfred Stanley, "Social Development as a Normative Concept," *JDA*, 1,3 (1967), pp. 301-02 (emphasis included).
12. One of the better works in this context include: Bernard J. Siegel, "Some Recent Developments in Studies of Social and Cultural Change." *AAA* (1966), pp. 137-53.
13. Pfiffner and Sherwood, *op. cit.*, p. 311. Those who are having lands are called as have and those who do not have are havenots.
14. William H. Friedland, "A Sociological Approach to Modernisation", in Chandler Morse (Ithaca : Cornell University, Press, 1969), p. 36.

More than 40 per cent of the people in India live below poverty line (BPL). They are not in a position to satisfy their basic needs like food, shelter and clothing.

15. Emile Durkheim, *The Division of Labour in Society*, (Glencoe, III : Fress Press, 1960).

Most of the people engage or involve in anti-social activities. The root cause of all these activities is poverty.

16. Riggs, "The context of Development Administration." The Devadasi System i.e., offering women to Gods and Goddesses are still prevalent in most of the parts of India. This is an evil practice it should be rooted out.
17. Ralph Piddington, *An Introduction to Social Anthropology*, (Edinburgh, Oliver and Boyd, 1952), volume, p. 219.

The Government of India has launched so many programmes like Garib Hatao (Remove Poverty), Stree Shakti (empowerment of women), Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (Giving loans to unemployed Youths) etc. Still poverty is persistent in India.

18. Steward and Shimkin, *op. cit.*, pp. 479-84.
Corruption is like a cancer it paralyses each and every part of the body. Until and unless bureaucrats are efficient, honest, devoted and dedicated we cannot hope of social justice or social welfare.
19. Alfred Diamant "The Relevance of Comparative Politics to the Study of Comparative Administration," in *ASQ* 5 (June 1960, p..87.
20. Robert T. Holt, "Comparative Politics and Comparative Administration," in *Frontiers*, pp. 306, 309-310.
21. Milton J. Esman, *CAG and the Study of Public Administration in ibid.*, p. 46.

We cannot study politics without taking into consideration the state machinery, governmental machinery and administrative machinery. The study of the politics becomes incomplete without study of the above branches.

22. H.J. Morgenthau, *Politics among the Nations*. In the above book Prof. Morgenthau said that like all politics, international politics is a struggle for power. Power is the heart and soul of politics. It is the central concept of politics.
23. Gorwala, A.D., *The Role of Administrator* Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, 1952.

This statement is reproduced from see, Friedrich, title *An*

Introduction to Political Theory, 1972, Wido Publishing House, (Mumbai), p. 19.

24. J.P. Mayer, *Max Weber and German Politics: A Study in Political Sociology* (London: Faber and Faber Ltd., 1944), p. 58.

This statement is found in the book written by Harold Lasswell entitled *Who gets, What, When and How*.

25. Heady, *Public Administration. A Comparative Perspective*, pp. 106, 78. *Ibid.*, p. 110.

Policy formulation is the job of politicians while implementation is the job of civil servants.

26. Fred W. Riggs, "Bureaucratic Politics in Comparative perspective," in *Frontiers*, p. 391. 81. *Ibid.* p. 399.

We cannot think of public welfare or public progress or development without removing these evil practices prevailing in administration.

27. See among others, Edward Shils, "The Intellectuals in the Political Development of the New States," *WP* 12,3 (April 1960), pp. 329-368.

In India we found multiparty system. This leads to political instability and economic decay.

28. Gabriel, A. Almond, "Political Development Analytical and Normative perspectives," *CPS* 1, 4 (January 1969), p. 448.

Now-a-days everything is possible in Politics. Prof. Bismark said "Politics is the art of Possible." Money is everything in this world. We cannot think of politics without money power, muscle power and mafia power.

29. Palombara, *Political Science and the Engineering of National Development*, p. 43.

Aristotle wrote a great book known as *Politics*. In his Book he said "a man without society is either a beast or a God."

30. A.F.K. Organski, *The Stages of Political Development*, (New York Knopf, 1965). Prof. R.N. Sharma and R.K. Sharma wrote a book entitled *Political Sociology*. In that book they emphasised that a compulsory element in every political system is political participation. Political participation gives public sanction to the government.

31. Prof. Adam Smith wrote a book known as *Wealth of Nations* and

he is a great economist and said that "Economic is the study of Wealth."

32. Vishnool Bhagwan and Vidya Bhushan, *Public Administration*, p. 40.
33. For a detailed discussion or the summary of his view see G.B. Sharma. "Social Composition of Indian Bureaucracy some reflections on its representatives," in Ramesh K. Arora, *Indian Administrative System*, New Delhi, 1978, pp. 200-223.
34. Fred, W. Riggs, *The Ecology of Public Administration*, Asia, New Delhi, 1961, pp. 4-5.
35. Arora, Ramesh Kumar. "Administrative levels of Functional Differentiation" in *A Comparative Study of India and U.S.*
36. B. Kumar, *Planning, Poverty and Economic Development*, Deep and Deep Publications, New Delhi, 1984, p. 53.
37. Left which Adviran (1993), "Democracy and Development in the Third World," *Third World Quarterly*, Volume 14, Number 3.

That means encouraging both the public and private sectors for better competitions. This will lead to the welfare of the people.

38. Pfiffner and Sherwood, *Administrative Organisation* pp. 224-225 and Vishnool Bhagwan and Vidya Bhushan, pp. 203- 222.
39. Robert Presthus, *Public Administration*, 1975, p. 83.
40. Gerald Caiden, *The Dynamics of Public Administration*, Holt Rinehart, 1971, p. 188.

Giving Benamilands means Government lands to the poor, landless formers or workers.

41. Jone Veloso Abueva, Abueva's Administrative Culture is actually adapted from Almond's and Verbas. The Civic Culture. Abueva notes that the "Administrative Culture is but an aspect of the political culture, which in turn is a part of the total cultural of a given society", In Abueva, *Ibid*, p. 135, see also Dwight Waldo in Roscoe Martin (ed). *Public Administration and Democracy* (Syracuse Univ. Press, 1965).
42. Sidney Verba, "Comparative Political Culture" in Lucian Pye and Sidney Verba (eds.) *Political Culture and Political Development* (Princeton Univ. Press, 1965), p. 513.

43. Talcott Parsons and N.J. Smelser, *Economy and Society* (Glencoe, III: The Free Press, 1956), p. 246.

No clear-cut lines of demarcation can be drawn to say that here culture ends and Administration begins.

44. Simon Marcson, "Social Change and Social Structure" in *Transitional Societies*, (September 1960), p. 250.

We witness in India that there is a great deal of gulf or gap or lag between political and administrative culture.

45. The abbreviations denotes :

Block Development Officer	(BDO)
Assistant Development Officer	(ADO)
Village Development Officer	(VDO)
Indian Administrative Service	(IAS)

46. India is a land of so many castes, creeds, languages, races etc., we found heterogeneity in our culture, still the motto is Unity in Diversity.
47. The meaning of the statement is "Indians are good planners but bad doers." The fruits of planning have failed to reach the masses.
48. The bureaucracy should be efficient, effective, fast, and hierarchically organised. It is to be rule-oriented *i.e.*, follow strictly the official rules, regulations, procedures etc. Further, the procedures of bureaucracy should be simplified.
49. Entertainment facilities must be provided by the government to the rural masses. Games, sports, songs must be arranged.
50. All these four contexts or dimensions cannot be separated or divorced from each other. They cannot be understood in isolation. They are inter-related.
51. Stene Edwin, O., "An approach to a Science of Public Administration." *APSR* 34 (1940), pp. 1124-1137.

Planning and Development-Administration

Meaning and Implications

Planning is derived from the French word *Provoyance* means looking ahead.¹

Planning is an integral part of development administration. Chronologically, it precedes all decision-making and action.² Broadly speaking, a plan is a scheme, a design, or a frame work of programme of action, work, activities etc. Planning helps in the promotion of economic growth and employment and social objectives. It is felt that planning makes economic and social development easier by providing for explicit analysis and evaluation of alternative policies and that it can systematically resolve competing demands and conflicts.

Planning is a fruitful way of doing something.³ It is a preparation for the future. It determines in advance what should be done. Planning in its broad sense means preparation for action. In simple language planning means to act after proper thinking and cool deliberation. Planning is a universal factor in all-human activities—individual or social. It is a

rational process of human behaviour. It is the determination of what is to be done, how and where it is to be done, who is to do, how results are to be evaluated.⁴

It is said that Indians are good planners but bad doers.⁵ Planning is a rational, dynamic and integrative process. Planning is not an end in itself, rather it is a means to an end.⁶ It is an instrument to reach certain goals fixed by policy-makers. Without planning it is rather difficult to achieve any targets. Planning both at administrative and economic levels has come to stay. It is occupying a very important and significant place in our social, economic, political and educational set up.⁷ Open mind and flexibility in approach is essential for a good plan. Political review, evaluation, re-decision are essential to sound planning. A good plan is flexible, comprehensive and integrative. Planning is not confined to any single branch of knowledge. It comprehends many disciplines. It is an exercise in co-ordination, integration and synthetisation. The field of planning is very vast and comprehensive as it involves the cooperation of the politicians, economists, sociologists and engineers etc.⁸ Planning cannot be successful if it is not taken as a collective effort. Planning is nothing but clarifying one's objectives and then determining what action shall be taken by whom, when, by what methods and at what costs in order to achieve the desired goals.

A few definitions will make the point clear. Dimock defines, "It is the use of rational design, as contrasted with chance, the reaching of a decision before a line of action is taken instead of improving after the action has started."

Seckler-Hudson defines it as "the process of defining a basis for course of future action." According to S.Y. Krishnaswamy, "planning is a means to an end and not an end in itself." It is an instrument for carrying out whatever goals are laid down by the framers of the policy.

To Pfiffner planning like research embraces a wide range of duties and functions.

Steps in Planning

Planning in development-administration is an organised effort involving many steps.⁹ Important ones are the following:

First Step: The first step in planning involves the determination of the objectives. Objectives are laid down by the policy-makers who are always political men. Thus, it is a policy decision and therefore, political is its nature.

Second Step: Selecting the best alternative. Out of all the available alternative only the best available is adopted, so that there may not be wastage of time, energy and maximum benefits may be achieved.

Third Step: Selecting the best means. The best means are selected for achievements of objectives. Selecting the right methods is indeed a difficult task and requires much care.

Fourth Step: Allocation of resources. The planning authority has to arrange the priorities and distribute the resources among the objectives in an order of priority.

Fifth Step: The administration has to implement the plan as finally approved.

Sixth Step: Evaluation. The planning authority has to modify the plan in the light of the experience gained. The choice is initially tentative. The alternatives are tested in operation and the best course is finally chosen.

Eighth Step: It involves identification of the policy control variable in terms of policy instruments used in the plan implementation.

Ninth Step: The final step in planning becomes an important input into the process of learning by doing.

Characteristics of Good Plan

The following are the characteristics of a good plan namely:

Planning means fore thought. It always involves forecasting. The basis of planning must be the facts.

Characteristics

- (1) It means forecasting as it always deals with the future.
- (2) It involves selection of particular course of action.
- (3) It is pervasive. It operates at every level.
- (4) Inter-dependability co-ordination consistency are the characteristics of the planning process.
- (5) It has to be flexible, sufficiently broad-based.
- (6) It is a continuous process. It is a never ending activity-regular.
- (7) Plans should be comprehensive, it is simple as far as possible.
- (8) It should be reasonably economical.
- (9) No ambiguities in a good plan.
- (10) It is action leading led to action.
- (11) Flexible.
- (12) Balanced.
- (13) Well defined objectives.
- (14) Uses the available resources to the utmost.

Basic Contents

Effective planning involves answering the following basic questions:

- (1) What action is to be taken?
- (2) Why is that particular action is necessary?
- (3) Where will it be done?
- (4) When will it be done?
- (5) Who will do it?
- (6) With what will it be done?
- (7) How will it be done?

Elements of Planning

(1) *Aim:*

Plans must be purposive. It must have definite aim. Other wise it stands nowhere. The aim should be precisely defined. So as to guide direct the activities of the enterprise.

(2) *Objectives:*

Objective or goals may be described as the end the aim. It is essential before taking any course of aim and objectives must be clearly determined, well understood and sufficiently defined, well defined objectives and goals lead to continuous growth and progress. They must be also realistic and reachable.

(3) *Policies:*

It is essential for effective group working. It is an excellent means to achieve an intended, objective types of policies are basic general, departmental.

(4) *Procedures:*

Procedures are also plans in as much as they involve a course of procedures are action steps final interview, medical check up, appointment, orientation.

(5) *Methods:*

Methods means work plans and standard methods contributed to efficiency. Methods are generally used in manufacturing and office work.

(6) *Rules:*

It demands specific and definite action be taken. Generally we find no smoking sign and boards prominently displayed in the factories. This is good example of a rule and management insists the workers to strictly observe.

(7) *Budgets:*

It means annual financial statement containing the income and expenditure for a year, quantitative terms. Anticipated results may be expressed in financial terms or non-financial. Budgets are drawn on the basis of well defined specific plans policies. It covers specific period.

(8) *Programmes:*

The constituents of a programme include objectives (goals), policies, procedures, rules, methods, resources.

(9) *Strategies:*

It plays a very important role in the planning process. It makes known. It is a special kind of plans.

Types of Planning

Administrative Planning

It is also called as governmental planning covered all the governmental policies, programmes and projects. In every government department activities are properly planned. This plan is based upon research and fact-findings.

Administrative planning is divided or broken up into policy planning, programme-planning and operational-planning.

(i) *Policy planning:*

It is concerned with the laying down broad outlines of administrative action. It includes objectives of administration action. Policy planning is political in nature, usually it is formulated by the legislature or the executive.¹⁰ Thus, it occurs at the top level. Policy planning is done at the top level. However, public officials assist the legislature or the chief executive in formulating public policies. In this type

legislature or the chief executive plays the very important and dominant role in preparation and formulation of the plans.

It is government's attitude towards the ends and means. The end here is improvement of the physical, economical, moral health of the people. The means employed here are to plan a ban on drinking and sale of drinks.

(ii) *Programme planning*:

Programme planning is the function of the middle management, divisional branches and sections heads. This is usually the tasks of top and middle management. In India programme planning is done by the secretaries with the assistance of the heads of line departments. Top management is concerned only with guidance and advice.¹¹

(iii) *Operational planning*:

It is the plan regarding the implementation of programmes and projects. It is the task of the operational agencies. This is a plan which is related at the implementation stage. This is a plan which concerned with the filling up of the minor details at the implementation stage. It is, in fact, the workshop stage of programme planning.¹²

Thus, planning is intimately or closely related or connected with administration. Broadly speaking, policy-making is done by the planner while its implementation rests with the administration.

Under the British Raj or rule the state in India was only a police state confined only to the maintenance of law and order. It performed only negative functions, *i.e.*, maintenance of law and order, security and preservation. Modern state in India is a welfare or positive state. It has to look after food, clothing, shelter of the people. Today state assumes positive,

constructive and development roles to meet the popular needs.

Overall Planning

It is called by different names, like socio-economic planning, total planning etc. Overall planning aims at allround development.¹³ It is a comprehensive planning. It aims at all round socio-economic development of the country. Overall planning is nothing but a total or full or a complete plan. It is a planning of entire economy. It is a plan in the social, economic, political and cultural, educational set-up. A total revolution is required to root out child-marriage, caste-system, and dowry-system. It is concerned with the removing of all difficulties-political, social, economic and cultural that stand in the way of country's economic growth. It aims at promoting standard of living.

Totalitarian Planning

Formulation implementation evaluation, revision, supervision-adoption are connected to planning commission. It is also called as authoritarian planning.¹⁴ In the totalitarian planning state is all powerful, all in all, every thing, all inclusive. State includes everything. State is all embracing. State controls the individual and the group, state controls every aspect of human life both political and non-political from cradle to grave. State opposed all democratic values, means and methods *i.e.*, equality, freedom of discussion. State is glorified over the individual. The individual has no voice in plan formulation. Individual must completely surrender to the state. Everything is within the state nothing is outside and against the state. Economic decisions are centralised in planning commission. Planning commission controls and regulates the entire economy. It gives bread but

not liberty. There is an imposition from the above. State is an end in itself—individual is the means. Individual has no rights but he has only duties. Every thing is socialist property, private property is totally abolished, no private property. Agriculture is carried on in state farms or collective farms. The land, water, forests, mills, factories, mines, railways, air transportation, banks, means of communications are state property. There is only one form of income *i.e.*, labour income. There is no private income. The production is for use and not for profit. Such types of planning are found in communist countries. War is glorified. War is to a man what maternity or pregnancy is to a women. Women is a biological tool or child bearing machine, said Mussolini. Planning is not only centralised but imposed from the above.

Democratic Planning

As distinct from totalitarian planning is democratic planning as is seen in India. Independence gave India political freedom. But it was empty and without substance in the absence of economic freedom. Inequalities were to be reduced and minimum living standards raised. And these ends were to be achieved by the use of the democratic process. People's participation was to be enlisted at every stage.¹⁵ Planning was to be decentralised. It must start at the grassroots level. And it must be planning not by direction but by inducement. Each panchayat was to prepare its plan on the basis of its own needs. These duly co-ordinated at the Block, Zilla and state levels will yield the state plan. The Planning Commission integrates the state plans into the national plan. This is placed before the country for a national debate. The ideas and suggestions thrown up in the course of the debate are incorporated into the national plan. It is then placed before the National Development Council (NDC) consisting of the

Prime Minister as Chairman, the union ministers for food, home finance and defence are the members of the planning commission and the Chief Ministers of the states. The draft plan is fully discussed and decisions taken. It is then placed before parliament whose approval invests it with the sanctity of law. The plan as finally adopted is implemented by the central ministries and the state governments in their respective spheres. There is public participation at all levels especially at the level of policy formulation and at the level of policy implementation. What is aimed at is a revolution by consent. The objective is the establishment of a classless society through democratic means. Inequality is to be reduced not through the expropriation of the rich by violent means but through the levelling down of the higher incomes. Unlike authoritarian and planning democratic planning leaves no trace of bitterness behind and averts the danger of a class-war. Democratic planning retains the market mechanism and works through it. It seeks a better balance between demand and supply through a conscious and thoughtful control of both. It is, thus, planning by inducement rather than by imposition from above.

India drew her inspiration for planning from the USSR. But Pandit Nehru a democrat to the core could not bring himself to sacrifice the individual to the state. He, therefore, sought to achieve economic development through the democratic process. The Indian experiment in democratic planning is a unique experiment. It combines planning and socialism with democracy. It has set up a mixed economy under a parliamentary system. Our five year plans have increased our foodgrains supply. The number of industries has increased appreciably, as also their contribution to national income. Mainly sophisticated industries have come up like electronics, chemicals, plastics and investment goods

industries. Planning has built up a sound industrial base which has made her the tenth industrial country in the world. She has started exporting manufactures like engineering goods, steel, cottons, telecommunication equipment and other non-traditional items. India is now near to self-sufficiency in the production of some of the most complicated machines.

Planning being time-bound imparts a note of urgency to development. It is also result-oriented. All organisations have to plan if they are to achieve their ends. It is the only rational way to ensure quick development.

Rolling Plan

Planning has acquired a new dimension in India. The concept of rolling plan has been introduced. It means rolling of a plan at intervals, usually one year. The period of the plan is a moving period. As one year runs out another year is added at the other end. While the total duration of the plan remains constant, the starting and the terminal years change. Take the sixth plan for the 5 year period 1978–83. After the first year 1978–79 is out another year is 1983–84 is added so that the original five year plan continues to be a five year plan. The revisions and adjustments become an integral part of the technique of planning. The review of the plan at the end of one year is built into the planning process. Plan preparation becomes a continuous process. The plan automatically responds to changes like fluctuations in demand, shortfalls in production or scarcity of capital or consumer goods or labour troubles. This automatic response to change occupies a key-status in the methodology of the rolling plan. Demand projections, targets of production or resource availability may change in the course of a year and appropriate corrective measures are written into a revised plan. The five year plan perspective remains the same but the content of plan changes

every year in response to changes in given parameters. There is a five year plan but every year it is a different plan.¹⁶ So the plans came to be called the rolling plans.

A rolling plan is claimed to be more flexible and more realistic. Care should be taken to see that the content of the plan is not watered down, the targets not lowered and that adequate resources are raised to realise the targets originally set.

Planning Process

A plan is not so important as the planning. The final responsibility for planning policies, objectives, approaches, and decisions lies with the government. These are reached in the normal way by a process of political bargaining and persuasion among the political and planners.

<i>Sl. No.</i>	<i>Plan</i>	<i>Plan Period</i>
1.	First Five Year Plan	1951 – 56
2.	Second Five Year Plan	1956 – 61
3.	Third Five Year Plan	1961 – 66
4.	Plan Holiday	1966 – 69
5.	Fourth Five Year Plan	1969 – 74
6.	Fifth Five Year Plan	1974 – 79*
7.	Rolling Plan	1979 – 80**
8.	Sixth Five Year Plan	1980 – 85
9.	Seventh Five Year Plan	1985 – 90
10.	Eighth Five Year Plan	1990 – 91***
		1992 – 97
		(1.4.92 to 31.3.1997)

* The Fifth Plan (1.4.1974 to 31.3.1979) had to be terminated one year ahead of its schedule on 31.3.1978 owing to assumption of power by the Janata Party at the Centre in 1977.

****** The Janata Government at the Centre introduced the concept of Rolling Plan according to which a Five Year Plan (1978- 83) was drawn up but it was to be revised every year in the context of the achievements and available resources. The experiment of the Rolling Plan was short-lived and had to be discontinued with the return to political power of the Congress under the leadership of Indira Gandhi.

*******No plan could be finalised during the unstable regimes of the Janata Dal and the Samajwadi Janata Dal (that is, between December 1989 and June 1991).

Administrative Leadership

The planning process has three stages, namely, (a) Plan formulation, (b) Plan implementation, and (c) Plan evaluation.

Plan Formulation

Since the introduction of development planning, India's Five Year Plans have been based on selective planning models from period to period. The First Five Year Plan was based on the Harrod-Domer model and laid emphasis on "fiscal policy aimed at raising domestic savings to the degree required by the projected investment levels that result from planned income expansion and the estimated marginal capital output ratio." The Second Five Year Plan was based on the structural model of Friedman Mahalanobis and focussed on "determining and controlling the pattern of investments." The Third Five Year Plan laid stress on achieving inter-industrial consistency in some detail. The Fifth Five Year Plan was based on the "multi-sectoral consistency model" which comprised "a macro-economic input-output and consumption sub-models." The Sixth Draft 1978-83 Plan (Prepared under the Janata Government at the Centre) was based on a

consistency model and laid emphasis on relating proposed objectives with development strategy. In 1980 the new government terminated the Janata Government Plan of 1978-83 and launched a new plan without any plan holiday and hence the Sixth Plan period was begun from 1980. The Sixth Plan 1980-85 and the Seventh Plan (1985-90) have again switched over to the status of "Static fixed plan" instead of "rolling plan system." The Eighth Plan (1992-97) is indicative in nature with emphasis on privatisation.

Here an attempt is made to discuss the plan formulation at three levels, namely (1) National, (2) State, and (3) District.

(1) *National Planning*

Planning has been listed under the concurrent list in India's Constitution. This means that the work for planning lies with both the centre and the states with the provision that in the case of conflict, the will of the Centre shall prevail. The centre is responsible for the planning of major industries, railways, ports, national highways, shipping, telecommunications, etc. The state governments have the responsibility of planning agriculture, irrigation, power, education, health, social services, small industries, road, road transport, minor ports, etc. The regulation and management of fiscal and monetary policies and principal financial institutions of the country rests with the central government. The centre has also the added responsibility of coordinating and incorporating the state plans into national plans.

Five year plan consists of plans for the centre, union territories and states, and plans for the private sector, especially the corporate sector.

Stages in Plan Formulation: The process of formulation of a Five year plan is time-consuming and beings generally about two to three years in advance of its actual

commencement. The National Development Council, the Planning Commission, the Ministries of the Central and State Governments, the private sector (through its representatives), and above all parliament are all involved in this exercise. The process of formulating a plan has mainly five stages.¹⁷

- (a) During the first stage, studies are undertaken to review the economy, assess resource availability for investment, etc. Tentative conclusions arrived at as a result of these studies help to formulate the general approach to the next Five Year Plan. These findings are submitted by the Planning Commission to the Union Cabinet. They are then placed before the National Development Council which indicates the growth rates and other objectives to be attained in its approach to planning.
- (b) The second stage relates to 'Preparation of Memorandum' which is prepared in the light of the tentative rate of growth directed by the National Development Council. Simultaneously, plans for individual sectors and different states are prepared by the administration of the central and planning departments of the state governments, respectively. Then sectoral plans are prepared and placed before the Planning Commission. The administrative ministries set up Working Groups at the beginning of every five years to make recommendations on the development of sectors within its jurisdiction, *e.g.*, the Ministry of Transport sets up Working Groups on roads, ports, etc. Members of the Working Groups consist of representatives of the concerned official and non-official organisations, experts in the field, representatives of the ministry, the Planning Commission and the Finance Ministry,

etc. The findings submitted by the working groups are considered by the Planning Commission. On the basis of the preliminary studies and recommendations of the Working Groups and discussions with the various interests, the Commission prepares Draft Memorandum which is presented to the Union Cabinet and then placed before the National Development Council.

- (c) The third stage relates to the preparation of a Draft Five year Plan which is got ready in the light of the observations made by the National Development Council on the Draft Memorandum. The Draft outline indicates broad features of the various sectoral programmes and spells out the main policy measures needed to carry them out. Both the central government and the state governments sponsor seminars and discussions on the document. The Consultative committee of Parliament for the Planning Ministry and Parliament as a whole discuss in detail all aspects of the plan.
- (d) In the fourth stage, work is directed towards the preparation of the final report on the Five Year Plan. The Planning Commission, in association with the concerned administrative ministry, holds meetings to discuss in detail the sectional plans with regard to the feasibility of the physical targets within the estimated financial outlays. The discussion on the state plans pertains to the study of their estimates of resources, proposals to raise additional resources as well as proposals for sectoral developments etc. The state plans are first discussed with the representatives of the state governments and then with the chief ministers for agreed physical targets financial outlays

as well as the centre's delegation to provide financial help.

- (e) The fifth stage relates to the preparation of the final plan document. The comments and suggestions on the plan thrown up during these discussions are taken onto consideration. The final document outlines the objectives, policy directives, and programmes of the plan. This is then submitted to the National Development Council after getting the approval of the Cabinet. The National Development Council after discussing the final plan document approves it with or without amendments. Thereafter it is placed before the parliament for discussion and approval. It is only obtaining Parliament's approval that the plan becomes operative.

(2) State planning

Each State has, by now, evolved a planning agency and procedure for the preparation of its own plan.¹⁸ This relates to formulation of village, block, district and state plans. It is a top down process, and not the other way round. The state plans are formulated in detail for each sector, district and block. They include details regarding available financial resources as well as proposed measures to mobilise additional resources. Often the state plans are discussed in detail with the planning commission with a view to securing consistency of the development process within the available resources and planning objectives.

The main agency for the formulation of a state plan is the State Planning Department which works directly under the chief minister or minister of the state. This department acts as a link between the planning commission and various departments of the state government. It is also responsible

for coordination of the programmes of development and formulation of the development plan for the state as a whole. As in the case of the planning commission at the centre, the planning board at the state level sets up specialised working groups to examine the state of the economy and other aspects of planning as well as the proposals of the departments. These working groups consider the views of the planning commission. The findings of the working groups are then considered by the State Planning Board. It prepares a plan in the light of the main guidelines received from the planning commission and the general directives of the council of ministers of the state. Some states have constituted state planning board for the formulation, review and evaluation of plan programmes and schemes. These boards help the state planning departments. They consist of selected ministers, officials and non-officials. The plans prepared by the state planning departments are submitted first to the state councils of ministers, then to the states development Boards (on the pattern of the National Development Council) and finally to the state legislature for their approval.

(3) District planning

Below the state level, there exist in most states District Planning Committees. Planning at the district and block levels is done jointly by officers of the development departments and a number of non-official representatives. The district officers and the block development officers work on the preparation of plans at the district and block levels respectively. These planning authorities at the districts and block levels make an assessment of their own resources and needs, and formulate programmes/schemes for the development of their respective areas.

So sum up, the formulation of a plan requires (i) coordi-

nation among all units of the planning system, (ii) relevant, accurate and correct data, (iii) identification of ends, goals and objectives, and (iv) feasible and satisfactory choices from among alternative actions.

Plan Implementation

The implementation process begins with the acceptance and approval of the plan by policy makers. It translates the plan from paper into practice. It is not a purely technical or engineering operation; it depends on institutional and political considerations. Responsibility for the implementation of the plan remains with the respective ministries of the centre and states. "The planning commission continues to watch and report on its implementation, assists the central and state executive agencies to the extent necessary, advises on changes and adjustments and otherwise helps to ensure that the basic economic and fiscal policies are in conformity with the requirements of the Plan."

However, looking from a broader point of view, plan implementation requires coordination, cooperation and commitment at all levels of its machinery from the government departments at the centre and the states through the various non-secretariat organisations autonomous corporations, boards, etc. down to the organisation in the field at the project, district or village level. It requires the support of the political elites, the bureaucracy and people's participation.

- (i) *Role of political elites and bureaucracy:* Though, responsibility for the execution of the plan rests with the respective governments, political elites play a vital role in supporting them. It has been found that a plan, after its full approval by the political authorities, is sometimes shelved due to political consideration. For example, the Fifth Five year Plan, which was

scheduled to be completed in 1979, was terminated a year earlier in March 1978. Therefore, politicians can be very effective in promoting plan implementation by using their authority to control and coordinate economic and social activities.

Apart from political elites, bureaucrats play a crucial role in plan implementation. Perhaps it is the bureaucracy on which the success of plan implementation depends. In principle, individual ministries and regional administrators have the responsibility for executing their own plans. It is the bureaucrats in the ministries and departments who implement strategies and goals outlined in the plan. They not only implement plans but also come to know the shortcomings involved in the process. They help to formulate plans and when approved, they execute them.

- (ii) *Ministry of Finance and Financing Institutions:* The Ministry of Finance, the state banks and all other units with control over financial resources play an important role, directly or indirectly, in plan implementation. Further, the successful implementation of plans requires close coordination between the budget office and the planning office.
- (iii) *Support of the Private Sector:* India is primarily a mixed economy country in which both the public and private sectors participate in the process of plan implementation. The private sector is influenced largely by government regulations and policy instruments, such as taxes, subsidies, industrial and environmental policies, which, in the final result, affect the profits of the private sector. The role of the government *vis-à-vis* the private sector is to create a climate of trust and

confidence that will enable private enterprises to implement the development tasks mapped out by the planners.

- (iv) *People's Participation*: In plan implementation, people's participation is equally vital. V. Subramanian writes: "But the success of any programme of action depends on response to it of the citizens and particularly the class of people whom the programme is intended to benefit." He adds: A people's plan cannot be a people's plan unless it has an inbuilt flexibility so that adjustment and mid-term corrections are possible in the light of several factors and circumstances which come to the fore during the implementation of the programme. Thus, there is need for strong support from people representing all segments of society. Furthermore, institutional arrangements, such as Panchayati Raj, voluntary organisations, and cooperative institutions, must be strengthened in the interests of plan implementation.

- (v) *Promotion of Multinational Technical Cooperation*: Although India is a sovereign country which need not depend on other countries, the need for multinational joint action in project implementation becomes particularly evident in such major projects as irrigation, river basin development, environmental pollution and control of endemic diseases. In this context, multinational cooperation for plan implementation would benefit all partners.¹⁹

Plan Evaluation

No planning, however sound, can eliminate all the difficulties of development in a real sense. Therefore, there is a need for systematic and objective evaluation of plan results compared

with the original goals. Continuous appraisal of a plan may be done at all levels—sectoral, regional and local. Such appraisal would enable the government departments to decide on the concrete steps it should take to achieve the desired objectives.²⁰ For the efficient implementation of a plan there should be purposeful control systems for individual projects and these should be appropriately linked up with budget control as well as with the overall control of plan implementation.

Ashok Rudra writes that “the preparation of a five year plan involves simultaneously (a) appraising of past trends and performance, (b) assessment of major current problems, and (c) determination of measures and policies for future growth. Along with these an attempt is made to take stock of the knowledge of the natural, material and human resources which may have become available in the course of the preceding plan and to assess the significance of economic and social data for understanding the structure and functioning of different parts of the economy. These appraisals and surveys call for the cooperation of a large number of agencies and institutions, both within and outside the government.”

The report of the Administrative Reforms Commission on the machinery for planning recommended “that the Planning Commission should bring out every year a progress report on the performance of the plan programme both in the public and private sectors. The report should be presented to the parliament within six months of the completion of the Plan year.” Similarly the state planning Boards should also prepare progress reports on State plan and present them to them to State Legislature within six months of the close of the relevant year.

It may be pointed out that at present adequate organisation and systems do not exist for the monitoring and evaluation of plan programmes at different levels.

At the central level, a separate Ministry of Programme Implementation has been set up for monitoring tasks. Yet, of late the monitoring system at various levels has got into a stereotyped mechanism handling routine information.

At the state level, monitoring and evaluation arrangements are very poor. In the state of Punjab, an evaluation system was set up in June 1966. Although there is provision for annual evaluation of plans as well as of five year plans as a whole, evaluation reports do not indicate the true picture of the economy of the state.

Planning Machinery

Preparation of five year plan, both at the national and state levels, is a time consuming and complex process. It involves many planning agencies—The National Development Council, the Central Planning Commission and the State Planning Board. The structure and the role of these agencies are as follows.

(1) Role of the National Development Council (NDC)

The NDC is playing a vital role in the economy of our country though it is an advisory body to advise the centre as well as the states, yet its discussions bear the stamp of certainty and carry conviction to the people since Prime Minister presides over its meeting and all the members of the planning commission and the chief ministers of the states are present. It provides a good forum to the chief minister to discuss the plan in all its aspects and finalise it. The central government in this way ensures the co-operation of the states before getting it approved by the Parliament. After approval of the plan by the NDC the approval of the parliament also comes sooner than later. When the time of the implementation of the plan

comes, the states extend their full support to the centre. In this way, with the hearty co-operation of all it becomes easier for the centre to implement it and achieve the targets. When the plan is approved by the NDC and the parliament, it becomes a National plan and the heartiest co-operation of the people is always forthcoming.

(2) The Planning Commission in India

The Central agency for planning in India is Planning Commission. It came into existence in 1950. The present strength of the commission is eight including the chairman. At present Prime Minister is the Chairman of the Planning Commission. Planning Commission is neither a constitutional nor stationary body. It is the supreme organ of planning in India. Its most important duty is to formulate development plans and to secure their execution. It formulates the various five years plans. It is functioning in an impressive way. It is located in an impressive building "Yojana Bhavan" in New Delhi. It is a combination of experts and public representatives.²¹ The commission has defence, finance and home ministers on the one hand and economists and scientists of eminence as its members on the other. The full time members of the commission other than minister-members have been persons with different backgrounds. They have been politicians, administrators, industrialists, scientists and economists. All the members of the commission are appointed by the Prime Minister for a period of 5 years. In making such appointments he consults Dy. Chairman. By convention he informs the president about appointments.

Prime Minister as a Chairman presides over its meetings and in his absence Deputy Chairman. The day-to-day work of the commission is looked after by the full-time Dy. Chairmen. He obviously holds the key position in the functioning of the

commission. The planning commission is a collegiate body *i.e.*, plural. All its members work as a body. The day-to-day work of the commission is carried on by the full-time members. They meet regularly for disposing off business.

The commission has a secretary who heads the administrative organisation. He is assisted by joint, deputy, under secretaries and other lower staff. These functionaries carry out the normal administrative tasks of the commission. The planning commission has three major divisions

- (i) *Programme Advisors*: These advisors advise on projects and schemes and their implementation and Assist the commission in the matters requiring field study and observation. They help it in keeping close touch with the progress of planning and its implementation. Through these advisors the commissions maintains its link with the states in the field of planning.
- (ii) *The General Secretariat*: It performs co-ordinating functions. It keeps its touch with questions of general policy. It is for its internal working.
- (iii) *The Technical Divisions*: They are major functional units of the planning commission. There are 24 divisions each dealing with an important segment of planning. These divisions cover all the major components which make five years plan.

Each division is usually headed by a subject specialist, variously by known as advisor, chief etc. The head of the each division maintains close contacts with the Central Government as well as the states.

(3) *State Planning Board/Machinery*

Each state has a planning agency and it prepares the plans of

its own. This relates to formulation of village, block, district and state plans. It is a top-down process. The state plans are formulated in detail for each sector, district and block. The state planning boards have been set up in many parts of India. These boards prepare the draft of state plans in consultation with the ministers, decision-makers, experts etc. The main agency for the formulation of a state plan is the state planning department which works direct under the chief minister or minister of the state. The department acts as a link between the planning commission and various departments of the state government. It prepares and formulates the development plan for the state as a whole. The planning board consists of selected ministers, officials and non-officials. The plans prepared by the state planning department are submitted first to the state council of ministers, then to state development boards (on the pattern of NDC) and finally to the state legislature for their approval. The Boards headed by Chief Minister as its Chairman, finance Ministers as its Deputy Chairman, The Chief Secretary, finance commissioner, finance secretary, secretary and principal secretary to Chief Minister are its ex-official members.²² Besides there are 6 to 10 non-official part-time members representing different fields of specialisation.

The State Planning Board is divided into several divisions:

- (1) Agricultural and Rural Development.
- (2) Energy.
- (3) Trade and Transport.
- (4) Housing and Urban Development.
- (5) Social Services.

Functions:

- (i) It formulates state plans by utilising the state resources.

- (ii) To determine plan priorities.
- (iii) To assist district authorities in formulating their development plans.
- (iv) To identify factors which tend to retard economic and social development.

Notes and References

1. Planning first of all originated in France and being adopted by other countries such as India, Japan, the Netherlands, Sweden etc.
2. The Development Administration: Current Approaches and Trends in *Public Administration for National Development* (New York: United Nations, 1975), p. 63. Planning is prior to all decision-making and action.
3. P.R. Krishna Aiyar, *Criterion Publications*, 136 Raja Garden, New Delhi, pp. 152-154.
4. *Ibid.*, p. 155.
5. *Ibid.*, pp. 160-166.
6. Pfiffner and Sherwood, *Administrative Organisation*. pp. 224-25.
7. *Ibid.*, p. 85.
8. Marx, *Elements of Public Administration*, p. 124.
9. Quoted from Government of India, Planning Commission, Fourth Five Year Plan, New Delhi—Planning Commission, 1969, Chapter I, Section I.
10. Pfiffner, *op. cit.*, p. 100. Planning is a continuous affair. It is a cumulative process. It is a political process.
11. Patel, *I.I.P.A. Journal*, October, December, 1959, p. 460.
Programme planning is compared to a staff agency.
12. S.R. Sens article "Planning Machinery in India," Published in a *Journal of I.I.P.A.*, July - Sept. 1961, p. 221.
Operational planning is compared to in Line Agency. It is related to the execution stage.
13. The Planning Commission—An article by Shri. P.P. Agarwal published by *I.I.P.A.* March 1958. Overall planning is a

Development Planning designed to transform the very structure of an economy with a view to increasing output, income and employment.

14. E.N. Gladden, *Essentials of Public Administration* (London, Staples Press, 1953), Chapter-V.

Everything is centralised and concentrated in the planning commission including plan formulation, execution evaluation, revision etc.

15. Paul, H. Appleby, *Policy Administration* (University of Alabama Press, 1949), p. 7.

In this type of planning people participate in plan formulation and also in implementation. Here people's consent is essential in each and every step or stage. Liberty, equality and fraternity are assured to the people.

16. Read Charles E. Lindblom, *The Policy—Making Process*, Englewood Cliffs. N.J. Prentice Hall Inc; 1968 and Prof. P.R. Krishna Aiyar Book entitled *Public Administration*. pp. 159-162.
17. Administrative Reforms Commission, *Report on Machinery for Planning* (Delhi : Manager of Publications, 1968), p. 4.
18. Each and every state has now evolved a planning agency known as Planning Board.
19. B.M. Joshi, "Evaluation and Practice of Decentralized Planning in India." *The Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, January-March, 1989, pp. 105-106.
20. United Nations, *Proceedings of the Inter-regional Seminar on Organisation and Administration of Development Planning Agencies* (New York: United Nations, 1974), Vol. I, p. 41.
21. P.P. Agarwal, "The Planning Commission," *The Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol-III, October-December 1957, p. 332.
22. Ashok Chanda, *Indian Administration*, (London : George Allen and Unwin 1958), p. 92.

Organisational Aspects of Development-Administration

Introduction

The organisational aspect is the corner stone of development-administration.¹ In India, the organisational aspect of development-administration is very much the legacy of British administration.² Therefore, the organisational structure of development-administration is very much influenced by the colonial structure *i.e.* British administration.

Divisional Administration

A division is the most important unit of the state administration. A division comprises four or five districts.

The Role of the Divisional Commissioner

The Divisional Commissioner occupies the very important role in the state administration. As the very designation indicates, the Divisional Commissioner is an officer to whom the entire administration of a division is committed to. He is on the top in terms of general administration (GAD) department. The Divisional Commissioner, the Deputy

Commissioner and the Assistant Commissioner thus constitute one ladder or hierarchy and all these posts are mostly held by the officers of the Indian Administrative Service. The Assistant Commissioner would be a beginner in administration. The Deputy Commissioner would be an officer of about 5-10 years of experience while the Divisional Commissioner would be veteran of 10 years administrative experience.

The Divisional Commissioner must be considered to be the head of divisional administration. Thus, the Karnataka Government order describes him as the highest local executive authority to organise and supervise the administrative machinery in his division and to implement the policies of the government.

His role as a head of the division is briefly summed up with the following headings. As regards to Land Revenue, the Divisional Commissioner functions as the Revenue Commissioner of the division. All correspondence to the government regarding revenue matters is routed through him. Specific powers are delegated to the Revenue Commissioner under the Land Revenue Act and Rules entrusted to him. He passes the final orders in such cases. He is also the appellate authority and hears appeals against the orders of the Deputy Commissioner or the Assistant Commissioner. He reviews the various aspects of revenue administration like collection of land revenue and allied revenue dues like water rate, betterment, levy and grant of land and other important matters of land reforms. He reviews the diaries of the Deputy and Assistant Commissioners. The Divisional Commissioner, according to an annual programme, inspects revenue offices including the offices of all the district collectors, at least one sub-division in a district and one taluka office in each division.

He is equally head of the Rural Development administration. In this capacity he is designed or functions as Divisional or Area Development Commissioner. Here again the correspondence to government passes through him. He is the appellate authority under the Panchayat Raj and Local Boards Act. He reviews various developmental activities undertaken mostly through the C.D. Blocks like drinking water supply, construction of school buildings, distribution of houses, sites and construction of rural houses.

In addition, he reviews the programmes and activities in the field of agriculture, animal husbandry, horticulture co-operation, public works, irrigation etc. He inspects the child development blocks and Panchayat Samiti offices.

In the municipal field, he is the chief controlling authority of all the municipal institutions except the corporations which directly work under the control of government. In respect of municipalities he is also the appellate authority. He inspects all the city municipal corporations, councils and some of the town municipal councils and supervises their work in the field like water supply, sanitation, lighting etc. Food and civil supplies, social welfare and youth activities are mostly parts of the district office. He supervises their working as a part of the work of the district office.

The position in the field of law and order is, however, somewhat nebulous. He is, no doubt, the head of the law and order administration, and even said to be the head of the police force.

Further, he is the head of general administration. He is expected to review the entire development activity. This he mainly does through the periodical meetings of the divisional co-ordination committee which is held once in a quarter. In these meetings he comprehensively reviews the progress of the various development departments like agriculture, family

planning, education, horticulture, public health, irrigation etc.

The Divisional Commissioner also functions like an ombudsman.³ People can approach him for their grievances in respect of matters connected with Public Administration and if he is sufficiently accessible, he can indeed work as the local court at the last resort.

As the head of the divisional administration, he has also to play a ceremonial role like taking the salute on the Republic and Independence days and attend a number of public functions. As one senior officer observed, he has to be something like a lieutenant Governor.

Though not serious for development-administration he also has the powers with respect to holding elections, directing and controlling the elections through his subordinates. Similarly, on some occasions he acts as Chief Electoral Officer for election to Lok Sabha, State Assembly and if need be the other elections in his jurisdictions.

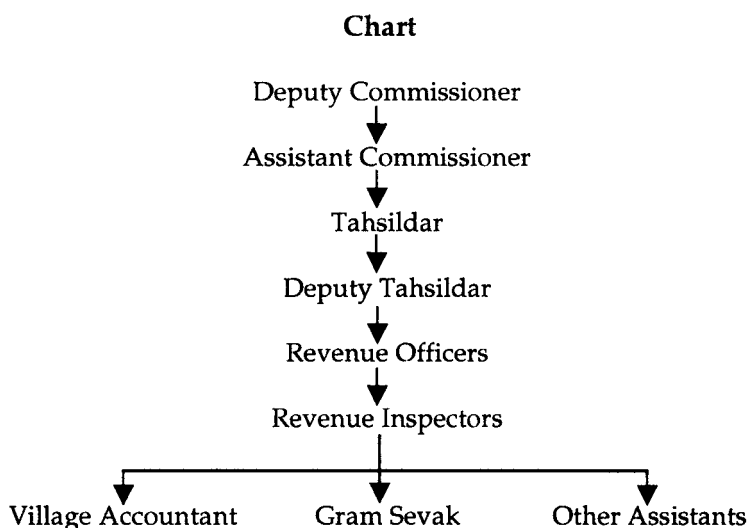
District Administration

District administration includes all the agencies of the government, the individual officials, functionaries and government servants. The definition of the district administration is quite comprehensive and it covers in details various aspects of district administration. There are various departments working at the district level, prominent among them being police, jails, health and medical education, public works department, food and civil supplies, excise, irrigation, agriculture, industries, treasury, revenue and judicial organisation.

Thus, district is the most important unit of the state administration. It is the pivot of the administration of the whole state. From revenue, law and order and development

point of view, the district is the principal unit of the administration.⁴ In general, the district collector and his staff Assistant Commissioner, Tahsildar's going right down to patwari's or village accountant are the corner stone of district administration.

The structure of the organisational aspects of development administration at the district level is described with the help of following chart.



But in this new context, the importance of the district administration continues. The basic factor is that district administration is the closest to the people and the government reaches the people through the machinery of district administration. It is through district administration that the policies and programmes for economic development and the social change in rural areas are to be implemented. Moreover, to give effect to the concept of decentralised planning, district administration is expected to formulate district development plans linked up with state and national plans.

District administration has to face new challenge and perform new tasks. The social, economic and political context in which it has to function has also undergone tremendous change during the last 53 years. The range and complexity of activities which have to be dealt with by the district administration have greatly increased. The functions of district administration today are many more than in the past and include such new activities as community development, employment schemes, family planning, public distribution system, small savings, etc.

In the beginning of the five year plan, a great deal of thought was given to refashioning the district administration so as to transform it into "a machinery of the welfare state in action." It was expected that district machinery would come closer to the people and act as an agent of change. How far have we succeeded in bringing about this transformation? Has there been a real change in the context and character of district administration? Has the district administration been able to play the role expected of it in the formulation and implementation of the development plans and programmes.

It is said that the workload of district administration has expanded the number of functionaries in district administration has gone up, but it is felt that the character of district administration has not changed much. The district development-administration has not been able, for several reasons, to evoke mass enthusiasm. District planning has, in most states, remained only as a concept. The routine functions have fallen in arrears. Land revenue and other government and co-operative dues are not fully collected. Land records are not up-to-date. Buildings are not properly maintained. Official papers and cases are not quickly disposed off.

It was expected that district machinery would be transferred into the machinery of a welfare state in action.

That has not materialised. In district administration unity of purpose is missing. The mechanism of co-ordination is weak, with the result that different limbs of district administration do not pull together but often work at cross-purposes. Growing departmentalism and organisation pluralism have created problem in district administration. District administration to be effective, must have unity of purpose and singularity of approach which is often found missing.

District administration will have to overcome these deficiencies before it is able to play its proper role in meeting new challenges and performing new tasks and functions. The reform of district administration should receive urgent attention.

Role of the Deputy Commissioner

In general the Deputy Commissioner and his staff *viz.*, Sub-divisional officers *i.e.*, Assistant Commissioner, Tahsildars going right down to patwari's are the corner stone of district administration. The role of the Deputy Commissioner has changed significantly after independence.⁵ However, he remains even today in the centre of district administration. He is considered the chief representative of the government in his district as well as the head of revenue, administration. His main function is to supervise and co-ordinate the work of sub-divisional officers, revenue officials and all other departments in the district. He is also the district magistrate.

The Deputy Commissioner has to perform multifarious duties. He plays many roles. They may be classified as under:

(1) *His Duties as a Collector*

As a collector he is the head of the revenue administration of his district. He is responsible for collection and recovery of the land revenue and other dues of the government. He is

called upon to collect the customs-taxes, income-taxes, excise-taxes. All officers of the revenue department of the District-Assistant Commissioner. Tashildars, Naib-Tahsildars, Revenue Inspectors, and Patwari's work under his direction, supervision and sees that the land revenue records and agricultural statistics of the district are properly maintained. He is responsible for the implementation of the land reforms in his district and grants loans to the agriculturists. If famine, floods, scarcity of fodde for the animals, earthquake or any other natural calamity occurs, then he provides reliefs to the affected persons. He acquires for public purposes land and buildings, he administers the stamps laws also.

Further he collects land revenue, collection of land dues, collection of government dues, distribution of Taccavi loans, recovery of the Taccavi loans, relief of fire suffers, supervision of treasury and sub-treasuries. He is a district treasurer.

(2) His duty as a District Development Officer

The District collector is the presiding officer of the development committee of his district. He carries on all developmental work of his district. All the Block Development Officers work under his control in this respect. The government or the political heads, formulates the five year plans, 20 years plans, community projects and he is responsible for the implementation of five year plans, projects, etc. In other words, he is responsible for the enforcement or implementation, or execution of the five year plans or the public policy. In this respect, he acts as a development officer of his district. He draws the development plan of his district with the help of other development officers.

(3) His Duty as a District Magistrate

- ✓ He is the first class magistrate and head of the magistrates in

the district. He hears and decides the number of criminal cases and supervises the work of all other magistrates under him.

He exercises only general supervision over the criminal administration of his district. The district magistrate is responsible for the maintenance of law and order and the Superintendent of Police (SP) directly assists him for that purpose. Though the S.P. is directly under the Deputy Inspector of General (DIG) of police in department matters, yet in the matters of law and order, he is required to give all possible help to the district collector. In this connection superintendent of police may fully co-operate with the Deputy Commissioner.

As a District Magistrate he also inspects some police stations. The District Magistrate controls the jails of his own district and he inspects them from time to time. He is responsible for the proper administration of criminal laws in his district. He grants them licences of arms, petroleum, cinemas etc. He issues domicile certificates. When any body needs a certificate to prove that he is the political sufferer or belongs to a scheduled caste or backward classes, he has to get that certificate from the Deputy Commissioner or District Magistrate.

Similarly, when any Indian wants to go abroad and applies for pass-port and visa, then the Government of India grants the pass-port and visa only with the consent or the recommendations of the district magistrate of the district to which the applicant belongs.

The district magistrate also supervises the activities of foreigners of his district and can recommend the extension of their visas.

During the election times, he is responsible for conducting the elections and he extends all helps to the election officers.

(4) His Duty as a District Officer

As a District Officer, or as a district collector, or as Deputy Commissioner, he looks after the general interest of the government. He is the principal agency of the state government in the district. He co-ordinates all the activities of other government offices in the district. He is responsible for the proper implementation of all the government rules, plans, regulations and orders. He hears the public difficulties and tries his best to solve those difficulties. He acts as a link between the government and the people and tries to place the government view before the public or the people. In this way, he harmonises the relations between the two. He also trains the junior officers in the administrative work and procedures dealing with public. He is generally the ex-officio chairman of the urban improvement trust of his district. The development work of the district officer includes the development of projects. He has to watch over the various developmental agencies like the district development council, the taluka boards, the block development projects etc. He has to see that there is no flagging of initiative at any level. Besides that he makes proper arrangement for the proper distribution and allotment of controlled or essential commodities and supplies through the district food and civil supplies officer.

(5) His Duty as a Public Relations Officer

District collector maintains a close contact with the people and their representatives at his Head Quarters and during the tours. It is his duty to act as a buffer between citizen and administration protecting one against the possible harassment by another.⁶ Towards these ends, the district officer undertakes regular tours in his district visiting even far-flung villages, meeting people and solving their difficulties or

problems. Above all, seeing that the programmes of the government are being efficiently carried out and keep his office efficient.

Thus, public relations is perhaps the very important function. It is his duty to create the feelings of the public in favour of the government.⁷ It is his duty to maintain good, cordial, excellent relations with the public. In the present democratic set-up this function of the collector has been increasing in importance. The success of public relations depends to a large extent, on the personality of the district officer.⁸ He must become popular among the people. It needs a good deal of tact and skills. Now-a-days a district commissioner is assisted by a district publicity officer in this function. The public relations department or the publicity department also works under his care and the district public relations officer remains in close touch with him in order to popularise the various schemes launched by the government.

(6) *Miscellaneous*

Small saving campaigns, visits of VIPs, interviewing people, publicity and public relations, attending meetings and conferences, any other work entrusted by the government. It is perhaps the complete list of the duties, functions and activities of the collector.

The district collector occupies a unique position in his district. During the British days, he was called the (Sarkar) Government and (Mai and Bap) Mother and Father of the people. He was called as the Raja (King) of the District. He was all in all. He was considered as the "man of the spot."⁹

Since independence all this has changed. They are performing or playing the positive and constructive roles. The Deputy Commissioner is not longer the officer of the people but the servant of the people.¹⁰ He is not longer

expected to crush freedom lovers. He is only to punish the criminals and violators of law.

Though the collector no longer enjoys the powers of the first class magistrate, yet his authority, dignity and prestige have not suffered in any way. Since independence many laws have been enacted which have conferred many new power on him and enhanced his prestige. In regard to the municipalities, jails, police, revenue, law and order, development work, loans, he still weilds numerous authority, and at the time of floods, famine or any other natural calamity, the people still look to him for support. Though he is no longer a Chairman of Zilla Panchayat. Zilla Parishads have their own elected Chairman. And he acts serves as a secretary of the Zilla Parishad. Still, Zilla Parishad looks to him for guidance and support on many matters because he is the principal representative of the state government in the district. And all the help by the state government to Zilla Parishad is rendered through him. He is also required to submit monthly and annual reports to the state government regarding the development work and the achievement or failure of the Panchayat Raj. He is the main co-ordinator among the various departments of his district. It is true that all the wings or strings of the district administration are gathered together in his hands.¹¹

Besides the nuermous functions of the district collector mentioned above, he looks to proper representation of scheduled castes and backward classes in the various appointments made by the government officials in the district.

He is incharge of games and sports of his district. He is also the ceremonial head of his district, as all the government functions are celebrated through him and he hoists national flag on Independence Day, Republic Day at the District Head Quarters.

So, we can say that, the district collector enjoys a wide range of powers and occupies a position of great dignity in his district. And he is truly the eyes, the ears, the mouth and hands of the state Government. His authority or prestige has not suffered or received any set back in any way. Rather he has developed harmonious relations with the representatives of the public.¹²

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People's Participation and Administration

Introduction

The concept of public participation was first operational in ancient Greece where democracy as a form of government originated. In the direct democracies of ancient Greece all important decisions were taken by popular assemblies and the citizens were active-participants in the affairs of state. Since then the meaning and content of democracy has both widened and narrowed with the changing nature and role of state. The connotation of democracy has now widened to include with the political, social and economical content as well.

Citizen participation may be used both for support by an agency and as a control device by the law makers. Participation has both a broad and a narrow connotation. In a broad sense, it implies giving every citizen an opportunity to actively participate in constructive public work, besides the franchise in a democracy. In a narrow sense, participation

would refer to a specific action by which the citizen registers his involvement in public affairs to achieve a particular objective.¹

Participation may be direct or indirect, formal or informal, it may be political, social or administrative in nature. People's participation in the development process means active cooperation and involvement of the general masses and the targeted public in the various interfaces of the decision-making process in development administration. Public participation is integral to the very process of development particularly the development of a developing democracy like India. It calls for both political and administrative decentralisation.

Rapid Socio-economic development is one of the key goals of most governments specially developing countries where the administration is involved in the economy in various ways. People's participation may be used both for support by an agency and as a control device by the law makers. Development-administration is administration for the socio-economic development of the people, by the people and for the people. Their active cooperation and participation in the planning and implementation processes is vital for its success.²

Citizens participation has come to mean the direct involvement of citizens in the process of administrative decision-making, policy formulation and policy implementation. Thus, people's participation involves the deliberate and systematic mobilisation of citizens around issues and problems of common concern. Participation covers every kind of action by which citizens take part in development administration.³

Citizens association with or intervention in the development efforts of a democratic country like India has several

advantages. First, it kindles the interest of local people in imparting a new thrust to programmes of which they are the beneficiaries. In other words, participation is a means of showing, by their behaviour and action, that they are capable of assuming responsibility. Secondly, it is a means of ventilating their feelings and thoughts. Third, it offers them an opportunity to demonstrate their willingness to do constructive work and show that they are good citizens. Fourth, it is a cure for the unresponsiveness and represiveness of traditional decision-making mechanisms. It enables the citizens especially the poor, to gain control over decisions affecting their lives through direct participation in programme operations. It is a remedy to check corrupt practices. Another advantage of community-based programmes is that they may be less of a financial burden on governments since they can be managed by volunteers or community-based workers. Moreover, citizen participation ensures that the accruing benefits of education, health and family planning programmes, for example, reach the residents of remote and rural areas.

Participation of citizens in development efforts is gaining ground both through voluntary agencies and through non-governmental organisations. Perhaps this is an indication of the importance that issues of development have drawn attention to the perception of the citizens. Citizen participation differs from country to country depending upon their political, social and economic systems. In developed countries, participation is due to the citizens having become conscious of their responsibility and wanting to be associated in some way or other with the process of governmental decision-making and action. In developing countries, however, participation has not gained much momentum. The governments of these countries feel the need to prompt people's

participation because it helps them to achieve their objectives. They initiate measures in this direction. Participation in both developed and developing countries has grown for three reasons.

One is the expansion of government activities, and another the explosion of knowledge and communications. Governments have assumed increasing responsibilities in regulating the economies, planning for financial resources for accelerating development and exploitation of natural resources.⁴ In the social sphere they have the responsibility of improving the well-being of the people and decreasing the level of unemployment and poverty and disease. Political development relating to the building of the nation state, modernisation of law, strengthening of the judiciary, the legislature and the executive and other democratic institutions as well as many other broad aspects of development are among their other responsibilities. The government is today directly and indirectly a trader, industrialist, financier, and entrepreneur. To gain acceptance for its objectives and policies, particularly in the economic and social spheres, it has to rely on the citizens' willingness and understanding. As a result of the increasing functions of the state and government's desire to state the cooperation of the people for its new policies and decisions, opportunities for contact between government and the people have multiplied. Citizens have become very much active and asserted their right of being heard and of voicing their opinions at various levels of administrative action.

The second reason which has led to the growth of citizen participation is the explosion of knowledge and communication. More new knowledge in science and technology and education has been developed in the last 25 years than in the previous history of mankind. Today people have received

an education which has made them better able to understand the problems of life in society and a training which has made them responsible to carry out constructive public work. With the explosion of communications, the means of information have become diversified. These help the citizens of a modern state to exercise critical control over its activities. They feel that if they wish to exert pressure on governmental authorities, they can be better heard through collective action. The pressure will be all the more effective if the group which exerts it represents a large number of citizens.

The third contributing factor in the citizen participation is the perceived failure of the bureaucracy to meet the growing demands of the citizens at the local level and the amateur claiming to know more about policy needs at any level than the civil servants.

These three factors—expansion in the functions of the State, explosion of knowledge and communication, and the failure of the bureaucracy to meet the growing demands of the citizens—coupled with higher standards of living, have made the growth of citizen participation in the development effort all the more effective and challenging.

Dimensions of Participation

From the point of view of contacts between the citizen and the administrators, P.R. Dubhashi classifies administrative activities as:

1. Citizen contacting administration in order to pay dues to Government.
2. Citizen contacting administration to obtain dues or money from Government.
3. Citizen contacting administration for obtaining licences and permits or getting legal sanction to his activity where required.

4. Citizen contacting administration in order to get property rights registered.
5. Citizen contacting governmental agencies for obtaining specific services.
6. Citizen contacting administration for obtaining general services.
7. Citizen contacting administration for obtaining specific individual assistance.
8. Citizen contacting administration for getting general support and guidance.

Thus, the nature of administrative action itself is of great importance to the relationship between the citizen and the administrator. In a broad sense, it means all the members of a community participate in the planning, implementation and evaluation of a project or programme designed to benefit them. There are three kinds of participation in the administrative process.

(1) Participation in Decision-Making

Citizen participation in the planning of projects and programmes which are going to affect their interest must be sought in time. Indeed, there are a number of possible prior steps that could be included in the analysis, such as generation and refinement of ideas about what should be done before they reach formal decisions. In taking a decision for planning at the district level, for example, it would be of utmost importance to appreciate and satisfy minimum needs of the local population.

(2) Participation in Implementation

Experience of development planning has shown that development programmes undertaken with community participation have a greater chance of success and can also be

more cost-effective compared to development activities undertaken by government where members of the community become more spectators.⁶ Rural people can participate in the implementation of a project in three ways; resource contribution; administration and coordination efforts; and programme enlistment activities.

Implementation of development programmes and projects especially for agricultural and social programmes or projects must involve community organisations. Efficient implementation is more likely in those cases where the interests of all participants and society as a whole are embodied in the frame work of the plan. Therefore, there is need for strong support from people representing all segments of society. The Eighth Five Year Plan document asserts: "..... it is necessary to make development a people's movement. People's initiative and participation must become the key element in the whole process of development.

(3) Participation in Evaluation

Cohen and Uphoff say that there are three major activities through which rural people can participate in project evaluation; project—centred evaluation, political activities, and public opinion efforts.⁷ However, well intentioned a plan may be, the views of the people for whom it is intended cannot be ignored in plan evaluation. The member of the community should be encouraged to take part in the evaluation process by attending meetings and expressing their views.

Areas of Participation

People's initiative and participation must become the key element in the whole process of development. The following are some of the areas in which the people would be persuaded to participate with earnestness:

1. *Development and protection of environment and forests:* Having regard to the forest conservation and development in India and the long gap between demand and supply of forest products, it is necessary to involve the citizens of every block in this activity.
2. *Development of soil and water resources:* To promote scientific use of land and water resources, it is essential to associate farmers and labour in each command, watershed and catchment area in the development and management of soil, recovery of wastelands, minor irrigation and water resources.
3. *Health for all programme :* Having regard to the present state of health in India, it is essential to involve the citizens in the fight against disease, ignorance, and health hazards. Apart from this, citizens should be persuaded to participate in the family welfare, health, nutrition, education, and community based health programmes.
4. *Education for All Programmes.*
5. *Rural development and poverty alleviation programmes:* Integrated Rural Development Programme; Programme for Development of Women and Children in rural areas; Drought Prone Area Programme; Land Reforms; Minimum Needs Programme; Integrated Rural Energy Programme, etc. should receive widespread support from the people.
6. *Social welfare programme :* For weaker sections and the rural poor, development of women and children, social defence and welfare of the aged, etc. help of voluntary organisations and communities must be sought.

Forms of Participation

Citizen participation in the development efforts of a nation

takes generally two forms, namely, institutions and persons.

(1) *Institutions*

This form of participation is of two types, formal and informal. Formal participation is governed by rules and regulations. These mention the categories of citizens who will take part in development programmes, the manner in which they will be selected, the matters in which they will participate, the level at which they will do so, the nature of their action, and so on. This type of participation is found in developed countries as it offers the advantage of stability and security. However, it does not offer much flexibility. On the other hand, in the developing countries, informal participation is the most common type of participation. The following are some of the forms of institutionalised action found in most developing countries.

- (i) Youth and women's organisations (NSS, NCC, Yuvak Mandals, etc.) promoting economic and social development;
- (ii) Voluntary organisations engaged in general development works, like education or health;
- (iii) Associations of specific beneficiary and interest groups like self-employed women, or farmers who have a common economic interest, such as marketing.
- (iv) Religious, social or cultural associations or clubs (Rotary, Jaycees, Lions, etc.), which often take on development tasks in selected areas; and
- (v) Professional associations of teachers, doctors or engineers and educational institutions which undertake teaching, research and social action programmes as part of their professions.

(2) *Persons*

This form of participation includes both representatives and

individuals. In the former case, it is provided on a board, committee, council or commission whose members speak as representatives of various social groups, such as trade unions, professional or other associations. In the latter case persons are invited or associated in their individual capacities to sit on boards, councils or committees, on account of their expertise, qualifications and proficiencies. Representative participations seems to be the kind most frequently found in the developed countries. Individual participation, which is easier to practice, is generally found in the developing countries.

Experience has shown that the task of educating and mobilising the citizens in developmental tasks is more effectively accomplished when it is institutionalised.⁸ Individual action though significant can only be sporadic in nature.

Ingredients of Effective Institutions: Various models of people's institutions have been functioning in India. Experiences show that effective institutions have the following ingredients:

- (a) They are owned and managed by the users/stake holders, producers or beneficiaries themselves;
- (b) They are accountable to the community;
- (c) They have the capacity to become self-reliant over period of time;
- (d) They have the capacity to diagnose the needs of the areas, interact with governmental agencies in order to draw need-based local level plans and to implement them in close cooperation with the administration; and
- (e) They tend to bring about integration of various segments of the society for the achievement of common goals of development.

Methods of Participation

Involvement of citizens in developmental tasks can be achieved by persuasion, cooperation, mass education, consultation, demonstration and by assisting citizens own associations.⁹ For our purposes, we will discuss three methods of participation, namely, consultation, cooperation and association.

- (i) Consultation means the process by which the authority obtain people's opinions with a view to preparing its tasks or policies. Consultation may be compulsory or optional. It is compulsory whenever the authority ~~must, before~~ deciding to act in a given sphere, refer the matter to a committee or commission. It is optional when the authority is entitled to decide whether such consultation is expedient. This method has the advantage of safeguarding the authority's prerogatives and people's demands.
- (ii) Cooperation means the process by which the citizens participate in the performance of administrative activities at the managerial level through the establishment of joint managing bodies separate from usual administrative hierarchy. This may take varied forms. A typical one is that of parent-teacher associations.
- (iii) Association is understood to be the process by which the citizen participate in the performance of administrative activities on the managerial level but, unlike in cooperation outside the chain of command. The process of association most frequently takes the form of cooperation of citizens, individually or as representatives of organisations taken in executive committees or commissions set up by the central

administration and more especially by the organs of local authorities. The practice is very widespread when an executive organ is formed from among the members of an elected representative assembly. This form of association specially takes place in Marxist democracies and in most developing countries. A typical form of association is that of trade unions or employer's associations.

Major Conditions for Effective Participation

Several conditions have been laid down with a view to making citizen participation more effective. Below are some of them.

First, and foremost, participation requires that citizens who take part in the development process must be knowledgeable and competent. They should be able to express their opinions freely and frankly. Secondly, care should be taken to keep the citizens concerned adequately informed of the matters in which they will participate, the nature of their action, the level on which it will occur, and so on. The information required for taking decisions has to be clear and precise and adjusted to suit the citizens for whom it is intended. Third, participation requires a well-organised communication network which is adjusted to the questions involved. Fourth, both sides, namely, the authority and the citizens, must demonstrate willingness to take on responsibility.

The role of government should be to facilitate the process of people's participation in development programmes and projects by creating the right type of institutional infrastructure—Panchayati Raj institutions—particularly in rural areas.

Finally, for participation to be effective, an important prerequisite is to make a practical survey of the environment

for which it is intended to specify its proposed objectives carefully, and to ensure that representatives of the administrative authorities who come into contact with the citizens have received a training which enables them to discuss matters with latter. In an excellent article, Rondinelli and Ruddle, referring to local organisation for integrated rural development in developing countries, have observed that "popular participation" is a goal that is rarely achieved as it should be and they reach the same conclusions. If it is meant to encourage popular participation, local leaders and representatives of the community must be allowed to associate and involve in development activities from an early stage. This is a prerequisite for success.¹⁰

Analysis of Participation

Analysis of citizen participation indicates that there is a big gap between theory and practice. The notion of involvement of the people in the development process has by and large remained a myth. This is so in spite of the several pronouncements made in the successive plan documents as well as in the policies and programmes put forth by the central and state governments from time to time with regard to involving people in developmental activities. Speaking of his experience, C. Ashokvardhan writes in an article : "While the bureaucracy, barring exceptions, tends to be autocratic, swayed by fond notions of intellectual excellence and a certain broadness of vision, the political element castigates it as being too wooden, mechanical and stereotyped to respond to the needs and aspirations of the common man, much less to the vote bank which demands special cares and cajolery."¹¹

While citizen participation is generally associated with efforts to promote decentralisation of authority, it has been criticised as being difficult of achievement. Decentralising

control does not ensure increased citizen participation. On the other hand, decentralisation of authority can be a way of disowning responsibility and a way of legitimising the use of citizens as scapegoats for policy and programme failures. Therefore, the important question is how to strengthen a decentralised structure which is conducive to the development process.¹²

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Enterprises and Development-Administration

Introduction

Public Enterprises

Public enterprises constitute one of the most important forms of Government operation.¹ Now-a-days it has acquired great importance. Sometimes it is used as a public sector undertakings. Sometimes public enterprises, public sector are used synonymously.² Public sector refers to a 'region' or area. However, public enterprises confined here itself to central and state government industrial and commercial organised as corporations or companies. Public enterprise as an economic undertaking especially industrial, agricultural or commercial concerns, public enterprise as a corporations concerns, which are owned (wholly or in part) and controlled by the state. It includes those mixed enterprises which are controlled by the state. A mixed enterprise is one jointly owned by the state and by private persons.³ If the state contributes over half of its capital it automatically has a

controlling interest. In some cases the state even has control over a mixed enterprise for which it provides less than half of its capital.

Thus, in the broader sense, public enterprises include those undertakings which:

- (1) wholly owned and managed by Government,
- (2) wholly owned by Government and managed by private and
- (3) where majority of the ownership and controlling interest is in the hand of the Government.

Meaning

Public enterprises constitute one of the most important forms of government operation for development efforts. In the developing countries in which economic growth and social development are the most prominent needs, public enterprises have acquired great importance. More and more developing countries are developing public enterprises, especially economic and industrial concerns, on a large scale with a view to raising production and securing social justice. Hanson says: "Whatever the ultimate perspective may be, the country anxious to develop economically has no alternative but to use public enterprise on a considerable scale, at the very least in order to get things going."⁴ The concept of public sector, therefore, has been universally accepted as a medium of socio-economic development planning, and public enterprise is only one of the many organisational innovations to meet such ends.

Though the subject matter of public enterprise has gained considerable recognition, it still remains to be defined to universal satisfaction. It is erroneously termed Public Sector. Public enterprise and public undertaking are used interchangeably but it would be wrong to use and call public

sector as synonym of public enterprise. Public sector refers to a region or area, and as such it is used to cover all those activities or functions, including public services, which are regulated, controlled or owned by the state government or with its support. Public enterprise here confines itself to central/state government industrial and commercial enterprises organised as autonomous corporations and companies.

Considering the vital importance of public enterprise in the economy and the literature produced on the subject, it is useful to understand its meaning. The term public enterprise is often used to denote an undertaking in which the government has a larger interest of ownership and management. A very comprehensive definition of it has been given in a 1975 United Nations publication. It defines public enterprise as economic undertakings, especially industrial, agricultural or commercial concerns, which are owned (wholly or in part) and controlled by the state. It includes those mixed enterprises which are controlled by the state. A mixed enterprise is one jointly owned by the state and by private persons. If the state contributes over half of its capital, it automatically has a controlling interest. In some cases, the State even has control over a mixed enterprise for which it provides less than half of its capital.

S.S.Khera has used this term to mean the industrial, commercial and economic activities carried on by the central government or by a state government or jointly by the central government and a state government, and in each case either solely or in association with private enterprise, so long as it is managed by a self-contained management⁵.

The term public enterprise may be defined as an undertaking engaged especially in industrial, agricultural, commercial or financial activities involving the production

and sale of products or services, in which the government has a larger interest of ownership and management.

Objectives and Role

In developing countries with mixed economies, including India, public enterprises pursues multiple, often contradictory, objectives. They often see their role as political, or as running social welfare programmes, or achieving certain economic objectives.

- (i) *Political objectives* : Public enterprises may be created for political reasons with little regard to economies of scale. Because production considerations and market opportunities play a subsidiary role in their creation, they may operate less efficiently. For example, the adoption of a socialist pattern of society in India would necessitate that the state should assume direct responsibility for the future development of industries over a wide area.

Many public enterprises have operated as disguised instruments of political power through the control of the commanding heights of the economy. Although private enterprise is generally exhorted to attune itself to the development needs of a country, there is sometimes a backdrop of lack of faith in the motivation towards overall long range objectives. In addition, there is the suspicion that private companies are liable to conceal profits or that the tax system is not good enough to adequately tax them. Governments have a natural tendency to believe that they know best how to direct investment and that the private sector does not have a monopoly of wisdom.

- (ii) *Economic objectives*: Public enterprises are developed to achieve economic objectives as mentioned in the

plan documents of countries. They are expected to attain the goals of planned development. Apart from this, they are meant to supplement the revenues of the state in a big way by appropriate pricing policies and by mopping up profits. They are also meant to export domestic products to earn foreign exchange. National prestige may be a primary reason for the creation of enterprises as Indian Airlines.

Profitability is an important goal of a public enterprise. But profits can create serious problems such as inciting labour to demand higher wages and cause government to ask public sector units to pursue new social goals. If their job is to create jobs, then their profitability contribution to economic development is secondary.

- (iii) *Social objectives*: Public enterprises are meant to generate surpluses for social welfare programmes. The fact that they provide employment opportunities for the people, especially the poor and backward sections of the community, is sufficient reason to give them a social utility. In addition, public enterprises pursue the objective of alleviating poverty. They also help in reducing the existing disparities of income and wealth.

Role of Public Enterprises

Public enterprises play a significant role in the economies of both developed and developing countries. In developing mixed economies they are being used as instruments of public policy promoting social and economic goals. The public enterprise sector has expanded considerably over the years, and today in developing countries it is very significant in terms of its coverage of economic and social activities and in

terms of its share in gross capital formation, output and employment. In view of the range and diversity of public enterprises and the important role they play in the promotion of development strategy, their efficiency is now viewed as critical to national development. The role of public enterprises can be explained under the following heads:

(1) Instrument of economic development

Since the 1960s most governments of developing countries have assumed responsibility for growth and initiation of the process of rapid development. Since these countries are faced with structural imbalances, the governments have been engaged in a process of structural change or adaptation, and have used public enterprises as an instrument for this purpose.

The state has employed this instrument of development as an integral part of India's goal to evolve a socialistic pattern of society.⁶ As an instrument of economic development, public enterprise attempts.⁷

- (i) to achieve economic justice by controlling and regulating the principal means of production;
- (ii) to prevent accumulation of wealth;
- (iii) to increase productive investment and promote industrial activity;
- (iv) to promote the establishment of certain import-substituting and export-promoting activities in the country;
- (v) to avail of foreign aid and cooperation prospects from foreign countries;
- (vi) to generate surplus resources for future development and growth;
- (vii) to shift commercial and industrial activities from capitalists or private concerns to the public sector;
- (viii) to promote balanced regional development;

- (ix) to utilise human and material resources in a better way; and
- (x) to promote savings by generating resources through appropriate public enterprise prices.

In order to achieve these economic objective, which have been pronounced in national plans or development plans, public enterprises have been used as the main instruments. Governments have assumed the responsibility for the development programmes of national or state importance which otherwise cannot be accomplished without the help of public enterprises.

Public enterprise has been playing a leading role in productive areas where the size of the investment required and the risks and uncertainties associated with it have discouraged private initiative. It acts as a brake over the artificial inflation created by the private sector by its pricing policies. In this way public enterprises have facilitated the creation of a competitive environment for itself and the private sector. The emphasis on developing key sectors of the economy on healthy lines has led to an overall investment of Rs. 1,30,000 in public sector undertakings.

(2) Revenue for government

Public enterprise has also seen to play a decisive role in providing revenue for the government. In this category fall enterprises in which revenue government has a commanding position in the production and sale of goods such as petrol, coal, gas, electricity, alcoholic beverages, tobacco, salt, matches. Public enterprises also derive huge incomes from ports, airlines, public lotteries, and marketing corporations.

The surplus by public enterprises could be profitably utilised for social benefits. They may also contribute towards further investment and growth of the economy.

But profitability should not be seen as a performance indicator in isolation. Many public enterprises may not show profits because of the burden of social obligations that they have to carry. At present, prices of industrial products such as natural gas, petroleum, petroleum products, coal, electricity, fertiliser, sugar and various non-ferrous metals are administered by the Government of India. By active participation of the state in business and commerce, funds can be accumulated for its multifarious responsibilities.

(3) Instrument of social development

Social and institutional reforms are basic to real economic development. These can be brought about effectively in a developing economy like India through government leadership, that is the main reason why certain policies and practices of public enterprises are influenced by government preoccupation with this aspect of development requirement. Public enterprises are involved to play an effective role as a model or pioneer in the effort to strengthen the social and institutional framework for economic development. Again, certain public enterprises are promoted for the purpose of facilitating the achievement of social equity. They serve the purpose of bringing down social and ethnic imbalances and bringing about a more equitable distribution of incomes. Many public enterprises have operated as disguised instruments of social security for certain groups of persons or regions.⁸

(4) Mobilisation of human and other resources

Closely related to economic development is the objective of establishing public enterprises for the purpose of providing employment and fuller use of human and other resources. Public enterprises are employed to help in the realisation of

full employment for a vast population and in the improvement of their quality of life. All undertakings play an important role in maintaining economic stability and a high level of employment. Many undertakings are often required to keep their manpower in employment even if they are incurring financial losses.

If profit is not the motive, then public enterprises could play the role in establishing national control over resources, develop new technologies, accelerate the development of backward areas and countervailing forces in the market.

(5) Instrument of public policy

It should be added that public enterprise is a powerful tool for achieving certain policy objectives, especially those specified in plan documents. For example, enterprises are set up and used to implement the environment policies of the government, to conserve forest energy, minimise air and water pollution and the like. Another important set of objectives is to achieve self-reliance and improvement of the balance of payment situation through import-substitution and export-promotion. Operation and management of key public enterprises (such as in defence) for national security is another objective. In countries, adopting a nationalistic policy, government may nationalise key industries for implementing policies of a mild form of socialism, as happened under the prime ministership of Mrs. Indira Gandhi in 1969 and 1971 in India.⁹ For public utilities, certain public enterprises are used to maintain efficient services and keep down costs. It is not possible to list all policy objectives. All that should be added here is that public enterprise is an effective means for implementing government policies.

(6) Creating competitive environment

Public enterprises also generate a competitive environment.

Because their exposure to competitive pressures and compulsions, they will also induce in a variety of ways, through organised consumer pressures, enterprises in the non-traded sector to improve their performance. A statutory monopoly faced with new competition, because of deregulation of statutory restrictions, must either improve its efficiency or accept the loss of a substantial share of its market. Generally, it is found that public enterprise is able to improve its performance when faced this threat.

Conclusion

The role and performance of public enterprises in developing countries, however, have not been encouraging, not only from the financial point of view, but also from the point of view of effective and efficient supply of infrastructure and services to the economy. In spite of this frequent failure to perform, it must be recognised that public enterprises have played a significant role in initiating the process of development in general and industrial development in particular. To regain the development momentum, it is thus imperative for the developing countries to restructure their institutional and policy frame work relating to public enterprise sector. In this context, it is desirable to improve the performance of the public enterprise sector. This is the sector which has a large share in gross domestic capital formation, industrial investment and output. It is again this sector which has to contribute towards viable import substitution, export promotion, technological development, and generation of investible surpluses. Further, the development of the private sector depends critically on the effectiveness and efficiency of the public enterprise sector. Hence, it is essential to restructure the institutional and policy frame work for decision-making relating to the public

enterprise sector as a whole with a view to making it an effective instrument of public policy in the process of economic development and social change.

Control Over Public Enterprises

(1) *Control by government (ministerial)*

Government exercises control over public enterprises through following methods:¹⁰

- (1) Power to dictate the policy of the enterprises.
- (2) Issues of directives in public interest.
- (3) Power of appointment and removal of top officials and members of the board.
- (4) Power to call for information, report and returns.
- (5) It should submit budget for approval of Government.
- (6) Prior approval of capital expenditure.
- (7) Prior approval of rules and regulations of enterprises.

The most important controlling powers of ministers pertaining to state enterprises are the following:

1. *Control of Officials and the Board:* In the public enterprises the government or minister lays down the policy as well as to appoint the top officials and nominate the members of the Board of Directors.¹¹ The Minister can remove dismiss the officials for neglect or inefficiency.¹²
2. *Prior sanction of expenditure:* Prior approval of the Government is required to undertake any capital expenditure value exceeding Rs. 10 or 15 lakh. Government approval is necessary. Appointment of any officer to a grade a minimum pay of which is Rs. 2000. Appointment of auditors by the company, the approval of government is necessary.

3. *Control by audit*: It is also a device of exercising control over enterprises. Comptroller and Auditor General has constitutional powers. He is the sole auditor. He audits the company account. Government of India set up Audit Board for the audit of enterprises in the year 1969. This is a Board works under the control of the Comptroller and Auditor General. It consists of three permanent members and two additional full-time members.

Audit report enables the government and members of parliament to understand the affairs of enterprises. These reports constitute very effective device of controlling the affairs of the enterprises.

4. *Control by parliament or legislature*: The parliament or legislative control is exercised through questions, debates, half an hour discussion, adjournment, motion, annual reports, discussion urgent, on urgent matter of public importance etc.¹³
5. *Control by parliamentary committee—committee on public undertakings*:
 - (1) to examine the reports/accounts of public undertakings.¹⁴
 - (2) examine the reports of the Comptroller and Auditor General on public undertakings;
 - (3) examine autonomy/efficiency of public undertakings.

Problems of Public Enterprises

Problems of public enterprises have been analysed from different perspectives. These can be broadly put into two categories:

- (1) Common problems facing all the enterprises, and
- (2) Peculiar problems facing individual enterprises.

Common problems are mostly self-made and inherent, and therefore it seems difficult to overcome them. One such problem is the location of undertakings in wrong places totally devoid of infrastructure. For example, the Aluminium project is located at Ratnagiri where a disproportionately high infrastructural expenditure is incurred on peripheral items.

(1) Multiple and contradictory objectives

Another common problem is lack of clarity in objectives. Most public enterprises operate without regard to basic economic laws and pursue multiple, often contradictory, objectives. They often see their role as essentially political or as running social welfare programmes or achieving unspecified social objectives. The World Bank (1982) finds that "it is impossible to judge the performance of parastatals objectively when they are frequently caught in the cross-currents of mutually contradictory government objectives."

(2) Limited scope for diversification

Yet another common problem faced by public undertakings is lack of capacity utilisation and limited scope for diversification. A notable example of this kind is noticed at the surgical instruments plant of Indian Drugs and Pharmaceuticals Ltd. at Channai. It is a small scale industry with limited scope for exports. Apart from suffering competition from units set up at very little capital cost, this plant has not been able to work even to 25 per cent of its capacity and to market its small output. It has been pointed out that the technology obtained from Russia was not the one appropriate "to the production of items required by the medical practitioners and surgeons in the country who prefer British and American instruments."

Public undertakings are sometimes set up without

adequate foresight and technical knowledge. A case of this kind is the factory set up for the manufacture of steam locomotives. In a short period it had to make room for diesel and electric locomotives. The changing technology forced the Government of India to cut down the production of steam locomotives. This resulted in a lot of dislocation, idle time and redundancy of plant and other facilities. In a short time dieselisation and electrification were rushed through without giving serious thought to the country's dependence on imports for oil, the foreign exchange position and the demand for electricity.

Most governments of developing countries have not been able to choose industries which would prosper and bring in huge profits as private enterprises do. They have had to enter into such ventures which were essential to meet the growing needs of their countries but had no takers from the private sector because of huge capital investment, poor returns, long gestation period, lack of capacity for development efforts, uncertainty of success, etc.

(3) Organisation inefficiency

In most public enterprises, there is organisational and operational inefficiency. As many of them are attached to government departments, they have introduced organisational structures and procedures borrowed from these departments. Bureaucratic procedures and methods are generally not suited for commercial concerns. In public sector undertakings, cohesion is conspicuously absent as the deputationists coming from the departments have their own culture and procedure which are quite different from those of other deputationists. In this way it becomes difficult to achieve cohesion.

(4) Lack of leadership

Again, most public enterprises suffer from lack of leadership.

It is not feasible for public enterprises to have bor leaders as in private enterprises founded by pioneers and succeeded by competent persons of imagination, drive and leadership. In public sector undertakings, there is a paucity of the organiser class which can make the best out of different factors of production, notably labour and capital.

(5) *Lack of national outlook*

Another factor responsible for the poor productivity and organisational inefficiency of public sector undertakings is the poor national outlook of the men in authority and the labour force. Unless the work force develops the national outlook ad pride in its work and behaviour there is little hope for good performance. In her inaugural address at the Chief Executives' Conference held on April 5, 1983, the then Prime Minister said: We need to cultivate a feeling of being part of a larger cause which is the building up of the country and creating a strong foundation so that its strength cannot be eroded even later.¹⁵

(6) *Lack of a national personnel policy*

Another factor affecting the performance of public sector enterprises is their personnel policy. The administrative Reforms Commission in its report emphasised the need for evolving a personnel policy free of nepotism, influence and other corrupt practices which alone could improve the performance of public enterprises. The office cadre, which is usually a hotch-potch of men collected from different sources and backgrounds militates against chohesion and collective team work. Again, the bureaucratic approach of IAS officers (who were placed at the helm of the new enterprises) is a handicap in adopting commercial and business-like practices. The lower ranks of officers need a new pattern of recruitment

and training with a commercial bias. P.K. Basu observes that the qualitative dimension of the problem of public enterprise in term of the gap in skill, knowledge and expertise, which are acquired through education and training, still remains.¹⁶

(7) Pervasive accountability

The other most important factor affecting the performance of the public sector undertakings is their accountability. In a private undertaking, the management is accountable to the shareholders who generally feel satisfied if they get a fair amount of dividend and bonus shares at regular intervals. In the case of public enterprises, however, the position is quite different. Since they are financed by public money and are established for the benefit of the public at large, accountability of the management is all—pervasive and continuous.

The minister-in-charge of the portfolio is responsible to Parliament but unless all those below him are conscious of their responsibility, he can hardly discharge his duty to the people representative. Quite often, he has to offer excuses for the failure of the people managing the undertakings because they are not conscious of their share of responsibility. The executive and other people in the public undertakings must be made aware of the fact that they are accountable to the nation for proper use of the money and resources placed at their disposal. However, a mere warning or exhortation will not help to improve their performance. The malady is deep-rooted and requires critical analysis and drastic steps. One of the most important measures that should be taken in this direction is to evolve rational and comprehensive personal and wage policies, preferably uniform for all public sector undertakings. Posts at the same level and responsibility should carry the same scales of pay. Secondly, public enterprises should be freed from unwanted political influence.

Thirdly, the management staff should be professionally trained and competent. In the ultimate analysis, it is the men who do the work and also get the work done. Realisation of objectives depends on the capability and efficiency of these men, wherever they may be employed.

(8) Financial problems

Most public sector enterprises in India suffer from various financial constraints. Some of them relate to over capitalisation, overhead expenses and overrunning of project costs. Faulty pricing and depreciation policies adopted by them are also factors contributing to lower profits. Further, inefficient budgeting and cost accounting system have led to poor performance of the enterprises.

(9) Poor industrial relations

Labour management relations in public enterprises are far from satisfactory. Strikes, lockouts, work-to-rule agitation, gheraos, and violent disturbances which often take place in these enterprises have been contributing to their poor performance. According to one estimate mandays lost in public enterprises rose from 36.12 lakh in 1982-83 to 75 lakhs in 1990-91.

(10) Other problems

Most public enterprises in India suffer from political interference, ambiguous government policies and lack of public accountability. They also face problems of poor quality of raw materials, unsound production units, inefficient inventory and marketing management and a low profile of R and D activities.

Personnel management is one of the weakest aspects of the public enterprises in India. Personnel problems relate to

poor manpower planning, over staffing, low morale, indiscipline, inadequacy in training and management development programmes, lack of professional ethics, and strained employer-employee relations.

The problems of autonomy, accountability and control in public enterprises have wasted much of the nation's time in debates and inquiries.

Conclusion

The principal reasons for the poor management and performance of public enterprises in general are:

- (1) Their permanently protected status; and
- (2) The ambiguity and multiplicity of objectives pursued by or imposed on them.

Private Enterprises

Introduction

Private Enterprises are called or known as the independent regulatory commissions.¹⁷ Like the public enterprises they are also the line agencies. They are concerned with the regulation and control of private property and private economic activities. Such commissions are existed in USA. There are totally nine such commissions such as Inter-state Commerce Commission, Securities and Exchange Commission, The National Labour Relation Board, The United Nations Maritime Commission, The Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, Civil Aeronautics Board, Federal Trade Commission, Federal Power Commission, Federal Communication Commission etc.

All the members of the commission are appointed by the president of America for a term from 5 to 14 years. The president is also empowered to remove or dismiss them. All

the members of the commission are not appointed at one time and also do not retire at a time. Members of the Board Commissions are drawn from more than one political party. Technical activities are entrusted to these commissions.

Characteristics

Following are the important characteristics of the commissions:

(1) Independent of the chief executive

They remain independent of the chief executive and have power to formulate its own policies and control its own finances. Though the president has the power to remove members but he rarely gets this chance. The decision of the commission is final and is not subjected to be reviewed by president. There are no established channels of communication between president and the commissions. They formulated the policies from the technical point of view rather than political considerations. Thus the members of the commission enjoys full freedom. They are free from political influence or party control.¹⁸

(2) Direct control of the legislature

Though they are independent of the president but they are not independent of the congress which is created it, from year to year supplies it with funds. The congress may terminate or modify its policies and expand or diminish its financial resources. It may order investigations of its operations. However, the control of congress is only general.

(3) Mixed functions

Third distinguishing feature is that are of mixed nature-administrative, quasi-legislative and quasi-judicial. There is a combination of legislative, executive and judicial power in

the hands of the commission. The commission formulate the policy, administer it and adjudicate the disputes arising under its own laws. The work of the commission involves a mixture of legislation, administration and adjudication.

(4) Management by expert

It performs more technical work, therefore such activities are placed in the hands of the Board of Directors or experts. They are free from political pressure. All or majority of the members are selected because of their experience and specialisation. In short the commission is manned by expert.

(5) Financial independence

In order to safeguard the independence of the commission efforts are made to make it financially independent. It holds funds in its own name which are annually granted by the congress. It enjoys complete autonomy in the management of these funds and also not accountable to the chief executive in the handling of these funds.

Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantages of Independent Regulatory Commissions:

- (1) The first and the foremost advantage of the IRC is that they are free from pol-influence and external pressure. They are free from the control of the president. They have full freedom, initiative and independence. They are free from external control. Members of the commission enjoys full freedom. Freedom is assured to them. They are free from partisan control or favouritism. Each member is free from a threat of removal as a source of pressure. Moreover, since the activities of the commission may

be more subject of public scrutiny. In this way, they perform effective functions.

- (2) Because of the setting of IRC, it becomes possible to separate the quasi-judicial powers from the executive branch. The quasi-judicial determination it was believed, should be subjected to review only by a judicial body on the basis of legal, not political consideration. As far as IRC are concerned, political considerations have no place as commissions are placed the sphere of influence of the executive branch.
- (3) As far as policy making matters are concerned, the members of the Board are being free from political influence. And they can formulate the policies from technical point of view rather than political considerations. Due to this advantage, most of the technical activities are entrusted to IRC.
- (4) This system becomes an easy device of bringing different shades of opinions and interests together to find out solutions for national problems.

Disadvantages

Despite the above advantages, independent regulatory commissions have been subjected to varied criticism.

- (1) It is pointed out that the commissions do not owe effective responsibility to any constitutional authority. They are independent of the president. President has no control over the members of the commission. Due to absence of power of removal is his hand, and they are responsible to the congress. But due to absence of the regular machinery congress could not exercise effective control over the operations of the commissions. In practice, the control of the congress is confined merely obtaining of reports and making

investigation. The net result is that the commissions are not responsible to any one. Due to this, they have been described and criticised as the headless 4th branch of government or irresponsible commissions, areas of unaccountability etc. It is said that the commission enjoys power without responsibility and they also leave the president with responsibility without power.

- (2) They come in the way of the constitutional powers of the president. They create obstacles in framing of a well co-ordinated policy. Due to the absence of the effective co-ordination between the activities of the government departments and of the commissions duplication of functions and conflicts of jurisdiction become a regular feature which generally result in bad or chaotic administration and wastage of resources. It is argued that the president being the chief executive and a national leader should have the authority over the commissions.
- (3) The combination of legislative executive and judicial power in the hand of commission leads to arbitrariness endangering the rights and liberty of the individual. No justice can be expected from it. The commissions formulate policy to administer it and also adjudicate the disputes arising under its own laws. This is not the atmosphere in which the rights of the individuals ought to be judged. It is the vital and inherent weakness of the independent commission system
- (4) Finally, it is said that the commission device has not been proved very effective either in protecting the public interest or in assuring the long-term progress of the enterprise.

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Decision-Making Process

Meaning and Nature

There is no organisation whether public or private without decisions. Decisions are quite essential for any management to run it on successful lines. The word 'decision' is derived from Latin words *de-ciso* which means cutting off or come to a conclusion.¹

Decision-making is one of the methodological theory which is also behavioural in its approach. If at all management wants to achieve efficiency, it has to have good decisions.² A leader in administration should have the capacity to make correct decisions. Though decision-making is more important but at the same time it is more difficult task. There are many complex problems which can be dealt with by proper decisions. But decisions cannot please each and everyone. The administrator is appreciated or blamed for his decisions which decisions are just and which are unjust is a very serious problem for the administrative leader.

According to *Websters Dictionary* a decision is the "act of determining in one's own mind upon an opinion or course of action."³

According to Terry "Decision is the choice or selection of one alternative from two or more possible alternatives"⁴

According to Herbert Simon "Every decision is a logical combination of fact and value propositions." In other words a decision is a compounded value and fact statements or premises.⁵

Decision-making is a means to an end and not an end in itself.⁶ It is not a static but dynamic process. It is being made and re-made in response to the changing requirement. Decision-making is a commitment to some thing. It is an act of choice. It is an attitude, it is a course of action. It follows the rule, the mean or the base rate which is the fundamental principle of statistics. Decision-making is concerned with the questions that is, what to do and how to do it. Decision is one of the crucial and delicate problem of an organisation. Decisions are central to like and central to the death of the organisation. The decision should be proper and according to the need of the hour.⁷ Decision-making is a difficult function also. It is not an easy task to undertake decisions according to one's own wishes. He runs about for guidance, advice, for consultations and suggestions and ultimately to take a decision. In fact, decision is the conclusion to long deliberations.

Besides, decision-making is not free from outside or external pressures.⁸ Those pressures may be direct or indirect or those pressures may be social, political, economic and cultural etc. Decisions are not permanent. They change according to the changing circumstances. Decision-making is a plural activity. No single individual can make a decision in isolation.⁹ Decision-making in government is a plural or

collective activity. One individual may pronounce the decision, but many contribute to the process of reaching of the decision. Decisions are the product of long deliberations to which many people and agencies participate.

No human being is perfect. Not all his decisions can please every one. The human mind like a monkey is ever restless. It has an inborn tendency to wander.¹⁰ Decision-making requires considerable thought. Thought is a mental effort.

Dynamics of Decision-Making

The decision is a forward looking, because it is oriented in terms of future. It is a guide or pointer of the future. Prof. Shackle observes decision is a cut between past and future. The decision situation is a complex of circumstances. Every decision is commitment to something.¹¹ It is an attitude, it is a doctrine, it is a course of action *i.e.*, decider is not always free to decide or not to decide. Certain conditions impose an obligation to decide—constitutional position, moral responsibility, public expectation emergency etc. In choosing the right alternative he has to remain within the bounds of ethics, social decency and law.

Decision-making is an intellectual activity.¹² It is rational and endeavour of the intellect. It is intellectual because it requires on the part of the decision-maker alertness, imagination and judgement. Alertness is required because the relative weights of the situational variables have to be correctly assessed. It also requires imagination or foresight. And it also requires judgement because the decider has to pick up and choose the right alternative based on sound reasoning. Decision-making has to be rational that is why many shy from it. To them it is a botheration. The right decision is logical. It is the product of sound reasoning.

Decision-making involves so many or number of questions:

- (1) How are the decisions made?
- (2) By whom they are made?
- (3) Why they are made?
- (4) What impact are they likely to have?
- (5) Whether decision-making is an art or science?
- (6) How best to construct a decision model?
- (7) How to arrive at the most rational or optional choice?

Nature and Characteristics of Decisions

Nature

- | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|
| (1) Explorative | — | Find occasions for making decision. |
| (2) Speculative | — | Analyse various factors. |
| (3) Evaluative | — | Assess the merits and demerits of alternatives. |
| (4) Selective | — | Choose or select one alternative. |

Characteristics

Decisions are a composite of the following characteristics:

- (1) *Goal-oriented*: Decision-making is a process and as such it is purposive, goal oriented and result oriented.
- (2) *Alternatives*: Decisions imply alternatives. It is the best alternative from different available alternatives.
- (3) *Analytical-intellectual*: It is analytical, deductive and logical.¹³ It implies both conscious and unconscious aspects. Part of it can be learned and part of it depends upon the personal characteristics of the decision-maker. It is based on both emotions and instincts.
- (4) *Process concept*: The pattern of events and circumstances that has shaped a problem and the course it is

likely to take in future are factors of great influence in decision-making.

- (5) *Action-commitment*: Decisions affect every part of the organisation. These involve a large number of people and they are acceptable to the people who are implement them. Decisions to be effective must be to the point, sound, accurate and appropriate.
- (6) *Evaluation*: It is a continuous process in decision-making. Evaluation plays its part. Weighing and measuring the results of the implementation of the decisions taken earlier.
- (7) *Rationality*: It means administrator should take a realistic view of the whole thing. He has to use this imagination, factual analysis of the past events.
- (8) *Time sequence*: It involves a time dimension and a time lag.

It is said that economic and administrative decisions must be taken quickly. When quickness of progress is desired, time factor becomes all important. However, this is not always realised by the administrators and people alike. While land, labour, capital and enterprise are recognised as factors of production, time is not, though it is perhaps the most important factor of production. It is considered that timely decisions can bring in handsome dividends while delayed decisions might well mean a lot of waste and lost opportunities.¹⁴

In a predominantly agricultural country like India decisions have to be timely otherwise the agricultural season may be lost. Thus supply of seeds, fertilizers insecticides and agriculture credit have to be arranged on time. This does not always happen. Seeds, fertiliser and credit sometimes reach the farmer after the crucial or critical time or season for their use is over. This not only results in waste of resources but

also loss of faith of the farmer in the administrative machinery. Sometimes decisions are delayed by outmoded rules, regulations and procedures laid down in departmental manuals. Obviously, manuals, rules and procedures have to be kept under continuous scrutiny so as to remove the obstacles in quick decision-making. This is a matter of administrative reform which is a continuous process.

If out moded procedure is one obstacle to quick decision-making, lack of delegation is another. In decision-making powers are concentrated at the higher levels of administration, but at the levels of action no decisions are taken, no initiative shown, matters are delayed and delay leads to frustration among field workers and people at large. There should be extensive delegation of powers to promote quick action – delegation from the secretariat to the head of the department and from them to the field agencies at the district and lower levels and to the local self-government institutions.

Decisions are often delayed in the secretariats. Here papers move in a slow manner from the case worker to various upper layers like the section officers, under secretary, assistant secretary, deputy secretary, joint secretary, additional secretary, secretary and minister himself. By following all these steps, decisions are delayed. Can all the papers pass through all the layers of authority? It is often felt that they need not and level-jumping is suggested as the answer. Quick and timely decision-making is indispensable for public good. But this is not possible where there are deficiencies either in the system or the personnel who operate the system. Both have to be improved and kept trim.¹⁵

Basis of Decision-making

There are no fixed basis of decision-making. Much depends upon the nature of the decision. Of course, all decisions must

be taken rationally and not emotionally or impulsively. Merits of the case should be the sole basis on which a decision should rest. Every decision should be made objectively and not subjectively.¹⁶ In other words, bias or passivity should not enter in decision-making.

Following are the important basis of decision-making:

(1) *Intuition*

It is the basis of decision-making. It is generally the inner feeling of a decision-maker.

(2) *Facts*

The elements of facts, as the basis for decision-making. It is supported with the factual data having relevancy to the given situation. Facts and data have been recognised as the most methodological, efficient and effective basis for far reaching decisions. But facts should be well-analysed, classified and interpreted.

(3) *Experience*

The element of 'experience' as a basis for decision-making is very important. Past experience of decision-maker, varied types of people involved counts past experience.

(4) *Authority*

There exists a co-relationship between authority and decision-making. Authority means power to make decisions and to see that they are carried out. Decision-making involves the element of authority. It is the basis of decision-making.

(5) *Authenticity*

Decisions taken should be right, proper and authentic.

Steps

Steps towards Decision-Making

Decision-making consists of several steps which are as follows:

(1) *Clear statement of the problem*

First step is decision-making is defining the problem or clear statement of the problem. Defining the problem is a time consuming process. In this step the decision-maker must state and identify the problem. The old saying that "a problem defined is a problem half solved".¹⁷

In this step, decision-maker must separate the relevant from irrelevant, material from immaterial, important from unimportant. In this step, clear thinking and open-mindedness must prevail upon. He must be able to find out the critical or the strategic factors. Here the decision-maker must be able to state the problem, define the problem, identify the problem in its simplest term.

(2) *Analysing the problem*

After clear stating and defining the problem the next step involves is the finding, collection, classification of the facts. He must analyse the necessary data and the facts. This is a complicated task. Here he has to break the problem into the parts for easier identification and solution. Decision-maker first analyses the situation and collect all related facts. He should clearly establish relationship between the facts and the problem. There are different approaches to analyse the problem. One approach involves looking at and classifying the variables. Such classification may point out the issues more clearly. He has to see that whether the variables are controllable or uncontrollable.

Whatever the approach may be taken, decision-maker

has to follow the following principles of analysis and classification:

- (1) The futurity of the decision (*i.e.* length of the time in the future during which decisions are made).
- (2) The impact of the decision to other areas.
- (3) The qualitative considerations which are involved.

(3) *Identification of alternative ways of solving the problem*

Developing, determining and identification of the alternative solutions to the problem is a difficult but very important in decision-making process. Where there is a problem, there is a alternative solution. The purpose of finding the alternative solutions is to make the best decision. Developing alternative solutions is called as a creative process.¹⁸ And in this process there are five important stages.

- (1) *Saturation*: It means familiarising oneself thoroughly with the problem. Unless one is not thoroughly identify with the problem no creative result is likely to emerge.
- (2) *Deliberation*: It means perfect knowledge of the problem and assembling of the relevant data.
- (3) *Incubation*: It is a sub-conscious activity. In this activity fresh or proper solutions comes in the minds of the decision-maker. When the conscious mind gets tired and frustrated in the exercise. At this stage the conscious mind be switched off from the problem and the sub-conscious mind be allowed to take over. Here sub-conscious mind directs itself to the problem. When the conscious mind is relaxed, the sub-conscious mind works on the problem and produces or generates excellent alternatives unconsciously.¹⁹

- (4) *Illumination*: At this stage, the idea actually comes or originates in the minds of the decision-maker.²⁰ Ideas illuminate while taking a walk, or driving home from work or during some other period of relaxation.
- (5) *Accommodation*: This stage consists of modifying the original idea, polishing it and making it practical for use. Thus by employing these or other alternatives, the decision-maker can develop as many alternatives as possible.

(4) Evaluate the impact of alternatives

That means calculation of the impact or consequences of each alternative when the series of alternatives which has been found by the decision-maker the next step consists of evaluating or assessing or calculating the consequences of each alternative. Here decision-maker forecasting which will happen in future. He chooses only those alternatives which he believes to be critical or key factors for consideration.

(5) Decision in favour of the best solution

That means choosing a course of action. He chooses the best alternatives which will give him best results or solutions.

After the problem has been well-defined, the alternatives chosen, and their individual impact evaluated, the decision-maker comes to the final stage of decision-making and it is here that the final decision is made. In this step the decision maker rank the alternatives along with their advantages and disadvantage. And he will select the best possible solution from these alternatives.

(6) Implementing the decision

Once the final choice is made, the next step or stage is to implement the decision. When the decision-making process

ends, implementation process starts, or beings or commences. This is not the part of decision-making but of execution.

According to Prof. Lasswell there are seven stages through which all the decisions are processed. These are:

- | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|
| 1) Information | → | It includes problem identification. |
| 2) Recommendation | → | Including formulation of alternatives. |
| 3) Prescription | → | Selection of alternatives. |
| 4) Invocation | → | Provisional enforcement. |
| 5) Application | → | Implementation. |
| 6) Appraisal | → | Review of decisions and its effects. |
| 7) Termination | → | Ending, turning or renewal or revision. |

Types

Types of Decision

An administrative set up needs various types of decisions for its successful functioning. For convenience sake and easy understanding, they may be classified as under:

(1) *Programmed decisions*

In a programmed decision problem occurs frequently. A programmed decision is one in which a certain programme exists in our mind or on paper which automatically gives us the solution once we worked out the programme.

Programmed decisions are those that are made in accordance with some policy, rule or procedure. These decisions are generally repetitive and routine for example,

Recording the Office supplies, determining salary payment to employees who have been ill and so on. Every bureaucratic rule or regulation is a programme.

(2) *Non-programmed decision*

The non-programmed decisions are one that are unstructured and consequential. They are new and they differ from programmed decisions. In an unprogrammed decision, we do not have any rule or regulation or procedure to direct us. The decision is to be worked out personally. These decisions are non-repetitive. In this case thorough study of course and consequence are taken into consideration before making decision. Farmers decision not to sell the cotton due to low rates would be an example of unprogrammed decision.

There is neither completely programmed decision nor unprogrammed decision.

(3) *Major decisions*

A decision which relates to broad changes in the organisation is called as major decision. A decision which relates to huge expenditure is called as major decision at a high level. Major decisions have to be made.

(4) *Minor decisions*

A decision on minor matters such as sanction of leave to the employees or purchases of stationery for office which cost very little are called as minor decisions. Minor decisions are taken at the lower level.

(5) *Routine decisions*

Deputing an employee to attend the annual conferences is a routine decision. It requires little deliberations.

(6) *Strategic decisions*

Lowering the price of the product or changing the product

line or installation of an automatic plant is a strategic decision. Strategic decisions require not only lengthy deliberation but may also involve large investment and expenditure of funds.

(7) Policy decisions

Granting loans to the cultivators of scarcity area or giving subsidy to them is called as policy decisions. A policy decision is taken at the higher level.

(8) Operating decisions

Granting loan or giving subsidy to individual cultivator as per rule is an operating decision. Operating decisions can be taken at a lower level. In short, operating decisions are made within the broad range of policy decisions.

(9) Departmental decisions

Departmental decisions are taken by the department heads and these decisions relate to department only. Sanctioning leave to an employee is a departmental decision.

(10) Inter-departmental decisions

These decisions can be taken by the controlling manager in consultation with the managers of the affected departments. Making a slight change in the design of the product is an inter-departmental decision.

(11) Enterprise decisions

Enterprise decisions are taken at the highest level either by the managing director or by a board of directors. Entering a new line of business is an enterprise decision.

(12) Organisational decisions

When an executive acts formally in his expected role in an organisation makes organisational decisions and this becomes the official decision of the organisation.

(13) *Personal decisions*

A personal decision is made by an executive as an individual and not as a part of the organisation. For example, an executive who decides to leave the present organisation is totally a personal decision. These personal decisions are not delegated.

(14) *Individual decisions*

Decisions taken by the individuals are called as individual decisions. Individual decision are taken where the problem of routine nature, where the variables is simple, where definite procedures to deal with the problem are individual decisions.

(15) *Group decisions*

Decision taken by the group is called as group decision. Strategic decisions are generally taken by the group. Inter-departmental decisions are also taken by groups.

(16) *Environmental decisions*

It has its primary objective as the integration of internal, intermediate and external environments into a whole *i.e.* total environment.

(17) *Objective decisions*

Decisions which arises due to deliberations and careful consideration of factors and forces pertinent to the issue are termed as objective decisions.²¹

(18) *Subjective decisions*

Those decisions which are made in the organisation without conscious mental effort are called subjective decisions.²²

Problems

Problems of Decision-Making

Decision making is a complicated, complex and difficult

problem. There are many difficulties in the way of decision makers. Decision-makers has to face mainly five difficulties or problems.

(1) Routine taking too much time

Daily work is time consuming. It takes a lot of time. It consumes more time. Thus, a devotion to routine work takes too much time. As a result of this, decisions relating to future problems are often ignored or postponed or rejected.

(2) Which problem to be solved first

The second problem of decision-making is to which problem priority or preference should be given first or which problem to be settled or solved first. The question is which problem to solve. Because problems are many-air pollution, inequality among sexes, population explosion, child labour, fundamentalism, terrorism, treatment of minorities etc.

It is usually seen in a large sale organisation. There are so many problems each looking more urgent than the other. The administrator is confronted or faced with so many problems. He encounters several difficulties. The administrator finds it difficult to determine the priority of these problems. He faces complicated problems. Sometimes the problems are very heavy, burdensome, complex or complicated.

Problems

- (1) Schools or hospital?
- (2) Steel or fertilizer?
- (3) Guns or butter?
- (4) Industries or projects?
- (5) Poverty or unemployment?
- (6) Corruption or dowry system?

These are all problems. The question here is which problem to be solved first.

(3) Lengthy procedures

Decision-making power leads to delay and delay leads to disappointment, frustration among the field officials and people at large. Delay kills the interest and the initiative among the field workers. Decisions are delayed due to long, broad, vast and detailed procedures, rules and regulations. Too much importance or under-emphasis is given to procedures, rules, regulations, practices, principles, discussions, deliberations etc. Procedures move very slowly. They are dilatory. Quick and prompt decisions will not be taken due to the various formalities. There is no sudden settlement of the issues. There is no answer on the spot. There is no sudden and quick reply or solution or remedy on the spot due to the lengthy procedures. Decisions will not be taken quickly or in time. Even after all these formalities are over or complete, there is no guarantee that the decisions made is a right decision. Procedures are not computing machines that they always gives the right decision. The right decision must meet a higher test. Undue importance on such procedures is dangerous. That is why it is said that "too much is too bad."²³

(4) What is a right decision

The right decision must meet a highest test. It must accord the general interest, the constitutional spirit or the moral principle.

(5) But the biggest hurdle or problem is bias

The very word 'bias' means prejudice or partiality. It means giving scope to selfish interests at the cost of the society. Bias

is a third class word in the dictionary of administration. Bias also means predilection. Predilection is a mental preference or partiality. But both prejudice and predilection are bad. Both are irrational. Bias is perfectly irrational and unconscious. Prejudice and predilection may occur consciously or unconsciously. Bias is an unethical acts of an official. A distinction is made between the personal and official bias. Official bias is inherent in the office and it becomes personal when it is used against any particular individuals or groups. These are vices deliberately developed. Favouritism, nepotism, corruption, red tapism are the deliberate acts of the official. Bias is relative to time and place. Bias demoralise the administration. It can develop on account of many causes—caste, class, language, region, profession, ideology etc. Bias is generally connected with the values and traditions. As our values and traditions change bias also changes.

How to Vanish or Eliminate Bias

There are both popular bias as well as official bias. There is a popular bias in India against the police. And there is official bias against corruption. How to build up healthy and constructive types of bias and banish the unhealthy ones? Safeguards exists in policy-making, adjudication and administration. Administrator should be above corrupt practices. In Court Judge must be unbiased. Administrator should develop a sense of impartiality.

Factors Essential for Rational Decision

(1) *Use of consultative bodies*

Consultative and advisory bodies or councils are very useful as they help to arrive at right decisions. Advisory body may be defined as a group of experts and representatives of the public, and they perform their duties on voluntary basis. It is

a consultative group and render advice and recommendations in regard to administrative problems and procedures. They are set up or constituted to advise the government on administrative problems and procedures. They are constituted to advise the minister and the government. They are constituted at the national, regional and local levels of government. They form an integral part of the administrative process. National Railway users' consultative council, central posts and telegraphs advisory council etc. are examples of advisory bodies in India.

The advisory councils are of various types such as representative advisory committees, expert committees, statutory committees and so on. They may be temporary or permanent. Advisory councils are usually composed of 2 classes of member official and non-official while official members represent the government services and the non-official members represent the different outside interest groups. The members of these committees should not be biased or prejudiced men. They should speak for consumers or for general public. They should have necessary knowledge and competence to advise the government on particular problem in the best interests of the country.

Functions of Advisory Bodies

- (1) They give advice to the government on decisions of policy.
- (2) They render expert advice on various bills.
- (3) They assist the public to understand the facilities made available by the government.
- (4) They collect vital and useful information from the public and pass it on to the government.
- (5) They provide suggestions, those can be filtered and incorporated in a policy before a final decision is made.

The advisory council or body or committee are strictly advisory in nature. They do not share the responsibility for doing the work of the department to which they are attached. They do not have any responsibility for formulation of policy. But they broaden the democratic base or they are an extension of the democratic principle.

(2) Simplification of procedures

Rules procedures should be simplified. Unnecessary rules, regulations, formalities, practices, procedures should be vanished or ended. Procedures should be easy, understandable rather than complex, complicated, delicate and difficult. Length procedures and unnecessary rules and regulations open up the gates for bias. Improved rules or procedures should be established and unnecessary regulations should be cancelled. In this connection the activities of the organisation and management should be speeded up.

(3) Education and training

Both education and training are the essential aids to efficiency. Training is an important aspect of Development- administration. It is an orientation to a particular job. It is the proper education and training of officials. They must be properly educated and trained in the art of making right decisions. Training develops the present and the potential skill of the employees. Employees should have a firm knowledge of indian history, culture, traditions:

Training are of many types:

- (1) *Informal*: It means learning work by doing it. Employees are left actually to learn administrative work under the guidance of senior officers.
- (2) *Formal*: It is a training given to the employee through

the orderly and well defined manner. And it consists of pre-entry orientation, post-entry, in service training.

Methods

- (1) *Lecture method*: It is a traditional method. Lectures by experienced officers give information to employees on the various aspects of work. It is a combination of both discussion and conference.
- (2) *Syndicate*: In this small group three to six persons assigned a study project. Their findings and conclusions of the project are presented in the form of a report. This is more participatory method.
- (3) *Case study*: It is a useful training technique. It narrates the events that lead to decision by an administrator.
- (4) *Role playing*: Roles playing by trainee relating to their jobs.
- (5) *Sensitivity*: It is used in creating awareness of self and social processes.
- (6) *Field observation trips*: It is undertaken to the rural areas.
- (7) *Problem solving and decision-making workshops*: It is useful in increasing competence of servants in solving problems and in making effective decisions.

(4) *Publicity of decisions*

Publicity means known to public. Decisions should be made public. Bias can be checked by making publicity of decisions. Publicity is very important for the regulatory activities of administration. Here, public officials must be more careful in decision-making otherwise, they will have to face the public criticism.

(5) *Officials must be impartial*

The officials should maintain impartiality, honesty in their

official dealings. They should be neutral in politics. They should not involve and take part in politics. He must be away from evil practices such as corruption, red-tape etc.

(6) Protection from external pressures

Here officials must be fully safeguarded from external pressures or influences. Protection from such external forces enables him to take the free, fair fearless, and independent and right decisions. But now-a-days in India many forces or pressures or influences are operating on the administrator. He receives controls from many sides. We witness the increasing pressures and pulls under which the public officials have to work. Pressures from ministers, members of the legislature, political party chiefs, workers, unions and several other officials and non-official organisations exercise influence on the administrator. His hands are tied except carrying the directions and dictates of the ministers and the government. As a result of that he became weak and powerless. Many forces are operating him. Due to these he has no initiative, interest, freedom, independence, enterprise, and capacity of his own. He has been left with little initiative enterprise and responsibility performing only fixed functions. This tendency is certainly bad and it curbs the initiatives and independence of the officials. He is reduced to an electronic machine as such performing or discharging his functions so mechanically. And therefore, the protection is needed to government employees from external forces.

How to Make an Intelligent Decision

Robert Heilbroner suggests certain guide lines for making an intelligent decision:

(1) Marshall the facts

This refers to the collection of the relevant facts or data

regarding the problem about which decision has to be made.

(2) *Consult your feelings*

While making a decision we should see that it satisfies the inner needs of our nature. Decisions should satisfy conscience i.e., inner needs of the officials.

(3) *Flexibility*

An intelligent decision-maker should not be rigid about the finality of the decisions. Officials should not be so rigid. If a decision should not work well, he should not hesitate to modify it.

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20. Illumination actually means a fresh or the new idea comes in our mind while cool thinking and relaxation.
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 Objective decisions are right and impartial decisions and they are based on right judgement.
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 Subjective decisions are partial decisions. They are biased.
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 Marshall of facts means presentation of facts like an eminent lawyer.

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Administration of Law and Order

Maintenance of law and order is the primary condition for the socio-economic development and successful working of the policy of a country. Of late, there has been a disturbing trend as regards the law and order situation in India. Large scale mass violence and anti-authority agitations have become the order of the day. A saddening aspect of the affair is that even the guardians of law and protectors of the public order do not hesitate in disturbing the maintenance of law and order through agitational demonstrations. The policemen of many states have on occasions defied laws and started public agitations to seek redressal of their grievances. During the past few years group clashes, political agitations industrial strikes, peasant uprisings and students unrest have put to test the ingenuity, skill and imagination of all those who have the responsibility for administration of the state. Religious intolerance is on the increase and the secular character of the Indian polity stands threatened.

Historical Background

The police is the main agency of the administrative setup for maintenance of law and order. The word 'police' signifies an organised body of civil servants engaged by the government for the enforcement of laws to regulate different aspects of public life, order and safety. Since people learnt to live in society, there has always been some functionary to execute the laws and regulations. The indigenous system of police in India was organised, the basis of land tenure and collective responsibility of the village community. The Zamindar in ancient India was bound to apprehend all disturbances of peace and make good the loss. The kings had their own network of secret intelligence and kept themselves well informed about the nature and incidence of crimes. Kautilya's *Arthashastra* written about 310 B.C. gives a graphic account of the investigation patterns, punishment agencies and control devices during the Mauryan and Gupta periods¹. In the later literature following *Arthashastra*, we come across *Thirukkural* written by Thiruvalluvar describing the principles and practices of criminal administration of that period. Although the ancient writers had special knowledge about the administration of law and order during that period, yet there was no independent police department with the exclusive functions of detection and control of crimes. There existed several agencies for the maintenance of law and order in society.

After the decline of the Hindu kingdoms, the country slipped into a state of disintegration and chaos. The police functions were exercised by a number of functionaries like superintendents of roads and buildings, excise, treasury, royal household and all kinds of spies.

During the Mughal period the empire was divided into Subas (provinces) under the charge of Subedars (Governors)

who had a number of Fauzdars under him to administer the sub-divisions. The sub-divisions were divided into Thanas (police station) under the charge of Thanadars (Station House officers). The Fauzdar was a combination of the modern collector and the superintendent of police. His duties in the fields of revenue and criminal administration overlapped and so was the situation in the case of Thanedar also, who was not an exclusive police officer. In the cities and large towns the Kotwal had the responsibility of maintaining law and order and for arranging night patrolling. Abul Fazal in his *Ain-i-Akbari* calls him "a fairly important man of the town who had to be present at all royal darbars." He was a magistrate, a prefect of police and a municipal officer all rolled into one. The Mughal system of the administration of law and order could not, however, bear the stresses and strains of political instability which followed in the wake of disintegration of the central authority of Mughal Empire.

When the East India Company took over the reins of administration from the Mughal the law and order situation in the empire was at a very low ebb. The company rulers evolved a concrete policy of gradual but piecemeal reforms in the organisation and working of police machine in India. They retained the village system but relieved the Zamindars of their liability for police duties. The company administration appointed magistrates and Darogas, and put the latter under the administrative provision and control of the former. The Darogas had specific jurisdiction in regard to police stations and about 30 armed Burkundazas and the village watchmen were sanctioned for an average police stations in Bengal. The cities continued with the system of Kotwal, who had a number of Darogas to assist him. In some sub-divisions the medieval institution of Fauzadar was not only retained but systematically strengthened.

The mutiny of 1857 shook the very roots of the administration of law and order in India which led the British into serious rethinking about introducing an effective institution for the restoration of law and order in India. The Government of India appointed an all India Police Commission in 1860 to inquire exhaustively into the police needs of the country. The recommendations of the Commission were incorporated into the Police Act (V of 1861) which continues to govern the basic structure of the police organisation in India till today.

The main recommendations of the Commission were:

1. Adoption of military police.
2. Retention of village police.
3. Constitution of a single homogeneous police force of civil constabulary for the performance of all police duties.
4. A police system on provincial basis with an Inspector General as the head of the provincial police organisation.
5. A district based police system headed by a Superintendent, police who was to function under the general direction and supervision of the District Magistrate.
6. A subordinate police force which was to consist of inspectors, head constables, sergeants and constables.

The police reforms of 1860 remained a matter of debate and controversy for the rest of the century. Different provinces allowed different control mechanisms to operate. The reforms did not alter the situation materially and the total scheme remained in abeyance for one reason or the other in various provinces of the country.

Lord Curzon appointed another Police Commission in

1902 to examine the present setup of police organisation and its strength, recruitment and pay-scales etc., Some of the main recommendations were:

1. The recruitment to the Indian Police Service to be made entirely in England through examination and for the Provincial Police Services in India by direct nomination and promotion from the ranks.
2. An officer of the rank of the Superintendent of Police should be placed in charge of the police of a district.
3. The village police system should be retained.
4. A central department of criminal investigation was to be established to collect, collate and communicate information obtained from the provincial C.I.D. or otherwise and to secure full information regarding the commission of crime from the police of the native states.
5. The provinces were to be divided into several ranges and each such range was to be controlled by a D.I.G. of Police.
6. A separate and independent police organisation to be known as Railway Police Force was also to be constituted.
7. An armed police force was to be constituted at the headquarters of each district to serve as a reserve police force to handle emergent situations.

The obvious objectives of these recommendations were to strengthen the district police and to make it serve as a bulwark for the sustenance of the gigantic structure of the British Empire.

The recommendations of the committee were accepted by the Government of India which later on served as the basis for the reorganisation of the police machine in the

provinces. The CID and the Railway Police Force were created. The English rulers laboriously built a structure to suit the colonial needs of the imperial government. It also served the cause of peace and order without which no political structure can survive for long.

The post-independence police organisation in India retains the basic structure of the colonial period. The Constitution of India has retained the Indian Police Service. Likewise the pre-independence central agencies like the Central Reserve Police, the Special Police Establishment, the Central Intelligence Bureau, the Railway Protection Force have also been retained. In the states also, the status-quo ante has been maintained in police administration. Although the various State Police Commissions and the National Police Commission (1977) were set up to study the problems of police administration, there has been no comprehensive review at the national level of the police system. The Indian Police organisation more than its other counterparts in Indian administration is basically a prisoner of its history. It is even now exploited by the political masters to serve their personal interests and is hated by the people for its tyranny and arrogance. The dawn of Independence has neither changed the outlook of the Indian police nor improved the system.

Role of Central Agencies

India has developed a complex network of police organisations for the maintenance of public order. Public order and the police are state subjects according to items 1 and 2 of the state list in the Seventh Schedule of Article 246 of the Constitution. According to List, 1 item 2, the Union Government can raise naval, military and air forces as also other armed forces. The Union Government is not empowered to raise any police force. The Border Security Force, the

Central Reserve Police Force, the Rapid Action Force and the Indo-Tibetain Border Police fall in the category of other armed forces of the Union. And the word police in the title of CRPF and the ITBP is a misnomer. These other armed forces of the Union are more commonly known as paramilitary forces. The 42nd Amendment of the Constitution in 1976 has inserted a new article (257 A) authorising the Union government at its own volition to deploy any armed force of the Union or any other force subject to the control of the Union for a dealing with any grave situation of law and order in any State. The police administration of the Union Territories is an exclusive responsibility and concern of the Union Government.

Role of the Union Ministry of Home Affairs

The role of the Central Government in the working of the police administration in the states is largely played through the Ministry of Home Affairs. The Ministry has a special function of giving guidance and assistance to its counterparts in the states in important matters pertaining to criminal administration and specialised problems of law and order. It can provide special assistance to state police organisations by arranging for deputation of extra forces, either from central reserve or from other states. The specific aspects of the role of the Ministry can be mentioned as follows:

1. There are several Acts enacted by the Central Government which govern police action and behaviour at the state level and delimit its internal and inter-state activities in a uniform manner. Such laws are the Indian Penal Code, Code of Criminal Procedure, Indian Evidence Act which are to be followed by the police in the prevention, investigation and punishment of crimes. Similarly, the Central Acts like the Indian Arms Act. Motor Vehicles Act,

- Preventive Detention Act and the Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act govern police action in the states.
2. The Ministry of Home Affairs is directly responsible for the administration of law and order in the Union territories. The administrative agencies of these territories are specially manned by regular cadres separately recruited.
 3. The Indian Police Service is under the control of the Union Ministry of Home Affairs. Though most of the IPS officers serve under State Governments for most part of their careers, yet the State Governments have virtually no control over their recruitment, promotion, training and matters concerning discipline and punishment.
 4. The Union Home Ministry plays an important role in the co-ordination of police work and providing a framework on the coordination of police administration. For this purpose, meetings and conferences of State Home Minister and Senior police officers are called by the Union Home Ministry in order to know their problems in the field of administration of law and order and find solutions through mutual discussions.
 5. The Union Home Ministry awards several kinds of police medals and national awards for outstanding police service rendered by policemen in the states.
 6. The Union Home Ministry arranges the supply of modern and sophisticated arms, ammunition, wireless, equipment and vehicles for police use at the state level. The efficiency of the police depends largely on the quality of arms possessed by them, one of the reasons for the failure of our police force to counter the militants and terrorists activities is the better quality of weapons possessed by the latter.

7. The Union Ministry of Home Affairs owes it to the States to come to their assistance and rescue, in case the police administration in the states need its specialised help and guidance. For the purpose, the ministry maintains an extensive network of auxiliary agencies like—Forensic Institutes, Directorate of Police Wireless and Internal Security Academy and reserve units like CRPF, BSF, RPF, CISF, the Assam Rifles and the Rapid Action Force.
8. Lastly, the 42nd amendment to the Constitution has empowered the Union Government to induct its armed forces into a state without the state government's requisition. The control of such forces would remain with the Central Government.

Deployment of Capital Forces

The deployment of paramilitary forces by the Central Government without any request from the state concerned has in the past given rise to misgivings, especially in the states where the ruling party was not the same as the party in power at the Centre. The flurry of protests by the Uttar Pradesh Government against locating the forces at Faizabad at the time of Kar Seva by the BJP volunteers in Ayodhya in December 1992, caused considerable political furure. The Constitution recognises the responsibility of the Central Government in meeting threats to internal security and ensuring that the government of every state is carried on in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution. When paramilitary forces are sent in aid of a state government, such deployment is at the request of the state government concerned. The operational control in such cases remains with the state government. But when these forces are deployed without any request from the state government, the central

government in that case assumes the responsibility for law and order which is a state subject.

The relationship between the state authority and the paramilitary forces deputed by the Centre is a sensitive issue, and they cannot afford to work at cross-purposes. There must be a unified, clear-cut operational control. Otherwise, in a surcharged atmosphere even a small misunderstanding can have disastrous consequences. The central government is absolutely competent to station its forces anywhere in the country. Keeping in view the sensitive nature of this issue, the National Police Commission in its third report remarked, "It is for the consideration of the central government and the state governments whether the central government should be constitutionally facilitated to coordinate and direct police operations in situations which threaten internal security. In our view, the addition of Entry 2A in the Union List of the Seventh Schedule following the 42nd amendment Act, 1976, recognises the need to some extent. We understand that no law has yet been enacted governing the jurisdiction, privileges, and liabilities of the armed forces of the Union deployed in a state in accordance with Entry 2 A. We recommend that appropriate law, rules, regulations for this the purpose be enacted soon."²

Despite the recommendation of the National Commission (1997), the Government of India has not detailed out the rules/regulations regarding the liabilities and jurisdiction of the armed forces when deployed in a state. The situation still remains fluid and controversial. It need not be re-emphasised that the central forces and the state police should not work at cross-purposes and that there should be a unified clear-cut operational control. Otherwise, under the present strained federal state relations, there may ensue more chaos and disorder.

Central Forces

We may briefly give a descriptive profile of the para military forces.

1. *The Central Reserve Police Force (CRPF)*

The CRP was organised in 1947 which has now grown to several battalions. It has mainly two functions to perform. It is sent by the Government of India to those troubled spots where the Central Government have a special responsibility to discharge and the situation warrants the use of armed police. The State police organisation also can in times of special crisis requisition its services. As the very name shows, it is a reserve establishment for emergencies.

2. *Border Security Force (BSF)*

The BSF was raised in 1965 to check incidence of crime on the borders. Its functions are: (i) to police and patrol the India Pakistan and India-Bangladesh borders and give a high sense of security to the people living in border areas by providing special protection to their persons and property against deprecators from across the border; (ii) to deal effectively on the spot with incidents of minor intrusions, illegal infiltrations and transborder smuggling in the sensitive areas of the border; and (iii) to coordinate the activities of various law and order agencies involved in the detection and prevention of crime in the border areas. The BSF is headed by a Director General.

3. *Railway Protection Force (RPF)*

The Railway Police are divided into Government Railway Police and Railway Protection Force. The former is a special branch of the State Police and is normally controlled by a Deputy and Inspector-General of Police. This force is responsible for preventing and investigating crimes

committed on the railways. The Railway Protection Force is a Central Government Force to guard and protect railway property, tracks, and property entrusted to railways. It has replaced the railway watch and ward staff of the British days. It is headed by an independent Director-General in the Railway Board.

4. Central Industrial Security Force (CISF)

CISF was created in 1969 to provide security in the major industrial undertakings of the Government of India in the public sector. It is meant to prevent violence and labour unrest which sabotage work and retard production in public sector units. The force is posted to selected industries on the basis of need and convenience. It is headed by a Director-General of Industrial Security.

5. Indo-Tibetan Border Police (ITBP)

The ITBP's functions are similar to those of Border Security force. It checks crime on the Indo-Tibetan Borders and illegal infiltration from across the border and provides security to the people living in the Border areas.

Keeping in view the alarming law and order situation caused by assassination of Smt. Rajiv Gandhi the communal violence in the country, the Government of India has recently created specially trained forces like 'commandos' and 'Rapid Action Force' to provide security to the VIPs and quell disturbances.

Besides the above line agencies, there are other auxiliary and staff units created and maintained by the Government of India which variously assist in the investigation of crime and providing information useful for maintenance of internal security. Such units are Central Intelligence Bureau (CIB). Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI); and Central Forensic Institutes.

The above description makes it clear that the central government plays a significant role in terms of coordination special responsibilities and staff unit of professional nature. The powers, responsibilities and specialised services of the central government provide a framework within which the law and order administration in the states have to operate. The framework is fairly tight and is gradually becoming too rigid to allow any scope for the state police administration to assert its autonomy and freedom. The Ayodhya events have led the Prime Minister to call for a debate on Article 356 and related issues so as to further tighten the noose over state administration which in Uttar Pradesh did not allow the Rapid Action Force to move and protect the disputed structure.

Role of State Agencies

Administration of law and order is a complex phenomenon which includes many activities, such as protection of life and property, enforcement of multifarious laws, internal security, detection and prevention of crime etc.

As pointed out earlier, public order and police are state subjects. Therefore, the primary responsibility for maintenance of peace and order falls on the state government. To perform its responsibility the state maintains a police department which consists of both line and staff agencies. The major functions and responsibilities of the police in the field of law and order are as follows.

(1) Prevention of Crime

The primary duty of the police is to prevent the crime and to control the dangerous criminals. The costs of crime are staggering. It impairs the joy of living lives and property are rendered insecure, the peace is frequently disturbed. Direct

economic losses to criminals amount to tremendous sums. Further, the cost of detection, investigation and trial of the crime and the expenses on the upkeep of the prisoner are heavy drains on the public exchequer. All this is unproductive expenditure. Therefore, prevention of crime is of utmost significance for ensuring social development. In this field the police performs the patrol duty, maintains crime records and enlists public cooperation.

(2) Investigation of Crime

The first step in the investigation of crime is registration of the case. Section 154 of the Criminal Procedure Code lays down "Every information relating to the commission of a cognizable offence if given orally to an officer in charge of a police station, of a cognizable offence if given orally to an officer-in-charge of a police station, should be reduced to writing by him or under his direction and be read over to the informant; and every such information, whether given in writing or reduced in writing as aforesaid, shall be signed by the person giving it, and the substance thereof shall be entered in a book to be kept by such officer in such a form as the state government may prescribe in this behalf. This is called FIR which plays an important role in the investigation of crime. For the investigation of crime and detection of the criminal the police employs various methods wherein it takes the services of detective agencies, forensic laboratories, medical experts and the people who depose at the time of the trial. The deposition by witnesses is a vital part of trial.

(3) Maintenance of Order

Under Article 19(1) (b) of the Constitution of India, all citizens have the right to assemble peaceably and without arms. It also includes the right to hold meetings and takes out

processions. But this is not an absolute right. It is subject to public order which in other words means that, the assembly, should be peaceful, without arms and should not pose threat to public order and peace. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the police to see that such assemblies do not disturb public order. For this purpose, the authorities may deny permission to hold an assembly and use force considered necessary if the assembly indulges in damage, loot of property, assault, arson and violence. It is obvious that the nature and quantum of force used should be warranted by circumstances. The services of state intelligence-wing are used to collect prior and timely information and prepare a plan of action to meet eventualities.

Organisational Set-up

Maintenance of law and order is primarily district based and district-oriented. The state level officers are too far from the scene of activity to matter and play effective role as line officers. The role of these officers tends to be more of an advisory and assisting nature. The police organisation at the state level consists of two organisational wings, (1) the civil and (2) the professional.

In the civil wing may be included the Home Minister and the Home Secretary who are not professional. The Home Minister is the political head of the police department and is concerned with policy decisions regarding police administration. He maintains general and overall control and supervision over the department for which he is answerable to the legislature. The Home Secretary aids and advises the Minister in the discharge of his duties. He is usually a senior civil IAS officer who is a generalist and coordinates, controls and supervises the varied aspects of police administration in relation to the directives of the Union Government and the activities of the district officials below.

The professional wing consists of the IPS and the state police officers. At the headquarters, there is the Director-General or Inspector General of Police who is the senior most IPS officer of the state cadre. He is operationally incharge of everything that goes on in the police department. The responsibility for the command of the police force, its recruitment, discipline, equipment, internal security, training etc, lies with him. Several high ranking officers like Inspector General, Deputy Inspector General, Assistant Inspector General, and Senior Superintendent of Police etc., assist him in his line and staff functions. His primary functions are (1) to serve as a principal advisor to the state government in matters concerning police administration; (2) to act as administrative head of the state government; and (3) to ensure efficient functioning of the police forces in the state.

The Inspectors General of Police now performs staff functions and look after functional responsibilities of specialised nature like training, intelligence, telecommunications, technical rules, crimes, modernisation and welfare etc. In these areas they may be assisted by Deputy Inspectors General or Assistant Inspectors General.

In the line hierarchy, the Director General is assisted by the Deputy Inspectors General of Police who holds a charge of a police range. Each police range generally consists of 6 to 7 administrative districts depending upon the size and population of the districts concerned. The line functions of a DIG include maintenance of serviceability and efficiency of his force by despatch of instructions to his subordinates. He is responsible for the enforcement of discipline among the ranks under his control and command.

As mentioned earlier, the administration of the law and order is state-based and district-oriented. The state is divided into ranges, a range is divided into several districts, a district

is divided into circles which are further sub-divided into police stations. The district is placed under the charge of senior superintendent of police who is an IPS officer. A circle is under the charge of a circle inspector while the police stations are managed by sub-inspectors of police. Of course, to assist these officers there are junior level officers like Deputy Circle Inspectors or Assistant Sub-Inspectors, Head Constables, Constables, etc. In a large district, the SSP may be assisted by the Additional Superintendents of Police.

The SSP/SP is the head of the district police organisation who wields a great amount of power and prestige in the district. Working under the overall supervision of the district magistrate, he looks after the problems of law and order and of administration of crime in the district. As the chief intelligence officer of the district, he collects information from the lower levels and can communicate his assessment of the same to his superiors. He also looks after the service conditions of his staff and is responsible for their efficiency, morale and discipline as policemen. In the districts which have bigger cities, the SSP have additional responsibilities such as regulation and control of the traffic, collection of special intelligence and handling of political and communal conflicts.

In the field of maintenance of law and order, the SP is empowered to take all sorts of preventive measures, if a breach of peace is apprehended in the district. He may advise the District Magistrate to impose prohibitory orders and even curfew. In the event of actual breach of law, he makes adequate police arrangements to meet the situation. Crowd-control during fairs, religious festivals, VIP visits, election campaigns and political meetings are his special concerns.

Prevention of crime, even if it does not immediately involve breach of public order and peace, is necessary in the

larger public interests. The SP of a district has special responsibilities in his district through

- (a) effective patrol by his fleet,
- (b) close watch over the movements and activities of bad characters, professional criminals,
- (c) investigations of grave crimes, and
- (d) arrest of criminal characters before they indulge in law-breaking activities.

Role of District Magistrate

The District Collector/Deputy Commissioner represents the state administration in the district and heads the district administration in all its aspects. When he acts in the field of law and order, he is designated as the District Magistrate. As District Magistrate, he exercises numerous police, executive and magisterial functions.

The District Magistrate is the head of the criminal administration in the district. He can inspect the Police Stations and ask for any information, statement, record and register dealing with crime. He can ask the incharge of any police station to come personally and explain matters. The police officials are duty-bound to obey his orders. He can ask the SP to supply him the crime and intelligence reports so as to keep himself in touch with the law and order situation in his area. It is the legal responsibility of the SP to inform him any apprehension of breach of peace and order.

On the executive side, the District Magistrate grants licences for explosive and can order any enquiry into an accident caused by explosion. He may order the prohibition of the performance of an objectionable play, seize the material and arrest the persons who try to violate the prohibitory order. He grants licences for possession and sale of all types of poisons and poisonous substances. He can issue warrants

for the arrest of suspected offender under Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930 and arrest of a fugitive criminal. A person may be detained by him if there is an apprehension of breach of peace. He can call for armed forces to aid the civil administration to deal with any abnormal situation. He can put restrictions on the movement of any person for a month to reside or enter his area if he is satisfied that the person may cause danger to the maintenance of peace and security of the state. He can ban the assembly of five or more persons if it is likely to cause danger to peace. He may also impose curfew in a particular locality or localities for a specific period.

As Executive Magistrate, the District Magistrate has the power to disperse unlawful assemblies, remove public nuisances and issues orders under Sections 144 of the Criminal Procedure Code. He can bind the people for keeping peace under Section 107 of the Cr. P.C.

Relationship between the District Magistrate and Superintendent of Police

The administration of law and order in India, as seen above, is of a dyarchical nature. The Union Ministry of Home Affairs maintains a wide network of agencies which constitute para-police forces and variously play a domineering role in the maintenance of law and order. At the district level, the police organisation is subject to the control of the District Magistrate. The Administrative Reforms Commission observed: "In the maintenance of law and order, all regular powers of law are vested in the police officers in England. The same practice was adopted in the Presidency towns of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras even in British times and have since been extended to certain other areas also. Promulgation of orders under Section 144 Cr. P.C. is an exclusively executive function.

All such executive functions should be entrusted to police officers thus relieving judicial magistrates of them except in grave emergencies in the absence of appropriate executive officers. Since orders under this section are passed primarily for the preservation of public peace and averting serious situations it is only too proper that the power to pass such orders should be given to the police on whom rests the principal duty of maintaining law and order and averting the breach of peace.³

Those who suggest that law and order should exclusively be subject to the control of state police hierarchy in the district argue;

- (1) That the present system of dual control leads to delay and inefficiency⁴.
- (2) That the District Magistrate is so heavily overloaded with developmental and welfare activities that he cannot do justice with police functions.⁵
- (3) That the District Magistrate's control over the district police is against the principles of unity of command. The chain of command for the Director General of Police to the District Police has been broken by putting the district police under the general control and direction of the District Magistrate.⁶
- (4) That the District Magistrate is not well equipped to discharge his responsibilities of supervising police administration effectively for lack of special training.⁷
- (5) That the District Magistrates control is indicative of want of confidence in the district police force.
- (6) That the Office of the District Magistrate is being held in low esteem by the public at large. He is more a political stooge rather than an impartial administrator.⁸

Those who favour the existing arrangement advance the following arguments.

- (i) That the District Magistrate only acts as a coordinating agency. The SP continues to be the operating agency and there is no erosion of his powers.⁹
- (ii) The police does not enjoy a good image in the public eye. The abolition of the control of District Magistrate would tantamount to making India a police state.
- (iii) The District Magistrate acts as a shock absorber between the police and the public. The police is used to repressive methods which makes people hostile.
- (iv) The present system has stood the test of time and has functioned satisfactorily.¹⁰
- (v) The present system has promoted integrated system of neat administration and the removal of control would lead to dead locks and conflicts in district administration.

The question of relationship between the Superintendent of Police and District Magistrate has been examined by various State Police Commissions.¹¹ All have supported the basic position about the general control and direction of the District Magistrate over the Police. However, the National Police Commission in its eighth report has suggested the enactment of a new Act to replace the century old Police Act which could meet the needs and compulsions of the present day world. The commission has proposed that the police should be made solely responsible for the maintenance of law and order to the exclusion of the District Magistrate.

Conclusion

Maintenance of law and order is a critical function of the state. The role played by both the central and state agencies

in this field has not been commensurate with the gravity of the law and order situation. The Union Ministry for Home Affairs has converted itself into a special kind of national police department with increasing powers of direction, supervision and control over police administrations in the various states of the country. The state machinery has lost its credibility. Instances are not rare when CBI investigations have been demanded and conceded to pacify public misgivings of serious nature. But as stated above, the role played by the union agencies has been considered a direct intervention in the affairs of the state by some state governments, a violation of the federal nature of the Constitution and an encroachment of the state's rights. The institution of Governors through whom the Union Government judges the efficiency of the state police machinery is often misused for political ends. Designed as an aid or a tool to strong governments in the states, the role of the Union Government in maintenance of law and order has restrained the openness, autonomy and accountability of state police administration.

The state police machinery is stagnant and stationery. Its methods of investigation are archaic and crude: complaints of beating, physical torture, maltreatment and harassment by police officers are not wanting. Untrained in modern sophisticated methods of handling public disorders, the officials of the Indian police know very little about the anatomy and pathology of various kinds of violent disorders, ranging from students rampages to communal carnage. The role played by the politician has aggravated the law and order problem. He cares more for his political survival than for maintaining public order and peace. The criminalisation of politics or the politicisation of criminals has added a new dimension to the maintenance of law and order in the country.

There are political leaders, communalist groups, high caste oppressors, notorious out-laws and angry youngmen who provoke and precipitate the break down of law and order administration in the country. The police and magistracy today face an uphill task in the present political scenario. The gradual disappearance of moral values and integrative forces have brought about a situation in which violence and conflict among various sections of society are more than tense and acute. The law and order administration in India must equip itself with the requisite perspectives to face and counteract the impending challenges of the coming decades.

Notes and References

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2. *National Police Commission Report*, Paragraphs, 14-12.
3. *Report of the Working Group of Police Administration*, Chapter III, para 56.
4. *Ibid.*, Chapter IV, para 29.
5. *Ibid.*, Para 36.
6. *Ibid.*, Para, 3.
7. David M. Bayley, *The Police and Political Development in India*, p. 354.
8. *Report of the Working Group of ARC*, para 34.
9. Haridwar Rai, "Dual control of law and order Administration in India", Article published in *IIPA*, Vol. XIII, No.1, p. 61.
10. *Report of the Administrative Re-organisation and Economy Committee*, Government of Kerala, 1965-67, pp. 39-40.
11. These commissions were appointed in Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar, Punjab, Maharashtra and Kerala.

Public Policy and Administration

Meaning and Implications

Policy making is one of the vital tasks of the government.¹ Dr. Appleby said the essence of Development administration is policy-making. Policy making is the heart and soul of development-administration. Policy and administration are closely connected or inter-linked.

Policy-making is not confined to any one discipline or subject. It is a multi-disciplinary approach.² Policies are related to various social sciences. Thus, the policy of political science, emphasis are the foreign policy, military policy, the electoral policy, policy regarding the legislative change and reform and free speech and civil liberties policies. The policies of economics emphasis are those of economic regulation, labour policies, communication policy, taxing and spending policy and agriculture policy. Policies with a sociology or psychology emphasis are the anti-poverty policy, policies regarding SC/ST and backward sections of the society, criminal justice, education and population policy. Policies with natural science

or engineering emphasis are technological innovation policy, health policy, energy policy and biochemical policy.

Public policy cannot be made by one or few individuals. It involves a large number of persons and institutions such as ministers, civil servants, parliamentarians, politicians, pressure groups, professionals³ etc. Policymaking is a continuous, dynamic process. It is plural and composite. In the central government the Principal Policy-making functionaries are the Prime Minister and his Office including his advisers, ministers, secretaries. In India there are nearly 400 public policy-makers at the central level and another 400 in the states. In all, the Policy Community has a total strength of nearly one thousand of which 125 may be said to be the top ones. The membership of the group is subject to change.

Policy problems are inter-related. There is a great deal of inter-relatedness between policies. For example the environmental and the health policy are inter-related. Similarly industrial policy affects the environment. Thus, we require a multi-disciplinary approach to policy problems. Public policy is an academic discipline. Policy-making is prior to every action. Policy is, in fact, planning for action. Policy is not static or stagnant, but it is dynamic and flexible. Policy changes according to the changes in the environment. Public policy-making is a co-operative effort. It is not the outcome of an individual effort, but it is the outcome of many brains.⁴ Policies cannot be formulated in vacuum. Public policy signifies a rationally planned course of action. It is a link between the objectives and the operational steps. Policies are, thus, guides to action. Policy is a course of action in pursuit of a goal. A policy is verbal or written or implied.

Policy is more comprehensive.⁵ It is broader policy. Overall policy covers everything. It means it covers each and every aspect of the problem. Policy-making is a continuous

process. It is being made and remade. Policies are made changed, modified and reformulated. Policies are formulated because of external or public pressures. Those pressures may be economic, political or technological.

Policy deals with the basic or vital or urgent issues. Issues here means problems. Basic issues means basic problems such as poverty, ignorance beggary, hunger, unemployment, dowry, starvation, prostitution etc. These issues may be simple or limited in nature. Issues may be big or complex or numerous in nature. For simple issues, it will be easier to formulate the policies. But for complicated or complex issues, policies may require considerable research, study and analysis. Policy should conform to the constitution and prevailing customs and traditions, usages, conventions and public opinion. Policy-maker cannot act arbitrarily or independently in this respect.

The term policy is sometimes confused with terms like rules, customs, procedures, decisions, plans and so on. But there is a fundamental difference between each of them.⁶

Policy is dynamic and flexible, whereas rule is specific, inflexible and rigid. Policies are broader than rules. Policies serve as a guide to action. Whereas rules specifically mentions what must be done and what must not be done. There is also difference between policy and custom. Custom is habitual way of doing things. It just grows through usage. Custom grows automatically in the soil of the society. Policy is also different from procedure or the method. Procedure means prescribed way of doing something. Procedure is a means whereas policy is an end. Policy should also be distinguished from decision. Policy itself is a big decision. Thus, policy also differs from decision. Decision is a point, and policy a line. Decision is taken within the framework of the policy. Policies are also sometimes confused with plans, but both are quite

different from each other. Plans are often transformed into policies. Plans are not easily communicated or understandable whereas policies are easily understandable and communicated.

Implications of Public Policy

Following are the important implications or the essentials of public policy.

(1) *Purposive*

Public policy is purposive. Without purpose or goal or aim it stands no where. This is the hallmark of public policy.

(2) *Action-oriented*

Public policy refers to action. In the sense it is action-oriented.

(3) *What government actually to*

Policy is what government actually do and what subsequently happens rather than what they intend to do or say, they are going to do.

(4) *Negative or positive*

Public policy may be either negative or positive in form. Negative in the sense, government does not take any action on it. Negatively it may involve by government officials not to take any action on any matter.

Positively, it may involve some form of government action regarding any issue or problem.

(5) *Authoritative*

Public policy is based on law and is authoritative. It is formulated or framed by the authorities. For example, kings, elders, councillors, ministers etc. It has legal or legitimate base.⁷

(6) *Coercive*

It is enforced by the authorities. Citizens have to obey the policy otherwise, they will be punished. State or government uses force against those who disobey it. Hence, it is coercive in nature binding on all citizens.

(7) *Definite and clear*

A policy should be definite and clear. It should be understood by everyone.

(8) *Written*

In addition to the above, if policy is to be implemented, it should be written. Written policy lessens misinterpretation, misunderstanding and friction. A policy should be found upon facts and sound judgement.

Basis of Policy Formulation

Broadly speaking there are 4 ways through which administration collects the necessary information.

(1) Internal Sources

In every department we find the reports, returns, statements, and various other materials. These reports and other material are recorded by the department for the future use whenever the need arises. Some departments employ special agencies for the collection of data in certain special fields. Several ministries in India have established special machinery for the collection of statistics and data which helps for policy-making. The Central Statistical Organisation, The National Sample Survey, The Bureau of Public Enterprises and various other organisations are working for the collection of information and statistics. The data so collected are properly

processed, organised and interpreted to reveal certain facts essential for policy making.

(2) External Sources

The internal sources are not sufficient. They are only supplements. The administrator also collects the information from the external sources. He establishes contacts with private bodies, unions, associations, chambers etc., in order to get true picture of facts. Internal informations are likely to be biased, they are inaccurate and unreliable because they travels through official channels. In our country government does consult the public opinion through various labour unions, chambers of commerce, and other professional associations before 5 year plans is actually approved. The draft prepared is thrown open for discussion to various bodies all over the country. The suggestions received are considered, incorporated and also approved in working out the final plan.

(3) Special Investigations

Special investigations are conducted by the appointment of the committees and commission. These committees find the facts in the particular matter or field. Such investigations are very useful for policy making.⁸ They provide maximum thought in particular field. Examples of such committees/commissions are many in our country and abroad. The Royal Commission is appointed from time to time in England. Hoover Commission in USA Central Pay Commission, University Grants Commission, Local finance enquiry Commission, the Administrative Reforms Commissions etc. are the examples of special investigating bodies in India. These commissions examine the witnesses, both official/non-official, obtain facts, and views and which they convey

to government in the form of recommendations and those recommendations serve as a basis of policy-making.

(4) Research and Survey

Research and studies may be organised by the government / non-official agencies to discover certain facts and views. Administrative Research may be conducted by such bodies like O & M.⁹ It is in the cabinet secretariat.

Similarly non-official bodies like Indian Institute of Public Administration (IIPA), British institute of Public Administration (BIPA) also conduct research and provide facts for policy-making. Technical research and study may be conducted by Technical institutions. The Geological, Botanical, Zoological Surveys of India. Automatic Energy Commission, Oil and Natural Gas Commission etc., are some of the examples of institutions engaged in research.

Types of Policies

Policies are of various types. They could be classified as the ideological policies, Macro-policies and sectoral policies.

(1) Ideological Policy

The ideological policies flow from the very basic character of the government itself or from the fundamental constitution of the country. Capitalism is an ideological policy, and it was prevalent in those days such as that of Adam Smith, the author of the *Wealth of Nations* acknowledged as the first systematic treatise on economics. The basis policy of the *laissez faire* and the maxim that "government is the best which governs the least." And this policy is related to planning and social ownership of the means of production are highly ideological in nature.

(2) Macro Economic Policies

This policy is more technological rather than ideological in nature. It has many dimensions. Thus macro-economic policies cover such important items such as price and income policy, fiscal policy, banking policy, wage policy, and policies to regulate and promote production.¹⁰

(3) Development Policies

Development policy is general policy more technological is nature. It has also many dimensions. It may cover the entire gamut of policies to promote savings and investment built-up public sector enterprises, develop human resources and create a sense of motivation and achievement in the people.

(4) Sectoral Policies

Then there are sectoral policies—the defence policy, the foreign policy, the agricultural policy, the food policy, the industrial policy and the science and technology policy. Then there are inter-sector policies. Sectoral policies have inter-sectoral implications. Sectoral policies and inter-sectoral policies are inter-related. Thus, the defence policy is not just a question of policy for army, navy and airforce. The defence policy is linked up with the domestic, economic and industrial policy and with the foreign policy. If the domestic economy is strong it can support a big defence effort. On the other hand, if domestic economy is weak, a strong defence has to be ruled out. Similarly, foreign policy creates friends rather than enemies. The defence policy itself would assume a different dimension.

(5) Regulatory Policies

One of the most visible types of public policy is regulatory. Regulatory policies are regulated through criminal law and

statutes. They are regulated through the actions of Independent Regulatory Commissions. The food and drug administration, commerce commission are charged with the regulation of trade rates and businesses.

(6) Distributive Policies

Distributive policies grant goods and services to specific segments of the population. One of the most prominent areas of distributive policies is welfare and health. All public assistance programmes are distributive.

(7) Redistribute Policies

Progressive policies are the good example of redistribute policies. Redistributive policies aim at rearranging one or more of the basic schedules of social and economic rewards. They take more money from the rich than from the poor.

(8) Capitalisation Policies

Capitalisation policies are not like the primary consumptive distribution of welfare programmes. They include.

- (1) Cash payments to farmers (for example sugar beet and cane growers to improve the farm industry).
- (2) Tax subsidies to encourage exploration and production in selected industries.
- (3) Credit subsidies for example low interest loans are given to municipalities.

(9) Original Policies

These policies are defined by the constitution, or legislature or cabinet. These are all the highest policy making bodies or authorities. These policies are broad in scope.

(10) Appealed Policies

These policies flow through the appeal made by the

subordinates are called appealed policies. These policies are in the form of appeal made by the subordinate to the superior officers. How the matter should be handled, he may appeal to his superior.

(11) Implied Policies

Implied policies develop where no clear policy exist. In such cases executive officers adopt their own guidelines. They taken into consideration the spirit of the original policies.

(12) Externally Imposed Policies

Political parties at the time of election declare their policies through election manifestos. The party which comes in power influences the government to implement these policies. Similarly, the opposition parties also influence the policies by pointing out its defects or deficiencies or shortcomings and compel the government to reformulate the policy. Sometimes pressure groups and strong labour unions, national association exert their influence on the government or legislature.

The Role of Executive, Bureaucracy and the Legislature in Policy-making

(1) The Role of the Executive

The cabinet constitutes the political executive. It makes policy decisions. The executive or the cabinet actually governs the country. The President of India is only the rubber-stamp, nominal or titular executive. The cabinet is the real executive. It is the chief source of policies in our country. It is the most important body. It is the overall directing and controlling body headed by the Prime Minister. All important policies are approved by it. It is the policy-making organ. It plays a

very important role in policy formulation. It is the core of policy formulation in India. It is the real executive. It is the major policy-making branch. It formulates public policy. It is the central place from where the policies originate. The overall direction and control of policy lies in the hands of the cabinet. Cabinet operates through several sub-committees. Within the cabinet, the Prime Minister is the focus of policy-making. Sometimes cabinet discusses the policies openly and sometimes behind the doors. The cabinet is very strong either in legislation, finance or administration.

(2) The Role of the Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy is a government of the experts, specialists, or scholars¹². It is the permanent part of the executive whereas political executive is not so permanent. Administrative officials constitute the civil service. No Government can carry out its work without administration. Civil servants are trained persons. They are well-educated and well-drilled in legal technical and administrative matters. Bureaucracy in other words mean public servants, government officials or public employees. They are professional administrators. They carry out the administrative work. Public services though mainly concerned with the execution or the implementation or enforcement of the policies also participate in policy-making. They supply the ministers as well as the legislature information, data required for shaping or enacting the policies.¹³ They supply guidance to the ministers in framing the policies. They advise and supply the necessary material to the ministers for policy-making. They act as the agents for the fulfilment of the policy of the party in power. They give legislative form to on frame the policies. They lay down administrative rules and regulations. In order to execute the acts of the parliament, administration frames the rules,

regulations and bye-laws which are a significant contribution to policy-making. They should implement the policies of the government whether they like them or not. They should consider themselves as the servants of the people.

(3) The Role of the Legislature

The legislature is one of the important branches of the government. It is a law-making body. The legislature is the most important body in policy formulation in democratic countries. It makes new policies required for the country. It is the mirror of the nation.¹⁴ All the policies are reflected in this mirror. It actually frames the official policy. It has been described as the mirror and moulders of public opinion. Legislature is the forum where political policies and ideas are discussed and debated. It is the agency through which the will of the state is formulated, expressed and realised. It takes independent and final decision in the matters of policy-making. It is one of the most important authority in policy formulation. Its role is to influence the policy-making process. It performs very important functions like deliberating, scrutinising, and publishing the government policies and their consequences. It influences and moulds the public policies through general discussion, adjournment motions, cut motions, resolutions etc.,

Following are the occasions or the events when legislature shows concern on the policy formulation:

- (1) Law making events.
- (2) Presidential address.
- (3) Discussion on budget.
- (4) Voting of grants.
- (5) Adjournment motions.
- (6) Various resolutions.

The control of the legislature does not end here. It controls the administration. It continues to supervise direct and control the implementation of administration.

The legislature influence public policies through the following ways.

(1) Debates and discussions

The parliament may exercise control through various debates and discussions, which provides an opportunity for the review of government policies and their implementation. The most important occasions for the discussion is during the presidents inaugural speech to both Houses of Parliament. The budget speech of the Finance Minister during the introduction of the new legislative proposals.

(2) Resolutions and motions

The legislature has the power to pass resolutions on any matter or to move motions to censure a particular minister or the government as a whole. The most important motions are called attention motion, adjournment motion, privilege motion, no-confidence motion, cut motions etc.

A resolutions is recommendatory in the sense, where censure motions if passed, make it compulsory for the government to resign.

(3) Questions

During the question hour in parliament any member can ask question-seeking information on any matter. The minister concerned replies to those questions. If the answer given by the minister does not satisfy the member then he can ask the supplementary questions to which minister are expected to give satisfactory replies. The main purpose of the questions hour is to solve the public difficulties. Since the question may

cover any file or branch of administration, the public officials are constantly alert, conscious and responsible for the official acts.

(4) Budgetary Control

In every democratic country, the legislature controls the nation's purse. No money can be spent by the executive without legislative sanction. The budget proposals are extensively debated in the parliament before being voted upon. It is also the duty of the parliament to see that the money sanctioned has been spent economically and in accordance with the guidelines laid down by it. This requires proper audit of expenditure.

(5) Parliamentary Committees

Following are the important parliamentary committees which exert influence on policy-making.

(1) *Public Accounts Committee*

Public accounts committee is called as the watch dog of the parliament.¹⁵ The main function of the public accounts committee is to examine the report of the Comptroller and Auditor General in order to ascertain that the money granted by the parliament has been spent by the government within the scope of the demand. It is the duty of the committee among other things to draw the attention of the parliament to cases of improper, wasteful or extravagant expenditure. It is to detect frauds, irregularities, misappropriation etc.

(2) *Estimates Committee*

It is the another important committee of the parliament. It is open to the committee to examine any matter which may have been settled as a matter of policy by the Government in the discharge of its executive functions. The committee usually

divides itself into sub-committees and each sub-committee is assigned one part of scrutiny work. It may also undertake tours to examine the work of field establishments of the ministry. Its recommendations naturally given due consideration by the government. It may summon non-officials to tender evidence. The committee collects the information report from the ministers and submit to the house of the people.

(3) Committee on Public Undertakings

It is the third committee of the Parliament. The committee on public undertakings exercises a more effective control on the working of government undertakings. Further, it examines the autonomy and efficiency of public undertakings. It also examines the reports of the Comptroller and Auditor-General on public undertakings.

(4) Dilemmas of the Policy-making Process in India

The policy-making process in India has run into many troubles and pitfalls. It has not been successful to the expectations of the Indians. Why it has not been successful? For this many reasons can be given and many factors are responsible. It has been receiving criticisms and reactions from the public, great scholars and parliamentarians.

The reasons can be summed up as follows:

(1) Failure of implementation or poor implementation

In India policy implementation is deeply affected by the local politics. In India, the pressure groups are not so active at the stage of policy-making and policy implementation. As a result the implementation of socio-economic policies is ultimately determined by the local political interests and pressures.

Policy remains frustrated and benefits goes to others

other than target groups. In India policy implementation is very weak and poor.

In India we notice today that there is no timely implementation of the plans, policies and programmes. The policies have not been able to reach their targets. The failure of the policies are caused on account of natural calamities like floods, famines and the lack of resources. That is why it is said that "Indians are good planners, but bad doers."

(2) Evils of bureaucracy

The governmental administration in India has been proved too weak and inefficient, as it cares more for the rules, regulations and formalities without caring for the real needs and problems of the citizens. Corruption has become routine in governmental administration. It cannot be eradicated either by law or by an ordinance. Both citizens and the government are equally responsible for the evils of corruption.

We talk of neat, nice, clear, efficient administration but in practice, quite reverse is the result. So the evils like red-tapism nepotism, corruption etc. have become the hurdles or difficulties in the ways of policy implementation.

(3) Absence of systematic study and research

India had no arrangement or provision for systematic application of thought as to policy formulation and implementation. In India there is no organ for detailed interdisciplinary study necessary for policy making¹⁶. Ad-hocism prevails, in policymaking process. Policy formulation in India is in unsatisfactory state of affairs. The search for alternatives and essential exercises in policy-making. Provision at the earliest must be made in each department for enquiry and research, before a policy is defined and put into operation. Research and enquiry should be carried out with the close

co-operation of the administrative departments. Specialists should be recruited to such tasks. Senior officers in all departments must devote an adequate amount of time to enquire, researchers keeps contacts with research, which at present is negligible.

The policy advisory committee is attached to the cabinet secretariat consisting of minister of state for external-affairs, the minister of state in internal security, minister of state of defence and some senior civil servants and experts. Its job is to formulate the current policies. The committee enjoys only advisory role. It does not meet regularly.

(4) Tenure system under stress

Tenure system of the secretaries are under stress and strain, because they are sent on deputation's say, for, example, 5, 6 years. After the deputation period is over they hesitate to go back to their parent departments. They are not ready to quit post and they make all kinds of efforts to prolong their tenure. Postings in the central secretariat are open to I.A.S. Senior officers—theoretically. But practically depositions are based on minister's recommendations. Further, the opportunities for deputation have not been distributed equally. On return from secretariat the civil servants should be welcome to their states and field agencies and they must not be treated as punishment postings.

(5) Departmentalism—A hindrance to policy making

Policy-making suffers from another weakness, *i.e.*, departmentalise. Policies are formulated or made very narrowly *i.e.*, on departmental basis. Each department has its peculiar viewpoints. They are narrowly-oriented narrow specialism. It hinders in formulating a unified policy. Indeed departmentalism hinders sound policy making and implementation.

Policy Analysis

Public policy analysis is concerned with governmental behaviour¹⁷. Analysis is the basis of policy. What the Government actually chooses to do or not to do forms the core of policy enquiry. Major policy decisions are taken by the Government in such areas as defence, industry, agriculture, education and so on. Besides, financial expenditure, such decisions produce important and wide ranging consequences. These questions are now being raised by policy analysts. Policy-making knowledge has wider concern. It deals with the system of policy-making activity, how it operates and how it can be improved.

Policies should be comprehensively examine the facts, bring out their implications and the relationship between cause and effect between measures and their impact. In the absence of these studies, policies may fail.

It is said that once the policies are formulated, their implementation has to be effectively started. We, in India, have framed or evolved several policies over the last 53 years. Not all the policies have been successful. The policy of regulation of industry has not succeeded but on the other hand, led to black economy and misuses of industrial licensing. The policy for the increase in agricultural production has only partially succeeded. The policy of land reform and co-operative farming has failed because of lack of capacity to implement the policy. The policies of Panchayati Raj or democratic decentralisation have not been successful because of lack of steady and long-term political commitment. The science and technology policy, though based on the concept of self reliance has led to a technological gap. The education policy has not succeeded either in elimination of illiteracy or improvement of the quality of

education. There are so many areas where policy re-examination is called for.

Some Key-points about Public Policy

Political scientist Charles O. Jones made a number of observations about public policy in general, following are the nine important assumptions of public policy analysis.

- (1) Events in society are interpreted in different ways by different people at different times. This first point can be illustrated by considering the increase as the event. First facts are disputed. The increase rates in crimes may be largely statistical. Interpretation of facts is also different. For this need the more and better police protection. Government should improve the programmes for the elimination of poverty, slums and other conditions that cause people to commit many crimes.
- (2) Many problems may result from the same event. It is the Jones IInd important assumption about public policy analysis. Economic problem is the most important problem. If the economy of a nation is not sound, tax yields decrease services to the public are reduced. Pleasure travel and entertainment expenditures decline. Less expensive modes of transportation are preferred. These are some of the effect.¹⁸
- (3) People have varying degree of access to the policy process in government. Financial resources strength of organisation, and political-power are important factors in gaining such access. The government should make positive efforts to help to consumers, minorities, and the poor. And what government should do is to reduce the influence of powerful group.
- (4) Most problems are not solved by government though

many are acted on by it. The problems that the contemporary government facing is complex. And there are no complete or permanent solutions to those problems government generally creates condition that permit private individuals and organisation to succeed in their work. Government do not have all the answers, solutions and remedies, to those problems.

- (5) Policy-makers are not faced with a given problem. Lindblom's point is that policy-makers are not usually presented with a defined problem. They must determine the cause of the difficulties before they can propose solutions. First real problems to be solved. The real problem may be racial caste discrimination, low-income, urban-disorganisation, alienation and similar factors.
- (6) Problems and demands are constantly being refined and redefined in the policy process. Policy-makers adjust their sights accordingly. Objective events can change the reality. Definition and re-definition is inherent in the policy process because of the complexity of the problem.
- (7) Policy-makers sometimes define problems for people who have not defined problems for themselves.

Policy may lack the time or analytical skill.¹⁹ Sometimes policy-makers refuse to acknowledge the existence of difficulties. There is a danger that the policy-makers may make hasty erroneous, superficial or arbitrary judgements in defining the problem. Safeguards should be provided into the policy-making system to reduce this possibility.

- (8) Much policy is made without the problems ever having been clearly defined. Administrators were given broad authority in the act. But he is not sure

what ought to be done. The fact is that broad legislation was passed, a new agency created, large sums appropriated, ignoring the problem of poverty.

- (9) All policy systems have a bias. The bias may be of different kinds. If the policy-making is dominated by the very wealthy, the lower middle classes or which - ever the most influential group, the policies will mostly reflect the interests of that group. Decisions may be controlled by oligarchies or some persons may have much more influence than others. The policy-making system may have been constructed to provide numerous checks and balances as in the united states system.²⁰

Notes and References

1. Appleby, *Policy and Administration*, p. 7.
2. E.N. Gladden, *Essentials of Public Administration*, Chapter V, Public Policy is a multi-dimensional subject. It comprehends many subjects like sociology, political science, economics etc.
3. Dimock and Dimock, *Public Administration*, Rinehart and Co., New York, 1936; p. 82.

Public policy cannot be made in isolation or vacuum. It involves many persons and institutions as plural and composite.

4. Quoted by Dalton, E. McFarland in *Management Principles and Practices* (New York : MacMillan Co., 1964), p. 191.
5. Paul H. Appleby, *Policy and Administration* (University of Alabama Press, 1949), p.7.
Policy-making is a very vast and wide branch. It covers almost every aspects of man's life.
6. Seckler Hudson, *Organisation and Management : Theory and Practice*, (Washington D.C. The American University Press 1957), p. 71.
7. E.N. Gladden, *Essentials of Public Administration*, (London: Staple's Press 1953), Chapter V.

Authority actually means power holders. It is legal, rational and legitimate.

8. Read Charles E. Lindblom, *The Policy Making Process*, (Englewood Cliffs. N.J. Hall 1968).
9. L.D. White, *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration*. New York: Crowell Collier 1955, p. 1.

The Abbreviation O and M indicates or denotes or implies Organisation and Methods.

10. J.M. Pfiffner and R. Presthus, *Public Administration*. p. 7.

Macro-economic policies and related to the comprehensive and general issues. It is approached from different angles.

11. M.E. Dimock, G.O. Dimock and L.W. Koeing, *Public Administration*. New York, Holt and Winston, 1958. p.12-14.

Here a distinction is made between the nominal and the real executive. The President of India is nominal or ceremonial head while the cabinet is the real executive.

12. For a detailed review, See S.N. Eisenstadt, "Bureaucracy, Bureaucratisation, and Debureaucratisation," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 4 (Dec. 1959), pp. 302-320.
13. K.N. Butani, "Implementing Administrative Innovations and Reforms," *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 12, 1966, p. 615.
14. H.A. Simon, "A Comment on the Science of Public Administration," *Public Administration Review*, 8 (1948), pp. 200-203.

Legislature is the original and new policy-making body in democratic countries.

15. H.A. Simon, D.W. Smithburg, V.A. Thompson, *Public Administration*, New York: Knopf, 1950, p.6.

Public Accounts Committee (PAC) is actually called as the watch-dog of public finance.

16. Charles E. Lindblom, "The Science of Muddling Through," *Public Administration Review*, 19, No. 2, (Spring 1959), pp. 79-88.
17. Ira Sharkansky, *Public Administration*, p. 88.

18. Amitai Etzioni, "Mixed Scanning : `Third' Approach to Decision-making," *Public Administration Review*, 27, No. 5, Dec. 1967, pp. 389-390.
19. Yehezkel Dror, *Public Policy-making Re-examined*, Chandler, San Francisco, 1968, p. 8.
20. Ira Sharkansky, *Policy Analysis in Political Science*, Markham, Chicago, 1970.