

PART THREE
MANAGEMENT

CHAPTER TEN

MANAGEMENT AND ITS TASKS

“The heart of administration is the management of programmes designed to serve the general welfare.” —*Paul H. Appleby*.

The above statement is particularly applicable to India in the context of our planned economy geared up to achieve ‘socialistic society’ and ‘welfare state’. Management is significant to every organisation, public or private, governmental or business, because it deals with a natural function of human society, namely, the fundamental endeavour of achieving objectives. Bigness and complexity of the modern government have made the study of public management imperative.

Meaning

The term ‘management’ is used in many senses. It should not be confused with a person, a group of people, an economic, social or political class. Management is a process made up of definite function ; those who perform these tasks are managers. No standard terminology has yet been evolved in this field as would satisfy everyone. Thus, management is sometimes confused with Administration and sometimes with Organisation. Some writers equate the term Administration and Management ; others go further and subordinate Administration to Management. The widely prevalent view, however, is of Meyer according to whom Management, in contrast to Administration, is a purely internal concept “characterising any activity discharged within the framework of an organisation unit.” There is a similar confusion as to the relationship between Organisation and Management. Some writers regard Organisation as merely one of the many functions of Management. Others use Organisation in a wider sense to comprehend Management. The fact, however, is that Organisation is the anatomy or the structure while Management is the physiology or the process. Drawing a distinction between the two terms, Seckler-Hudson says, “In this volume organisation will be regarded as the division and unification of effort toward some goal or policy. Management will be regarded as the collective utilisation of human resources and material in an effort to

reach the known goal.”¹ In other words, Organisation is the framework or apparatus of administration, while Management is the running of it. In the words of Millett, “Public Administration is an instrument for the exercise of political power. Administrative organisation is the formalised structure for exercising certain powers of government, and management is the group of persons and the process by which organisation is animated to accomplish these ends.”² Management, thus, is a process of achieving a desired goal. However, Management is not doing things, but getting them done. Managers obtain objectives through the efforts of others. According to Terry, “Management is the accomplishing of pre-determined objective through the efforts of other people.”³

Nature

Some of the main characteristics of Management may be described as follows :

(a) *Universality of the management process.* It means that the fundamental functions of management are a sort of distinct skill and are performed by the manager regardless of the type of enterprise, the major activities or the level at which the manager works. Management, according to this view, is a technique which can be studied, and training in its application acquired. Such skill can also be transferred from one field to the other. The entire concept of generalist administration is predicated upon this assumption. There is a growing trend towards the transfer of personnel at the managerial level from public to business field and *vice versa*. It is in this sense that management may be called a science.

(b) *Management as team work.* Management is more than a single manager ; it is collective endeavour by a team. The process of management is not confined to one particular step or level in an organisation. It is present in the entire organisation at many different hierarchical levels of authority and responsibility. In the words of Fayol, management “is neither an exclusive privilege nor a particular responsibility of the head or senior members of the business ; it is an activity spread, like all other activities, between head and

- 1 Seckler-Hudson, C. : *Organisation and Management*, Washington, D. C., The American University Press, 1957, p. 12.
- 2 Millett, J. D. : *Management in the Public Service*, New York, McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954, p. 7.
- 3 Terry, G. R. : *Principles of Management*, Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1956, p. 18.

members of the body corporate.”⁴ According to him the work of each class of employees in an industrial concern requires some managerial ability. The difference between types of activities is, thus, one of degree and not of kind; it may range from 5% in the case of worker to 50% in the case of manager.

(c) *Management as profession.* A profession has been defined as “a calling in which one professes to have acquired specialised knowledge which is used either in instructing, guiding or advising others.” The present managerial class fulfils these conditions. Complete professionalisation, however, is not possible. There is greater possibility of it in staff positions than in operating ones. Again, management cannot be a profession in the sense of accreditation by a third party similar to admission to the bar or licence to practise medicine. However, professionalisation has its advantages. Apart from giving the managers a professional pride in their jobs, it also helps in the acceptance of the functions of management.

Tasks

If management is a process, it can be broken up into a number of tasks or functions. Gulick summed them up in a self-coined word POSDCORB—planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting. According to Terry, the four fundamental functions of management are planning, organising, actuating and controlling. To Fayol the process involved planning, organising, co-ordinating and controlling. Seckler-Hudson takes a more comprehensive view and includes in this process policy formation; securing, locating and utilising authority; planning; organising; budgeting; staffing; operating; reporting; leading; directing; and controlling. Millett distinguishes between the ‘substantive or peculiar’ problems of management and the ‘technical or common’ problems. Substantive problems are peculiar to each agency of government and are related to the nature of service it renders. Thus, there are differences between the management of education and police departments. On the other hand, technical problems are common to all large scale organisations, and embrace the threefold tasks of work direction, work operation and internal services. Work direction includes the problems of leadership, planning, communication, supervision and public relations. The common

4 Fayol, H. : *General and Industrial Management*, London, Pitman, 1949, p. 6.

problems of work operation are organisation, personnel, budget, and legal service. Internal services include 'house-keeping' functions like provision of physical plant, stores, record keeping, etc. In brief, among the more important tasks of Management are : Leadership, Policy Formulation, Decision-making, Planning, Co-ordination, Communication, Delegation, Supervision and Public Relations. These functions of Management are discussed in the following chapters. Other functions of Management like Organisation, Staffing and Budgeting are dealt with elsewhere in the book. It should be borne in mind that no rigid lines can be drawn between different phases of management process. Nor are these tasks performed in a particular order. It is also possible to perform these tasks, or some of them, simultaneously. In practice, these functions are inextricably interwoven.

Participative Management

'Participative Management' is a currently fashionable phrase in management circles. The term means participating by the employees in the decision-making process of the organisation they serve in so far as it affects their interests immediately or remotely. This is part of recent demand for 'democratic leadership' in organisations and 'human factor' in administration. It is said that 'participative management' tends to,

"(1) increase the degree of 'we' feeling (or cohesiveness that participants have with their organisation ;

(2) provide the participants with an overall organisational point of view instead of the traditionally more narrow departmental point of view ;

(3) decrease the amount of conflict, hostility, and cut-throat competition among the participants ;

(4) increase the individuals' understanding of each other which leads to increased tolerance and patience towards others ;

(5) increase the individual's free expression of his personality, which results in an employee who sticks with the organisation ; and

(6) develop a 'work climate' as a result of the other tendencies in which the subordinates find opportunity to be more creative and to come up with ideas beneficial to the organisation."⁵

5 Argyris, C. : *Organisational Leadership and Participative Management*—Excerpt from the Journal of Business, Vol. XXVIII, No. 1, January, 1955, pp. 1-7.

It should, however, be remembered that 'participative management' is no magic formula to solve all employer-employee problems. Its successful introduction in an organisation depends, according to Argyris, on factors like the nature of organisational structure, the informal groupings within the organisation, the personnel policies of the organisation, and the attitude of top management towards it.

Tests of Good Management

It is not easy to evolve a universally accepted test of good management. Standards devised to measure the quality of performance are bound to vary from time to time, place to place, and community to community. Yet, it is accepted, by and large, that the true test of good administration is effective performance. Most persons are prone to judge this effectiveness by the extent of accomplishment of targets. They are interested primarily in results, but results may be attained at tremendous costs in men, money and materials, and by the use of wrong procedures and iniquitous means. Attention must, therefore, be given to means as well. According to Herbert Simon, "Rational behaviour in administration is primarily a calculation of means reasonably expected to realise a given end." Luther Gulick regards efficiency as the "single ultimate value in administration." Similarly, Waldo regards efficiency and economy as 'twin beacons' of administration. But what is efficiency? It is a compendious term and may include varied attributes like swiftness in action, economy in cost, proper procedure, maximum utilisation of resources etc. Efficiency is said to have three aspects: physical efficiency which is the relationship between physical quantities consumed and produced; business efficiency which is the relationship between amount of money spent and income received; and social efficiency which is the relationship between the human costs incurred and human satisfactions produced. In other words, efficiency is the relationship between the input and output in terms of materials, money and men. There is still another aspect of efficiency, namely, the state of personal relationships within the organisation. In fact, no administrative agency can give a good account of itself unless there is harmony and shared understanding among the employees of the organisation. Physician must cure himself before trying his hand on others.

To these tests Millett adds three values—satisfactory service,

responsible performance, and good government.⁶ Satisfactory service means fair and equitable service, that is, equal treatment to all citizens on the part of administration ; timely service, that is, service to be effective must be in time ; ample service, that is, the right quantity at the right place and at the right time ; continuous service, that is, service unobstructed by "rain, snow, sky or dark of night"; and progressive service, that is, "a service which improves in quality and performance". "Responsible performance of the public service means that management provides direction for administrative effort by working with and through those institutional devices which exist to express the will of a democratic society." An arbitrary and irresponsible administration can hardly fill the bill in modern times and that is why the administration today has to be democratic and responsible and not bureaucratic and irresponsible. 'Good government' has been the goal ever since the times of Plato and Aristotle, but throughout history the term has been differently interpreted. To the Americans 'good government' has come to mean a limited government within limits and a government in which the people participate. The Communist interpretation of good government is government by a single party.

Gulick makes the tests of effective management still more comprehensive. To him, the true goals of management are to make the conduct of affairs technically sound, politically responsible, publicly acceptable, professionally approved and socially constructive.

6 Millett, J. D. : *op. cit.*, Chapter 17.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

LEADERSHIP, POLICY-FORMATION AND DECISION-MAKING

LEADERSHIP

Need for Leadership

The crisis of administration in India today is the crisis of leadership. With the 'public' sector constantly on the increase, large and complex organisations are being built up under the aegis of the ever-expanding 'Welfare' State. All these organisations, big and small, need administrative leadership. More schools, more hospitals, more industries, more steel plants, more corporations, more institutes and laboratories call for one indispensable element, namely, administrative leadership. Similarly, the successful implementation of thousands of programmes included in our Plan depends for their success on good leadership. Barnard is, thus, right in remarking "that the necessary proportion of leaders to the population has greatly increased."¹ Growth in technology and specialisation too have made leadership complex. In the words of Seckler-Hudson, "the overwhelming significance of the problems of leadership has mounted with the revolutionary growth of such factors of size, complexity, specialisation, organisational entities, technical developments and social demands."² Thus, the first and the foremost task of Management today is to provide leadership, that is, to direct, guide, control, and co-ordinate the activities of a group of persons with a view to achieving the desired goals of the organisation.

Meaning and Nature

In spite of the overwhelming significance of leadership there is no unanimity about its contents. "Indeed, I have never observed any leader who was able to state adequately or intelligently why he was able to be a leader, nor any statement of followers that acceptably

1 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 239.

2 Barnard, C. I. : *Organisation and Management*, Cambridge (Mass.), Harvard University Press, 1948, p. 83.

expressed why they followed," says Barnard,³ and a person of his standing should know what he is saying. Leadership is often confused with personal pre-eminence. People tend to forget that leadership has a double meaning. A look at the dictionary meaning of the verb 'to lead' would show that the term is used in two different senses. In one sense it means "to excel, to be in advance, to be prominent"; in another sense it means "to guide others, to be head of an organisation, to hold command." A useful distinction can, thus, be drawn between personal leadership and management leadership. "A person is born with the talent for personal leadership ; he must learn management leadership."⁴

It must be made clear at the outset that leadership should not be equated with command and fear. More than coercion, persuasion and inspiration motivate successful leadership. Leadership has, thus, been defined as "the activity of persuading people to co-operate in the achievement of a common objective."⁵ In a similar vein Terry defines it as "the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for mutual objectives."⁶ In the words of Seckler-Hudson, "Leadership in large organisations may be defined as influencing and energising of people to work together in a common effort to achieve the purposes of the enterprise."⁷ According to Barnard, leadership "refers to the quality of the behaviour of individuals whereby they guide people of their activities in organised effort."⁸ In his opinion, leadership "depends upon three things : (1) the individual, (2) the followers, and (3) the conditions."⁹ Very often we think of leadership as being chiefly personal in character. Undoubtedly, important though this aspect is, it alone is not enough. This much will depend on the quality and character of the followers. Mary Parker Follet has vividly described this relationship : "We have now to lay somewhat less stress than formerly on this matter of the leader influencing his group because we now think of the leader as being influenced by his group. One of our Chief Justices said to me once that he consi-

3 Barnard, C. I. : *op. cit.*, pp. 37-38.

4 Allen, L. A. : *Management and Organisation*, New York, McGraw Hill Book Company, 1958, p. 5.

5 Koontz, H. & O'Donnell, G. : *Principles of Management*, New York, McGraw Hill, 1955, p. 69.

6 Terry : *op. cit.*, p. 376.

7 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 138.

8 Barnard, *op. cit.*, p. 83.

9 *Ibid.*, p. 84.

dered this reciprocal relation the main characteristic of leadership. I think it is one of the best examples of what I have.....called circular response. The currents go both ways. The channels should be kept open for the continuous flow to go on all the time. When it gets dammed up, effective leadership stops. That is, we should think not only of what the leader does to the group, but also of what the group does to the leader."¹⁰ The third variable is the conditions in the background of which the leadership operates. Millett is right when he says that "leadership is often made or broken by circumstance."¹¹ According to him, "the essential circumstances of leadership are twofold—political and institutional. By the political conditions of administrative leadership we mean the need to be responsive to external political direction and control.....By the institutional conditions of leadership we mean the need to be responsive to the requirements of internal operation, of keeping an administrative agency in actual running order."¹²

Koontz and O'Donnell refer to three different approaches to leadership—traitist, situationist and elementalists.¹³ "The traitist "adopted an inductive procedure, observing those recognised as leaders and enumerating the traits each possessed. Qualities held in common were assumed to be essential, and an enumeration was offered as a standard for measuring leadership potential."¹⁴ Tead, Barnard and Schell are prominent advocates of this approach. The difficulty with this theory, however, is that there is no evidence of common traits of leadership. The traitists seldom agree on common qualities of leadership and, thus, fail to furnish universally acceptable traits. The situationist approach is concerned more with evolving a method for identifying leaders : "Their starting-point is to assume that certain elements, such as, speech, intelligence, stability, and persistence, are essential in leaders. The next step is to place a candidate in a group and observe how he acts under trial situations that are constructed as realistically as possible."¹⁵ This approach has, however, been used only in an experimental basis for the selection

10 Metcalf, H.C. & Urwick, L. (Ed.) : *Dynamic Administration : The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1947, pp. 247-48.

11 Millett, *op. cit.*, p. 34.

12 *Ibid.*, pp. 37-38.

13 Koontz & O'Donnell : *op. cit.*, Chapter 5.

14 *Ibid.*, p. 64.

15 *Ibid.*, p. 66.

of army and police officers in certain western countries like Germany and the U.S.A. The proponents of the elemental approach "are concerned with refining the concepts of leadership traits, correlating these with leadership success, and thus developing a value for each."¹⁶ Still others try to learn about the leader by studying his followers. Thus, a lot of research is going on in the field.

According to Barnard, a leader performs four main functions : the determination of objectives ; the manipulation of means ; the control of the instrumentality of action ; and the stimulation of co-ordinated action.¹⁷

Qualities of Leadership

Almost every writer on Management has his own list. Thus, Barnard's list includes four qualities : Vitality and Endurance ; Decisiveness ; Persuasiveness ; Responsibility and Intellectual Capacity—in that order of importance.¹⁸ His views on the limitations of intellectualism are interesting. He decries the present trend to put excessive emphasis upon intellectual attainments by selecting authorities. "We all know persons in and out of practical affairs of superior intellects and intellectual accomplishments who do not work well as leaders. In matters of leadership, for example, they prove to be irresponsible—, non-decisive—, non-persuasive. Moreover, we can observe that intellectual capacity rarely rises above physiological disabilities in active life, that the utmost perspicacity is useless for leadership if it does not decide issues, that persuasive processes must take full account of the irrational by which all are largely governed, that responsibility is a moral or emotional condition."¹⁹ Barnard's view in this respect has not gone unchallenged. Reading a paper on the Political Executive at the Conference on that subject at the Woodrow Wilson School of Public and International Affairs, Princeton University (U.S.A.), Harlan Cleveland, till recently the Dean, Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University (U.S.A.), pointedly remarked, "I suspect that Mr. Barnard would agree that for the political executive, intellectual capacity should rank higher on his list than the last place. A political executive, unlike a business executive, cannot possibly delegate his thinking to

16 Koontz & O'Donnell : *op. cit.*, p. 67.

17 Barnard : *op. cit.*, p. 85.

18 *Ibid.*, p. 93.

19 *Ibid.*, p. 98.

a vice-president for ideas. It is a condition of survival in the jungle that he should do his own home work and be in intellectual command of the subject-matter of the programme for which he is responsible. When a congressional committee or an important 'veto group' wants to know the story and asks embarrassing questions, no understudy with a mimeographed statement will fill the bill." The same will apply to the ministers in India. Cleveland's own list of attributes of leadership, in his own words, is : "Our political executive must be imbued with the public interest, he must be a leader of men, he must do his own thinking and be his own public relations man, and he should preferably have had some private experience." As the Hoover Commission's Task Force Report on Personnel and Civil Service (1955) noted : "His foresight must equal the hindsight of a host of critics.....The rules of the game of national politics allow no margin for error...To lead the life of a political executive of a high rank amidst the asperities of American politics is a test of toughness, of intelligence, and of devotion to the public interest." Millett enumerates these qualities as : Good health, a sense of mission, interest in other people, intelligence, integrity, persuasiveness, judgement and loyalty.²⁰ According to Terry, these qualities are : energy, emotional stability, knowledge of human relations, personal motivation, communicative skill, teaching ability, social skill and technical competence.²¹ According to Appleby, a good administrator has willingness to assume responsibilities ; demonstrates continuing personal growth ; is disposed toward action ; is a good listener who asks pointed questions ; works well with all sorts of people ; seeks ablest obtainable subordinates ; uses institutional resources—does not try to do it all and know it all himself ; cares for power only as it contributes to effectiveness, chiefly as a reserve asset, has self-confidence, and so is ready to admit his limitations and errors ; is hospitable to bad news as well as good ; respects subordinates as much as superiors ; constantly seeks to improve institutional performance ; and in democratic governments he respects political processes and responsibilities.²²

In our opinion, a leader, as the successful head of a big organisation, should possess the following attributes :

20 Millett : *op. cit.*, pp. 33-34.

21 Terry : *op. cit.*, pp. 384-86.

22 Appleby, Paul H., In his public lecture on 'Good Administrator' delivered at the *Indian Institute of Public Administration* on April 14, 1961.

(1) *Decisiveness.* Nothing is possibly more damaging to the morale of an organisation than a vacillating, procrastinating, hesitating and undecisive chief.

(2) *Clarity of vision.* A leader must know what he wants and what he does not want.

(3) *Foresight.* A leader should be both foresighted and far-seeing. He should be able to rise above and see beyond the existing situation.

(4) *Unerring judgement.* A leader's judgement has to be more correct than incorrect.

(5) *Building up of subordinates.* The extent to which an executive can change the baser human metal around him into shining gold is an index of his good leadership. He must win the confidence and trust of his staff and inspire them.

(6) *Participative management.* A leader should, of course, be a good organiser. In addition, he should also be able to create in the workers a feeling of participating in managing the organisation.

(7) *Good public relations.* In modern age this is a quality most needed. The executive should have the skill to sell his wares.

(8) *Improvement in consciousness.* The leader should be progressive and be enthused with the desire to improve performance of the organisation.

Development of Leadership

Now that management has come to be regarded as a 'science' and a technique and accepted as a profession, the need for training managers has been universally recognised. It is true that, traditionally, managers and executive leaders have been 'born' rather than 'made'. It is also true that 'coaching' by the boss and the school of experience have been the traditional modes of training, and, indeed, they will never cease to play their part. But the complex and technical nature of administrative processes have made a more systematic and better planned training programme imperative. In the words of Barnard, "I suppose no one doubts that without education the supply of leaders of organisation competent for conditions of the modern world would be wholly inadequate and many of us suspect that if we knew better how to train men, we should be much better able than we are to cope with the social dilemmas we confront."²³

Barnard in his chapter on 'Education for Executives' makes a penetrating analysis of the needs of the executives and suggests methods to develop these requirements :

(1) *Need for broad interests and wide imagination and understanding.* This can be inculcated by a system of general education supplemented by self-education on the part of the executives. Barnard suggests even giving them 'sabbatical leave' to brush up their knowledge and graze into fresher and wider pastures. In India the government has already introduced general education at the university level and public servants are being encouraged to go on leave for education and training. Short-term courses, seminars, conferences, and workshops are being organised with the same end in view.

(2) *Superior intellectual capacities.* A highly cultivated and trained mind is essential to understand the modern world of complex technologies and intricate techniques. This aspect is perhaps most amenable to formal education and training.

(3) *Understanding human relations.* "The need of such understanding is of first importance to the executive ; for human relations are the essence of managerial, employee, public and political relations ; and, in most cases, these rather than science, technology, law or finance are the central areas of the executive functions."²⁴ According to Barnard, there are three aspects to this problem : (i) appreciation of non-rational behaviour of human beings. Man, it must be remembered, does not always act rationally ; quite often emotions determine his conduct. Intellectuals often tend to speak of the people as "stupid, dumb and animal like" but it is these persons with whom administrators have to deal. (ii) An understanding of the nature of general social system ; and (iii) an understanding of formal organisations as organic and evolving systems. Organisations can seldom be built up on paper in accordance with some preconceived concepts for the simple reason that organisations consist of persons who can't be left out of account in building up or running an organisation. All these three points are susceptible to formal instruction in educational institutions.

(4) *Importance of persuasion in human affairs.* The essence of administrative leadership, it has been rightly said, is not command but persuasion, particularly in a democratic society. This calls for training in the art of expression through writing, conversation or public speaking.

The question that now remains to be solved is how to educate and train executives. The magical effect of training and education should not be exaggerated. "The qualification for leadership that is subject to specific preparatory training for formal processes is the intellectual, including therein the inculcation of general and specific knowledge."²⁵ Barnard draws a distinction between knowledge and skill in this connection, and regards the latter as more important. He defines skill as "the effective behaviour by which the appropriate adjustment to the infinite complexity of the concrete is established," and this, Barnard says, may depend more on experience or even intuition. It must be admitted that many attributes of leadership are not susceptible of formal training. They may either be discovered or grow out of experience.

How to Select Leaders ?

This is a highly ticklish question. The very first question that arises here is : Are leaders manufactured or are they simply identified ? In other words, is the task merely to discover persons with qualities of leadership and put them in position ? Administrative leaders today are secured by selection and not by formal preparation. But how to select such persons ? Selection on the basis of written test is loaded heavily in favour of intellectual calibre. Selection on the basis of a prolonged psychological-cum-intelligence-cum-observation basis, as in the army, succeeds better in locating persons with skill of co-operation, co-ordination, leadership, organisation, etc. The role of experience in building up leadership, however, should not be underestimated. In the words of Barnard, "balance, perspective, and proportion in the senses relevant to leadership are to be acquired almost exclusively from responsible experience in leading."²⁶ He suggests that administrators should be encouraged to gain experience in leadership outside the organisation they work in. Practice in leading is as important as in any other sphere. There is no substitute to a person's experience in carving out a place for himself against odds. In brief, proper method of selection, formal education and training, and informal as well as formal experience will all be needed to create the requisite quality and quantity of leadership in modern society. The truth, however, remains that leadership is not given, it is assumed.

25 Barnard : *op. cit.*, p. 102.

26 *Ibid.*, p. 105.

POLICY-FORMATION

Significance

The process of policy-formation is one of the central processes of government. According to Appleby, the essence of public administration is policy-making. The use of policies is vital in the task of planning a course of action. Policies supply the standard guides which help managers to plan, to act in line with legal requirements and to realise the desired objectives. Policies help the executive keep his activities within a 'prescribed framework of action'. As a matter of fact, policies give meaning to the objectives. The objectives of an organisation are usually couched in general terms. Policies give concrete form to these goals.

Meaning

The term is often used rather loosely : it is confused with rule, custom and decision. While it is true that a rule is a guide inasmuch as it prescribes the 'dos' and 'don'ts', but rules, unlike policies, are specific and rigid. A custom has been defined as 'an habitual course of action'. It is the way in which work is actually done. A custom just grows while a policy may be the result of deliberate action. However, customs and policies need not always coincide. A decision is usually taken within the framework of policy, that is, policy may involve a series of decisions. Similarly, a distinction should be made between policy and method or procedure. Policy is concerned with basic issue while method deals with the way of effectuating a policy. In the words of Terry, "a policy is a verbal, written or implied basic guide to action that is adopted and followed by a manager."²⁷ Dimock defines policies as "the consciously acknowledged rules of conduct that guide administrative decisions."²⁸ Policy should be distinguished from the goal or the objective on the one hand and the operative steps on the other. Thus making every person in the country educated is an objective ; compulsory primary education is a policy designed to realise the goal and the opening of schools and training of teachers, etc., are the steps necessary to carry out the policy.

Policy and Administration

It was Woodrow Wilson who, in his essay on "The Study of

27 Terry, G. R. : *Principles of Management*, 1954, p. 171.

28 Dimock, M.E. & Dimock, G. O. : *Public Administration*, New York, Rinehart & Co., 1956, p. 82.

Administration" published in 1887, attempted a rigid distinction between policy and administration. To him policy-making was a political function while administration was concerned only with the enforcement of policies. In his own words, "the field of administration is a field of business. It is removed from the hurry and strife of politics."²⁹ Administration lies outside the proper sphere of politics. Administrative questions are not political questions. Wilson was followed by Goodnow³⁰ who provided a detailed study of the distinction between the two, and influenced the course of administrative study for several decades. Even as late as 1926, White, in the first edition of his book, *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration*, made a clear distinction between politics and administration.

However, such a rigid dichotomy has since been disproved and disavowed. Opinion has veered round to the view that administration cannot be completely divorced from policy and *vice versa*. Luther Gulick was one of the pioneer advocates of this view. Above all, Appleby is the name most often associated with the thesis that politics and administration are inseparable twins. According to him, administration is politics since it must be responsive to the public interest. To quote his own words, "Administrators are continually laying down rules for the future, and administrators are continually determining what the law is, what it means in terms of action, what the rights of parties are with respect both to transactions in process and transactions in prospect.....Administrators also participate in another way in the making of policy for the future ; they formulate recommendations for legislation, and this is a part of the function of policy-making."³¹ Public officials today are, thus, engaged both in policy-formulation and policy-execution, and government is a mixture of administration and politics all the way up and down the line. As Peter Odegard puts it, "policy and administration are the Siamese twins of politics."

The pendulum, however, should not be carried too far to the other extreme so as to believe that there is no distinction between policy and administration. The fact is that the two functions are distinct even though the same person or persons may be performing them.

29 Quoted in Waldo, D. : *Ideas and Issues in Public Administration*, p. 71.

30 Goodnow, F.J. : *Politics and Administration—A Study in Government*, New York, Macmillan, 1900.

31 Appleby, Paul H. : *Policy and Administration*, University of Alabama Press, 1949, p. 7.

A rough and ready and flexible distinction between the two is not only possible but desirable. It is in this sense that White defined public administration as 'the enforcement of public policy'. Louis Brownlow underlines this distinction when he says, "There is and always will be a difference between politics, on the one hand, and administration on the other, no matter how closely they may be related in a democratic society."³²

Formation of Policy

Policy, it should be remembered, is not static and does not stand still. It is dynamic and is prone to constant changes. Policy is formulated in the context of changing goals, shifting environments and varying situations. Seckler-Hudson rightly regards every policy-decision as a 'moment in a process'. In other words, policy-formulation is a continuous obligation and the reformulation of policy in the light of experience is as important as its formulation in the first instance. Secondly, policies are 'not made in a vacuum', that is to say, the policy-maker is not free to formulate policies arbitrarily ; he is bound to take into consideration a number of factors. For example, the policy should be in consonance with the provisions of the constitution as interpreted by the judiciary and the laws made by the legislature. The prevailing social mores, past traditions, customs, usages, conventions, and public opinion may also influence policy-making. At times, even international law and usage and world public opinion give a tilt to policy-formation. Again, the policy of a particular government' agency has to get clearance from other agencies. Thirdly, there are a bewildering variety of pressure groups constantly attempting to mould policies to suit their own interests. Integration of policies consequently becomes a necessary but difficult task. Lastly, a policy is nearly always the result of the co-operative efforts of many. In the words of Seckler-Hudson, "policies are arrived at, then, in all sorts of ways, conditioned by all sorts of matters."³³ The various organs that participate in the process of policy-formation are the legislature, the executive, the judiciary, chief executive, top administrators, all levels of hierarchy in administration, political parties, pressure groups, people, etc. It should be noted that in a given organisation there need not be only

32 Brownlow, L. : *A Passion for Politics*, Chicago, University of Chicago, 1955, p. 256.

33 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, 1957, p. 71.

one point from where policies emanate ; in practice the process is widespread all through the organisation. The whole process is, indeed, twofold, namely, a working down from the rules at the top and a working up from the persons affected. According to Gladden,³⁴ four different levels in policy-making may be distinguished : (1) political or general policy framed by the Parliament, (2) executive policy framed by the Cabinet, (3) administrative policy, that is, the form in which the administrator carries out the will of the government, and (4) technical policy, that is, the day-to-day policy adopted by officials in the working out of the administrative policy.

Policy-Formulation in India

While the formulation of public policies under the system of government in India is concentrated in the Executive, the various processes of policy-making are diffused over the entire system. The following are some of the important policy-making organs :

1. *Constitution*. All policies must be in conformity with the constitutional framework. The Preamble declares the objectives while the Directive Principles lay down the policies.

2. *Legislature*. Its role is primarily that of vetoing, regulation and influence. It only helps in the determination of the final form of some of the policies. The occasions for exercising parliamentary control over policies are many and varied—law-making, President's address, general discussion on the Budget, voting of grants, interpellations, adjournment motions and resolutions. There are, however, limits to this control :

- (a) Not every public policy requires legislative enactment, and
- (b) The legislatures do not generally take initiative in sponsoring legislation.

3. *The Cabinet*. The formulation of public policy rests primarily here. It is the overall directing and controlling body, and all important problems of policy are as a rule considered by the Cabinet. The policies for each Ministry are initiated and formulated by the Minister in charge. Within the Cabinet the Prime Minister is the focus of policy-making.

4. *Planning Commission*. Though legally a mere advisory organ, it has come to exercise significant influence over the formulation of

34 Gladden, E. N. : *Essentials of Public Administration*, London, Staples Press, 1953, Chapter V.

public policies even in matters other than those of planning and development. Its advisory role extends over the entire administration.

5. *The National Development Council*, consisting as it does of the Prime Minister and the Chief Ministers of States, is the highest policy-making body in the field of planning.

6. *Public Services*. The role of public services in matters of policy-formation is threefold : (a) thinking out a policy for the execution of a particular objective laid down by the Executive and ensuring that it correctly interprets that objective ; (b) putting the policy into legislative form ; and (c) translating the policy into action. They also advise and assist in policy-making.

7. *Judiciary*. It influences public policies in two ways, namely, the power of judicial review, and the advisory power of the Supreme Court.

8. *Advisory Bodies and Consultative Committees*, e.g., Standing Labour Committee, Indian Labour Conference, Import and Export Advisory Committee, and the Central Advisory Board of Education.

9. *Pressure Groups*, like trade unions, chambers of commerce, students' unions and women's conference.

10. *Political Parties*. Political parties declare their policies through election manifestoes and strive to capture power with a view to implementing them.

11. *Professional Associations*, like the Bar Association, All India Medical Council, Teachers' Association, etc.

12. *The Press*. The role of the press in creating, moulding and expressing public opinion is well known. It can very well bring to bear heavy pressure on policy-making.

DECISION-MAKING

Significance

Decision-making is a common everyday phenomenon. All of us are all the time making decisions whether on personal or public matters, in important or insignificant fields. Indeed, no organisation can be run without taking decisions, and if it is to be run on sound lines, decisions have to be, by and large, correct and reached in time. Similarly, decision-making is the essence of all management, public or private. The power to make decisions has been correctly identified with the power to manage. No one can ever aspire to be a successful

executive if he is either incapable of taking decisions or is prone to make wrong decisions. A great leader somehow develops an uncanny judgement which usually results in correct decisions.

However, decision-making, though highly important, is equally difficult. People tend to shirk making decisions. It has perhaps been rightly observed that people would rather face a cannon than take a decision. Existence of an excess of problems to solve, too little time, fear of repercussions and not knowing what to decide are some of such difficulties. There are too many problems with too little time to solve them. It is generally the case of a backlog of decisions with busy and harassed executives running a race with time. It is virtually the problem of too much work chasing too little time. Then there exists the lurking fear of repercussions of decisions. No decision can possibly please everybody, and an administrator very often has the unpleasant duty of annoying more persons than he can possibly please. Again, he may just not know what to decide, that is, be just unable to see his way through various alternatives. In the words of March, "An executive existing in the complex environment of the business organisation has a three-stage decision problem : (1) to which of his many problems should he direct his attention ; (2) how much time, effort and expense should he invest in resolving uncertainty about that problem ; and (3) what solution to the problem should he use."³⁵

Meaning and Nature

Webster's dictionary defines the term as "the act of determining in one's own mind upon an opinion or course of action." In the words of Terry, it is "the selection of one behaviour alternative from two or more possible alternatives."³⁶ In short, to decide means to come to a conclusion. "A decision is usually made within the guides established by policy. A policy is relatively extensive, affects many problems, and is used again and again. In contrast, a decision applies to a particular problem and has a non-continuous type of usage."³⁷ Decision has been rightly described as "a moment in the process of policy-formation". However, the policy itself is the

35 March, J. S. : *Business Decision-Making*, Pittsburgh Graduate School of Industrial Administration, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Reprint No. 47, 1959.

36 Terry : *op. cit.*, p. 52.

37 *Ibid.*

result of a decision. An important point to remember about a decision is that it is only a means to an end, never an end in itself. Again, decision-making is not a static process. Decisions are constantly being made and re-made in response to changing requirements. There is nothing sacrosanct about a decision and nothing permanent about it. This is illustrated by the anecdote concerning Abraham Lincoln and a committee who were calling upon him to complain about the generalship of U. S. Grant. The committee chairman said, "Why, Mr. President, certainly you know that General Grant is making a lot of decisions. He is making one right after another, and some of them are all wrong." Lincoln raised his head, was silent for a minute, and then replied, "Well, Mr. Chairman, I guess you are correct all right, but I reckon that if he makes a bad decision, he soon finds it out, and changes it without delay. Gentlemen, I propose to keep right on with General Grant."³⁸

According to Millett,³⁹ an examination of three aspects of decision-making is required to enable us to understand this process :

1. *Personal differences among individuals which make some decisive and others indecisive.* There are persons who delay, temporise, postpone and avoid decisions. They cannot be firm about a decision and always try to keep loopholes through which they could wriggle out later. On the other hand, there are persons who are resolute, firm and prompt in taking decisions. What makes persons behave one way or the other is a problem beyond the scope of this study. Perhaps social and professional background may have something to do with it. Thus, judges may tend to be more decisive than lawyers. Similarly, intellectuals, who may have deep specialised knowledge, are generally supposed to lack the faculty of taking decisions. "In matters of leadership, for example, they prove to be irresponsible (absent-minded, non-punctual), non-decisive (ultra-judicial, see so many sides they can never make up their minds), and non-persuasive (a little 'queer', not interested in people)."⁴⁰

2. *Role which knowledge plays in decision-making.* "The careful accumulation of detailed facts, their analysis and interpretation, the use of broad concepts of human and physical behaviour to predict future developments—all these elements in the use of knowledge enter into decision-making in varying degree."⁴¹ Statistics work-

38 Terry : *op. cit.*, p. 65.

39 Millett : *op. cit.*, pp. 42-45.

40 Barnard : *op. cit.*, p. 98.

41 Millett : *op. cit.*, p. 44.

study, operations research and management survey can with advantage be utilised to collect correct data to build the decisions on.

3. *Limitations—personal and institutional—which circumscribe decision-making.* “On the one hand, decision-making must consider the aspirations, traditions, and attitudes of the agency administering work. On the other hand, there are personal predilections among administrators which also limit decision-making.”⁴² We shall revert to this aspect at the close of this chapter.

Who Makes Decisions ?

Decisions in an organisation are made by many persons ; they are a co-operative venture. One person seldom decides questions which are subject to public scrutiny. In the words of Seckler-Hudson, “Decision-making in government is a plural activity. One individual may pronounce the decision, but many contribute to the process of reaching the decision. It is a part of the political system.”⁴³ In the last analysis, however, the manager or the chief executive of the organisation should make the final decision. No administrator, worth his name, can afford to shirk this responsibility : he must decide or quit. Of course, a busy and overworked executive needs assistance and staff help and he must not be denied any facilities on that count. While taking decisions the administrator would do well to acquaint himself with the necessary precedents bearing on the question and attempt to anticipate future conditions and events and the effect of his decision on them.

Bases of Decision-Making

There seems to be no unanimity regarding the factors which help in decision-making. Perhaps there are no such fixed bases. A decision often depends on the criterion or basis believed to be important in the particular situation. The means of arriving at a decision may be rational, deliberate, emotional, impulsive or habitual. Intuition, facts, experience and authority are among the most common bases used in arriving at a decision. Seckler-Hudson enumerates twelve factors which must be considered in decision-making ; legal limitations, budget, mores, facts, history, internal morale, future as anticipated, superiors, pressure groups, staff, nature of

42 Millett : *op. cit.*, p. 45.

43 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 29.

programme and subordinates.⁴⁴ One thing that must be insisted upon in decision-making is that decisions should be based not on subjective but objective considerations. A frequent complaint against administration that one comes across in our country, unfortunately, is that decisions are taken on grounds other than merit, that is to say, considerations of caste, religion, politics, etc., tend to gain the upper hand. In other words, decisions are biased.

How to Make a Decision ?

No body can perhaps give a fool-proof answer to this question. No technique can probably suit all occasions. However, one thing that can help in this process is practice in decision-making. It has been truly said that one cannot learn swimming by studying the literature on it or by observing others swim ; the only way to learn to swim is by getting into the water and doing it. This analogy holds true in the case of decisions too. Administrators should, therefore, be encouraged to take decisions. Terry⁴⁵ lays down the following sequence of steps which, when followed, will assist greatly in the making of a decision :

- (1) Determine what the problem is ;
- (2) Acquire general background information and different viewpoints about the problem ;
- (3) State what appears to be the best course of action ;
- (4) Investigate the proposition and tentative decisions ;
- (5) Evaluate the tentative decision ;
- (6) Make the decision and put it into effect ; and
- (7) Institute follow-up and, if necessary, modify decision in the light of results obtained.

Problems of Decision-Making

From the above discussion it should have been clear that decision-making is a highly complex process. An attempt is made now to focus attention on four of the difficult problems facing it :

1. INVOLVEMENT IN ROUTINE. A study of decision-making in public or business organisation reveals that day-to-day routine problems tend to dominate with the result that long-term decisions are either avoided or postponed. A person with responsibility for both

44 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 30.

45 Terry : *op. cit.*, pp. 66-67.

routine activities and long-term planning is likely to find the routine taking the much greater share of his time. Prof. March calls this proposition 'Gresham's Law of Planning'. Prof. March, of the Carnegie Institute of Technology, has been engaged in research work on Business decision-making for the last six years or so, and here is reproduced in his own words the result of the laboratory experiment in this field.

"We have attempted to reproduce in the laboratory some of the critical characteristics of the executive's decision problem. In the preliminary experiment, subjects were asked to handle a relatively simple administrative job. The job involved three kinds of activities :

Routine Communication. They were to communicate to relevant clerks information on the current inventory levels in various warehouses.

Intermediate Planning. They were to make any necessary re-assignments of warehouses to groups of clerks so as to maintain an approximately equal work load in each group.

General Planning. They were to suggest any other changes in procedure that might be appropriate.

The subjects were told that each of the three jobs was equally important and should be given equal attention. After a training period to allow the 'executives' to become accustomed to the task, the work load (the rate at which information on warehouses was received) was varied systematically. As the work load varied, we observed the proportion of communications dealing with routine activities as opposed to planning activities by the subjects.

Two results of this experiment are significant here. First, despite instructions to spend only one-third of the time on routine matters, subjects spent a good deal more than that even when the work load was relatively light. Second, consistently as the work load increased, subjects spent a smaller proportion of their total time on planning activities. At peak loads, virtually no planning was evidenced."

2. WHICH PROBLEM TO SOLVE ? Almost every adult has to face such a question frequently whether in personal or official life. So long as the problems are few and simple the administrator can solve all of them. But as the number of problems increases and as they become more complicated, the administrator is faced with the question which of the many problems to solve. Thus, at any given time he may have a long-range budget to approve, a letter to another government agency to dictate, speech inaugurating a conference to prepare, and a telephone to answer. There are other occasions,

however, when problems are more difficult and of greater moment. One such problem arises in the case of determining priorities in preparing plans for the country. There are competing demands and conflicting pressures, too many demands chasing too few resources. To have more schools or more hospitals, to introduce free and compulsory education or to develop higher education, to have more roads or additional rail links, to have more steel plants or fertiliser plants etc., are a perennial source of worry to the planner.

3. WHAT IS A RIGHT DECISION ? Should the emphasis be on observing the form or carrying out the spirit ? "It would be difficult in a large scale organisation to point to a single decision of some consequence that is reached without being part of a specified operating method, pinned down by checks and balances, reviews and concurrences, supporting fields and staff papers."⁴⁶ This procedural approach becomes self-defeating when it is used as a criteria for determining the rightness of the decision. Procedure through proper channels, efficiency and economy are undoubtedly important in evaluating a decision. But "the right decision must meet a higher test. It must accord with the general interest, the constitutional spirit, and the moral principle. Nothing short of this will do."⁴⁷

4. BIAS. Perhaps the greatest difficulty in decision-making process is the element of bias introduced in it. This element is so important as to need a little detailed treatment.

Elimination of bias is a part of the general problem of rationality in administration. The public official, including the political chief at all levels and all jurisdiction, is responsive to and, to a degree commensurate with his office, determinant of the ethics of the community. As a public official, he is continuously responsible for retaining the public's confidence. He is responsible too for the development and maintenance of the integrity and confidence of his own organisation. The public official does not lose his personal identity by virtue of responsibilities as public official. Indeed, it is his task to reconcile his personal views and activities with the duties and responsibilities of his public office. The growing significance of government makes it all the more necessary. The government is now so huge and affects our lives so directly that there is a need to give the citizen better protection against the ever-expanding

46 Marx, F. M. : *The Administrative State*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1957, p. 182.

47 *Ibid.*, p. 185.

administrative powers. The public has a right to expect that a government agency is acting on an independent and objective footing and thereby maintain confidence in and respect for administrative decisions. The aspect of official conduct, with which we are concerned here, is that of bias.

What is Bias? Bias is rather a vague term difficult to define precisely. Literally, bias is something oblique or slanting. Used in a figurative sense, it means a swaying influence or undue leaning to one side. It may take the form of prejudice or predilection. Prejudice is an unfavourable opinion or feeling formed beforehand or without knowledge, thought or reason. Predilection, on the other hand, is a mental preference or partiality : it is a favourable predisposition. A bias, thus, may be favourable or unfavourable. Bias exists where an occurrence is due to a real cause besides chance. For example, an unbiased coin is one that, when tossed, gives equal number of heads and tails. If it behaves differently, it is said to be a biased coin. Bias may, thus, be defined as an extraneous factor which is not relevant to the issue. There is an element of unreasoning or irrationality about bias. It may, however, be unconscious. It is just there as a built-in part of the individual's personality, a part of his psychological and cultural make-up. Bias may also be cultivated or acquired. But in no case it is deliberate.

To realise the exact significance of bias it may be necessary to understand its features. First, bias should not be confused with unethical conduct. Favouritism, nepotism, venality and other forms of corruption are the result of deliberate and conscious acts on the part of the public official. Bias, as stated earlier, is often unconscious or sub-conscious. Secondly, the distinction between 'official bias' and 'personal bias' should be carefully noted. 'Official bias' of an authority is inherent in the duty imposed on it. It becomes personal when it is used in favour of, or against, some individuals or groups of individuals. Thirdly, there may be departmental, institutional or professional bias. It is quite common for an agency to be under the obligation to follow a certain policy in its decision. Lastly, bias is connected with values and traditions which differ from time to time and place to place. It is, thus, relative to time and place.

Location of Bias. Location depends upon the person judging and the norms he has set down for himself. The first way of locating bias is whether a particular decision has been taken in accordance with established rules, procedures, norms, and traditions. In the second place, it should be found out whether a decision has

been taken on objective grounds or on subjective basis. Lastly, the test should be whether an act of an official can be justified before an impartial and independent authority. A word of caution may be added here, *viz.*, that the tendency to locate bias should not become so exacting as to demoralise administration and take away all initiative from public officials. It must be recognised that our civil servants, by and large, take decisions on objective basis.

Causes of Bias. First, it has to be admitted that administrative action often involves discretion and it is in this field that the probability of bias manifesting itself is more. Secondly, insufficient awareness on the part of the public servant of what is public interest or what is required of him may lead to bias. Thirdly, strict adherence to rules and procedure may create a bias for red-tape. This is often called the administrator's bias. Fourthly, as indicated earlier, bias may be the result of inheritance. Fifthly, bias may arise out of the influence of the environment, *i.e.*, out of the forces external to the individual as person. Many such forces are inculcated in the individual by education and training while others accrue through absorption from the environment. Sixthly, bias may be the result of the fear on the part of the public servant of the consequences of his actions. Such a fear may drive the officer to reckon the reaction of his boss as an important factor in his decision-making, which means a fettered judgement. Seventhly, 'caste consciousness' in the official hierarchy is also regarded as a cause of bias. However, this is evident largely in recruitment and promotion cases, and does not affect the general public-at large. In brief, bias in administration may be the result of preferences, either personal or of the superiors, caste, class, community, religion, language, profession, region, value, attitudes, ideology, pressure groups, etc.

Elimination of Bias. The problem really is not so much how to eliminate bias as how to utilise it, how to reconcile conflicting attitudes, how to strike a balance between different types of bias, and how to sublimate it. Bias should not be condemned *per se* out of hand. Not all bias is undesirable. Not merely the officials but the people too are biased. For example, there exists a popular bias in India against police. There exists, therefore, the problem not only of official bias but also of popular bias. This issue before us is twofold : how to build healthy and constructive types of bias in administration, and how to eradicate undesirable types. As regards discouraging unhealthy bias, attempts should be made to protect the individual from his own bias by avoiding situations where bias will begin to

operate. There already exist numerous provisions and safeguards to achieve this end. We may discuss this problem in the fields of policy-making, adjudication and administration.

A policy, being a deliberate act of choice and preference, is bound to have a slant or bias. Take for instance, policies like abolition of zamindari, planned development, socialistic pattern of society, ceiling on land, prohibition, concessions for the scheduled castes and tribes, etc. All such policies are openly and avowedly prejudiced against certain classes of persons and predilected towards others. The same may be said of much of social legislation which is often enacted without adequate objective research and analysis. The persons responsible for policy-making are the legislators and ministers. Now the only safeguards against the bias of policy-makers are that no person can become a member of legislature or remain so if he holds an office of profit under the government, is a government official or/and is involved in a contract with any governmental agency. Such safeguards, however, leave many loopholes. Thus, there is no safeguard against ministers taking decisions regarding business or industrial enterprises in which they have shares or in which their close relatives occupy vantage positions. Similarly, there is no legal bar for any political party to receive donations from business and industrial concerns subject to the recent amendment to the company law. The possibility of such concerns or individuals exercising influence on ministers was hinted at by Vivian Bose Commission investigating the Mundhra Case. In our country, we have yet to adopt in full the well-known American 'conflict of interest' clause which prevents public officials including ministers from taking decision on matters in which they have interests.

In the field of law, the proper significance of bias is to denote a departure from the standard of even-handed justice which the law requires from those who occupy judicial or quasi-judicial office. Such a person, when adjudicating as between two or more parties, must come to his adjudication with an independent mind without any inclination towards one side or the other in the dispute. A judge ought to be indifferent, or unbiased between the parties. The principles governing 'doctrine of bias' vis-a-vis judicial tribunals are well settled, and they are two : (1) no man shall be a judge in his own case ; and (2) justice should not only be done but manifestly and undoubtedly seem to have been done. The two maxims yield the result that if a member of a judicial body is subject to a bias in favour of, or against, any party to a dispute, or is in such a position

that a bias must be assumed to exist, he ought not to take part in the decision or 'sit on the tribunal' and that 'any direct pecuniary' interest, however small, in the subject-matter of inquiry will disqualify a judge, and any interest, though not pecuniary, will have the same effect, if it be sufficiently substantial to create a reasonable suspicion of bias. These principles are equally applicable to authorities who are empowered to discharge quasi-judicial functions like administrative tribunals.

The above principles could with profit be extended to administrative officials. Thus, pecuniary or personal interests in the decision should make an official incompetent to deal with the case. The same should hold good of any other connection with the parties or the matter at issue which is apt to reduce the confidence in his ability to act without prejudice. Incompetence of a superior officer should also extend to his subordinates insofar as they will be precluded from making a decision or taking part in the preparation of a case unless and until a substitute is named. And it goes without saying that one of the subordinates cannot be named as substitute. If, for instance, a Minister or head of a Department is actuated by bias, he cannot leave the decision to one of the chiefs of division in the Department, but another Minister has to act in his place.

Another field in which good work in the direction of elimination of bias is being done in our country is the Psychological Research Wing of the Defence Research and Development Organisation. The Wing has been working on developing techniques to eliminate bias in different types of assessment of the qualities in recruiting personnel in the army. The Wing has evolved intelligence tests which will not be biased in favour of any particular group. To avoid certain types of bias all the examinees are asked to put on a uniform dress and numbers are given for identification. It is for the same reasons that in all public examinations candidates are identified by roll numbers and no person is appointed as examiner any of whose relations is appearing at that particular examination. Some Universities go too far in this direction. To quote from the regulations of one such University, "No person shall be appointed as paper-setter in any paper for an examination, if any of his or her close relations intends to appear at that examination in that paper—the term 'close relations' includes wife, husband, son, daughter, grand-son, grand-daughter, brother, sister, nephew, niece, grand-nephew, grand-niece, uncle, aunt, first cousin, son-in-law, daughter-in-law, brother-in-law, and sister-in-law. Before setting the paper, the paper-setter should inform

the Registrar by name, if he is the author of a book or booklet on the subject and the standard for which the book can be utilised." Similarly, an amendment to the All-India Service (Conduct) Rules, 1954, provides that "No member of the services shall, except with the previous sanction of Government, permit his son, daughter or dependant to accept employment with private firms, with which he has official dealings, or with other firms having official dealing with Government." It is for the same reason that High Court Judges are prevented after retirement from practising before the same court or Supreme Court Judges, from practising before any court or the Auditor General from accepting any government post after retirement. Lastly, the Madras Government has prohibited its officers from getting streets, localities, institutions, halls, etc., named after them.

There is another side of the problem of bias which is equally, if not more, important, namely, the need to build up healthy and constructive types of bias in administration. Thus, one of the most pressing needs of our country today is how to create administrative leadership which will be dynamic, plan-conscious and democratically oriented. No plans can be effectively implemented by a 'neutral' and 'indifferent' public official. If the great experiment in democratic decentralisation is to succeed, our officials have to develop a positive and constructive bias towards it. Proper recruitment training and discipline may go a long way in inculcating such attitudes in the Civil Service. In the United States much emphasis is given to executive development programmes. In India, too, Government has embarked on a large-scale training programme. The use of case studies in training may help in fostering the desired type of bias. Another aspect of the training programme should aim at developing individual insight into his own bias. The psychological techniques of bringing the sub-conscious bias into the conscious and then eliminating it may be tried with advantage.

CHAPTER TWELVE

PLANNING

Why Planning ?

Planning, of a rudimentary sort, is an inherent part of individual and, more so, of co-operative or collective endeavour. It is “a rational process characteristic of all human behaviour.”¹ The need for planning has come to be widely recognised, and the prejudice against it is fast dying out even in the so-called capitalist or free-economy countries. Planning is no more equated with communist ideology and methodology. In brief, it has acquired ‘respectability’ and has become even fashionable. Planning is of particular significance to an under-developed country where a lot has to be achieved with limited resources and within a restricted time. Thus, in our country and, for the matter of that, in all countries with developing economics, planning is perhaps the best way to pull up the economy to a self-sustaining and self-generating stage. Verily, “all organisations must plan if they are to achieve their ends.”²

What is Planning ?

Dimock defines planning as “the use of rational design as contrasted with chance, the reaching of a decision before a line of action is taken instead of improvising after the action has started.”³ Seckler-Hudson succinctly defines it as “the process of devising a basis for a course of future action.”⁴ In the words of Millett, “planning is the process of determining the objectives of administrative effort and of devising the means calculated to achieve them.”⁵ In short, planning is the conscious process of selecting and developing the best course of action to accomplish a defined objective. It is a comprehensive term and involves a succession of steps :

1. *Determination of the objective.* This may involve collection

1 Pffiffer & Presthus : *op. cit.*, p. 83.

2 *Ibid.*

3 Dimock & Dimock : *op. cit.*, p. 89.

4 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 102.

5 Millett : *op. cit.*, p. 55.

of available data and an enquiry into all aspects of the problem. Various alternatives are examined and then a final decision is taken. It is a policy decision and is, therefore, political in nature.

2. *Consideration of possible courses of action to achieve the objective.* Once the objective has been determined, the next problem is the finding out of the best means to achieve it. This implies the posing of possible alternative methods and examining each one of these. It may be necessary to test each of these alternatives through actual operations.

3. *Selection of the best course of action.* This implies evaluation of the results of investigations and tests of the various alternatives and finally choosing the best of them.

Planning is a rational, dynamic, and integrative process. In the first place, planning is not and cannot be haphazard and improvised. It is never the result of chance or unconscious effort nor can it be acquired in a 'fit of absent-mindedness'. Planning is a rational, conscious and deliberate effort. "Planning is rational because it demands a systematic analysis of several possible means and ends, followed by a selection of those means thought best-suited to the designated end."⁶ Secondly, planning is not a static process ; it is dynamic and needs continuous adaptation in the light of experience. Constant evaluation, review, follow-up and re-decision, if necessary, are *sine qua non* of good planning. Flexibility in a plan is, consequently, not undesirable. There should be no absolute rigidity about a plan. Thirdly, planning is a comprehensive and integrative process. It is not confined to any one branch of knowledge like politics, economics, sociology and engineering ; it comprehends many disciplines. Planning is, above all, an exercise in co-ordination, integration and synthesization of varied programmes and resources. Finally, a question is often asked if planning is a line or staff function. While some amount of planning is inevitable at all levels of administration, and while plan-consciousness at operating levels is essential for the due implementation of plans, planning, as a process of formulation and evaluation, is primarily a staff function.

Kinds of Planning

Planning can be of many types—overall, limited and administrative. The first of these, commonly called socio-economic planning, is

the most comprehensive and it is in this sense that the term is used here. Socio-economic planning is more than laying down a few economic targets here and a few physical targets there. It is an overall effort to achieve an all-round development of the country. Four-year and seven-year plans are manifestations of this type of effort. Such far-reaching, long-range and overall planning often becomes the subject of controversy. Eyebrows are raised and suspicions aroused about such planning. Questions, like these, are asked : Is planning compatible with democracy ? Does not planning, by its very definition, imply regimentation ? Isn't planning totalitarian ? etc. In reply it may be said that planning is certainly the negation of *laissez-faire* both in political and economic spheres. But *laissez-faire* and democracy need not be regarded as interchangeable concepts. The 19th century liberal capitalist democracy is now obsolescent. All this is not to deny that planning in communist countries has often led to suppression of individual liberties and has been accompanied by drastic measures including terror. The fault may, however, be not of planning so much as of communism. Any way, India is trying the experiment of attempting to establish a socialist society through planning by a democratic process.

Fulfilment of economic and physical targets, on the other hand, represents an isolated, separate, limited and unco-ordinated programme of developing only certain sectors of the life of the community. Thus, in India before 1947, the textile industry had reached a fairly high stage of development and Tatas had set up a big steel plant at Jamshedpur. Similarly, the Government had taken in hand the programme of establishing schools, dispensaries, hospitals, etc. Construction of roads and provision of irrigation facilities are other examples of piecemeal attempts at development. In other words, the Government did take in hand and implement many programmes of development in the fields of agriculture, education, public health, industry, public works, etc. Certain economic and physical and financial targets were, undoubtedly, fixed and attempts were made to achieve them. But there was no planning as such in the sense in which the term is now used and understood.

Planning may, again, be governmental and non-governmental. Almost all big industrial business and commercial concerns, whether in India or abroad, draw up and execute their own plans of development. However, we are concerned here only with governmental planning or administrative planning. There are some who divide governmental planning into 'administrative' (policy and programme

planning) and 'management' (operational planning). Such terminological controversies need not worry us here. As shown above, we regard planning as an important task of management. Administrative planning comprehends all the activities of government and "can be divided roughly into policy, programme and operational planning. This division is based on the level, the main objectives, and the subject-matter with which each type deals."⁷ No attempt, however, should be made to draw too fine a distinction between them as they are but phases of the single process of planning. Policy planning occurs at top levels—the Legislature, the Cabinet, the President or the Prime Minister, any one of them or varying conjunctions of them. However much the public officials may help in and contribute towards policy-making, they do not make policies. Policies, being political in nature, should be formulated only by those who have political responsibility. A policy, as such, is ineffective unless it converts itself in the form of concrete programmes. The making of such specific programmes and projects is the responsibility of the top and middle executives. In India this role is played mainly by the secretariat helped and advised by the line departmental heads. The last, but by all means an important, phase is of implementing or executing the plan. This is the responsibility of the line or operational agencies which lay down the plan of action necessary to implement the projects or programmes. The test of the success of a plan is its right implementation and it is not unoften that agencies involved in this task modify, and at times even subvert, the policies enunciated at the top.

Plans may also be of varied durations, short-range or long-range. The annual Budget itself is one-year plan. Then there are four-year, five-year, six-year and seven-year plans. These plans of specific durations are made in the context of long-range or perspective plan. Such a plan projects itself 15 to 25 years hence and attempts to determine the goals to be reached at the end of that period. The present projects and programmes are adjusted to realise these goals and preparations are set afoot to create trained manpower and raise resources to meet the needs as they arise in future. Perspective planning, thus, helps in the formulation of present plans and in maintaining and continuing from one plan period to the other. The importance of perspective planning has been realised in India and the Planning Commission was provided in February, 1957, with a

7 Pfiffner & Presthus : *op. cit.*, p. 96.

Perspective Planning Division engaged in the task of assessing the requirements of the country in respect of various sectors of activity so that projection could be made into the future over a period of 20 to 25 years. Planning may, thus, be said to be a never-ending occupational problem for a manager.

Planning Process

Planning is a succession of steps through which the planner must go. These steps are : understand the objective to be achieved ; evaluate the situation or setting ; consider possible courses of action ; and select the best course of action. Seckler-Hudson suggests six steps in systematic planning, namely, (1) a careful definition and limitation of the problem to the extent possible ; (2) the exploration of all available information pertaining to the problem ; (3) the posing of possible alternative solutions or methods of handling the problem ; (4) the testing of one or more tentative solutions through actual operations ; (5) the evaluation of results in the light of experience, continuous research and new developments ; and (6) reconsideration of the problem and the results, and redecision if justified.⁸ According to Millett, planning embraces three broad steps : (1) the formulation of goals ; (2) an assessment of the resources available to realise these goals ; and (3) the preparation of a work programme designed to achieve the determined objectives. In short, the planning process includes three steps—the formulation, execution and evaluation of plans. We shall, now, briefly describe the existing machinery in India for the above three aspects of planning.

Plan Formulation

We have in the Planning Commission a competent body for the purpose of drawing up a national plan, and all the three plans drawn up so far are well written documents. The Commission's task is to assess the nation's resources, draw up a plan to use them with proper priorities and allocations, determine the conditions, machinery and adjustments needed to make the plan succeed, appraise the progress of the plan from time to time and make any recommendations necessary to facilitate it.

The first step in the process of formulating the plan in India is for the Planning Commission to prepare, on a rough basis, certain

8 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 106.

schemes and projects in consultation with the Central Ministries and the State Governments in the background of the perspective plan ; to determine some kind of priority ; to take stock of the available resources ; and to distribute these resources among the different agencies, central and state, on an approximate basis. These estimates and projections are then placed before the National Development Council. The schemes and projects, modified in the light of the NDC's recommendations, are then sent to the Union Ministries and the State Governments in the form of preliminary instructions.

Then begins the second stage of each Union Ministry Department and each State Government preparing its own plan. The machinery for planning is fairly well developed at the State level. As a rule, there are whole-time Secretaries in charge of planning and development, many of whom also carry executive responsibilities in relation to National Extension and Community Projects. The Planning Departments in the States are co-ordinating in varying degrees the work of other Departments in the States in relation to the Plan. At State headquarters, co-ordination is achieved through an inter-departmental committee of Secretaries in charge of various development departments. The Chairman of the Committee is the Chief Secretary or the Secretary in charge of planning. Generally the functions of co-ordination for planning and for the implementation of district programmes are combined in a single officer commonly described as the Development Commissioner. As a rule, a Committee of the State Cabinet under the Chief Minister provides overall guidance and direction. Leading non-officials are associated with the formulation and implementation of Plans at the State level through the State Planning Boards. In addition, there is generally at the State level a State Development Committee consisting of the Chief Minister and Ministers in charge of Development Departments for laying down general policy and other matters concerning the Five Year Plan. In certain States, like Uttar Pradesh, there is also a State Planning Board which includes non-officials.

It is understood that while framing the Second Five Year Plan it was decided that planning had to be done from below. Detailed instructions were sent from the Planning Commission and the State Governments indicating how districts should prepare local and village plans within the general framework and how, within the district, the work of planning must be organised, plans being prepared for individual villages and groups of villages, such as tehsils, national extension development blocks, etc. It is stated that

a serious effort was made in the initial stages to plan from below, but after the State plans were pruned, they were not adequately broken up into district and local plans and implemented as such. It has now been decided by the Standing Committee of the National Development Council that the general principle of giving responsibility for development to the representatives of the people within the district should be accepted. With the establishment of the new pattern of 'Democratic Decentralisation' the Panchayat Samities and the Zila Parishads will acquire in fuller measure the authority to draw up their own plan projects.

Learning from the past experience, two things have been done in the making of the Third Plan. First, the broad overall magnitudes have been determined before the process of village and block planning was initiated. Secondly, at the village and block level, particularly the latter, certain fields have been identified which appeared, on the whole, more appropriate for planning at that level rather than attempt to cover the entire range of development. The fields earmarked are agriculture, co-operatives, village industries, elementary education, rural water supply, supervision of certain minimum amenities to rural areas and works for mobilising more fully the man-power of rural areas.

After the States and the Union Ministries have submitted their plans to the Planning Commission, there begins the process of dovetailing the various schemes, programmes and projects into an integrated plan. In the course of shaping the plan, the Commission consults representatives of different groups in parliament. At the end of these exercises the draft plan is published and thrown open for public discussion. The universities, the press, political parties, chambers of commerce, trade organisations and other groups and individuals are free to give their comments on the draft.

The next stage is a period of prolonged detailed discussions between the Planning Commission and the representatives of different State Governments as a result of which agreements as to the size and nature of State plans are reached. The Union Ministries are similarly consulted in finalising the Central Government plan. These tentative agreements are then placed before the Union Cabinet and after its approval are sent to NDC. The Planning Commission then gives the final shape to the plan in the light of the NDC's recommendations. The plan is then presented to Parliament and after getting its approval it becomes the official plan and published as such.

*PLANNING COMMISSION***Origin**

The origin of planning in India can be traced to 1933, when M. Visvesvaraya formulated a ten-year plan with the target of doubling the income of the country. Five years later in 1938, at the instance of the Congress party, a National Planning Committee was set up with Jawaharlal Nehru as Chairman. In 1941, the Government of India appointed a Committee for planning which was replaced in 1943 by the Reconstruction Committee of the Executive Council with the Governor-General himself in chair. Next year, a separate Planning and Development Department was established. The same year some leading industrialists prepared a plan for the economic development of the country known as the Bombay Plan. Under the inspiration and guidance of the Planning Department a number of development schemes were prepared by the Central and the Provincial Governments to be underaken at the end of the war. Problems of planning were reviewed towards the end of 1946 by the Advisory Planning Board established by the Interim Government. The Board suggested the setting up of a Planning Commission, a single compact authoritative organisation, directly responsible to the cabinet and devoting its attention continuously to the whole field of development. The recommendation was accepted and the Planning Commission was established by a resolution of the Government of India, dated the 15th March, 1950.

Functions

The Planning Commission, with the Prime Minister as the Chairman, has emerged as a powerful and effective staff agency in India. The functions of the Commission are as follows :

1. to make an assessment of the material, capital and human resources of the country, including technical personnel, and to investigate the possibilities of augmenting such of these resources as are found to be deficient in relation to the nation's requirements ;
2. to formulate a Plan for the most effective and balanced utilisation of the country's resources ;
3. to determine priorities as between projects and programmes accepted in the Plan ;
4. to indicate the factors that retard economic development, and to determine conditions which should be established for the success of the Plan ;

5. to determine the nature of the machinery to secure the successful implementation of the Plan ;
6. to appraise from time to time the progress of the Plan and to recommend the necessary adjustments of policy and measures ; and
7. to make recommendations either for facilitating the discharge of its duties or for a consideration of the prevailing economic conditions, current policies, measures and development programmes ; or for an examination of problems referred to it for advice by Central or State Governments.

Composition

The Commission, at present, consists of 12 members including the Prime Minister, who is the Chairman, Deputy Chairman, Home, Finance, External Affairs, Food and Agriculture, and Planning Ministers, and five other members. The members enjoy the emoluments and status of Cabinet Ministers.

All the members of the Commission work as a team but, for the sake of convenience, each member is put in charge of one or more subjects and directs the study of problems in these fields. The Deputy Chairman is primarily concerned with matters of general co-ordination and administration. The Planning Minister is responsible for the Commission's activities to the Union Government and Parliament. The above two functions are now concentrated in the same hands. As regards the Finance Minister, important proposals, having financial implications and likely to have repercussions on economic policy, are referred to him in addition to the cases submitted to him as a member of the Commission. All cases involving policy are considered by the Commission as a whole. The formulation of plans, adjustments in the plans, matters involving departure from the plan-policies, important cases involving disagreement with a Central Ministry or a State Government, and difference of opinion between members of the Commission are some of such cases.

There is a close liaison between the Cabinet and the Commission. Four senior members of the Cabinet sit on the Commission as regular members, and the Cabinet Secretary functions as the Secretary of the Commission. The Chairman is the Prime Minister himself. Other members of the Commission are invited, as and when necessary, to attend the meetings of the Cabinet and its Committees. On the other hand, important economic issues arising in the Ministries are generally discussed in the Commission before they

are considered in the Cabinet. Thus, there is a regular stream of ideas and suggestions flowing from the Commission to the Union Government and *vice versa*.

Organisation

The Planning Commission works through three major divisions—Programme Advisers, General Secretariat and Technical Divisions.

Programme Advisers. There are four senior officers designated as advisers having the status of ex-officio Additional Secretaries to the Government of India. They assist the members of the Commission in matters concerning field study and observation of various schemes and projects and the progress of their implementation. The advisers also pay specific attention to the problems of finance, public co-operation and administration connected with the implementation of the plans.

General Secretariat. It has four branches, namely, Administrative Branch, Plan Co-ordination Branch, General Co-ordination Branch and Information and Publicity Branch.

Technical Divisions. The Commission has 20 Technical Divisions and Sections which fall broadly under two groups, namely, General Divisions and Branch or Subject Divisions. The General Divisions are concerned with the problem of overall economic and social planning, each examining some specific aspects of these problems. The Subject Divisions, on the other hand, deal with specific sectors of the economy like Irrigation and Power, Food and Agriculture, Education, Housing, etc. The Technical Divisions are responsible for scrutinising and analysing various schemes and projects to be incorporated in the Plan ; conducting technical studies and research regarding plan projects and programmes ; preparing study material and reports on the plan ; following up of plan projects, etc. The heads of these Divisions are generally subject-specialists designated as Chiefs or Directors who are assisted by Deputy and Assistant Chiefs and some research staff.

Advisory Bodies. Some of the important advisory bodies functioning in the Planning Commission are : Committee on Irrigation and Power Projects, Co-ordination Committee and Research Programmes Committee.

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COUNCIL

Origin

One of the most important problems facing any effort at planning on a nationwide scale is the difficulty of co-ordinating the policies

and programmes of autonomous States comprising the Indian Union. The Constitution has made no provisions for such a co-ordinating agency. It was to fill up such a gap in the planning process that the National Development Council was created in 1952. In fact, it was the Advisory Planning Board set up in 1946, under the chairmanship of K. C. Neogi, which first suggested the setting up of a consultative body representing the provinces and the princely states as well as some other interests to help in the work of the Planning Commission. Later, the Planning Commission itself felt the need for such a body. Said the Draft Outline of the First Five Year Plan (July, 1951) : "In a country of the size of India where the States have under the Constitution full autonomy within their own spheres of duties, it is necessary to have a forum such as the National Development Council at which, from time to time, the Prime Minister of India and the Chief Ministers of States can review the working of the Plan and its various aspects." The Government accepted the suggestion and the N.D.C. was born as a result of a Resolution on August 6, 1952.

Functions

The objectives of the Council, as specified in the Resolution itself, are "to strengthen and mobilise the efforts and resources of the nation in support of the plan, to promote common economic policies in all vital spheres and to ensure the balanced and rapid development of all parts of the country on the recommendation of the Planning Commission." In fulfilment of these objectives the Council has been charged with three functions :

1. to review the working of the National Plan from time to time ;
2. to consider important questions of social and economic policy effecting national development; and
3. to recommend measures for the achievement of the aims and targets set out in the National Plan including measures to secure the active participation and co-operation of the people, improve the efficiency of the administrative services, ensure the fullest development of the less advanced regions and sections of the community and, through sacrifice borne equally by all citizens, build up resources for national development.

It was envisaged that the N.D.C., would advise and make its recommendations to the Central and State Governments. It has been functioning since its inception as a high power consultative body

wherein the frame of the Five Year Plans, the important problems facing the Indian economy, and the policies that have to be adopted for tidying over the urgent problems, have been discussed and solutions arrived at. Thus, in addition to the Plan, the Council has concerned itself with problems like food, creation of the State Trading Corporation, and land reforms.

Composition

The Council consists of the Prime Minister who is the Chairman, the Union Ministers for Food, Home, Finance and Defence, members of the Planning Commission, and the Chief Ministers of States. If a Chief Minister is unable to attend the meeting, he can send his substitute. In addition, ministers, subjects pertaining to whose ministries find place on the agenda, are also invited to attend. Moreover, there have been occasions where the Governor of the Reserve Bank, economists and other experts have been invited to address the meetings. At the outset, due to the large number of A, B and C States, the membership of the Council had risen upto 50. With the decrease in the number of States as a consequence of reorganisation the usual attendance now stands at 30. The large membership reduced the utility of the Council for discussion as a compact body, and in November, 1954, a Standing Committee was established with only nine Chief Ministers and a few Union Ministers as members. In addition, the Council has been appointing Committees from time to time to make detailed examinations of certain problems. Thus, the Council, at its meeting in March, 1960, set up a Committee on price-control. The Secretary of the Planning Commission is also the Secretary of the Council and the Commission furnishes the Council with administrative and other assistance.

The Council ordinarily meets twice a year but there is no rigidity about it, and it has met more than twice a year on many occasions. Till the end of 1960, the Council had met 16 times. The agenda is prepared by the Planning Commission Secretariat and includes matters of national importance on which it is necessary to obtain the views of the States. The Secretariat prepares a memoranda on such subjects and submits it to the Vice-Chairman who obtains the approval of the Prime Minister. The agenda is then circulated among the members of the N.D.C., and the Union Cabinet Ministers. The meetings begin with an address of welcome by the Chairman who usually gives his views on the items included in the agenda. A few

other persons may then give their exposition of the problems and then there is free and frank discussion. It is interesting to note that ordinarily no formal resolution is passed. The practice is to have a complete record of discussion and gather out of it general trends pointing to particular conclusions. Decisions are usually unanimous.

Evaluation

The first function of the Council is to act as a kind of bridge between the Union Government, the Planning Commission and the State Governments. It helps in the co-ordination not only of policies and programmes of plans but also other important matters of national importance. Secondly, it provides a good forum for discussions and full and free exchange of views. There is no other comparable forum. Thirdly, it is also a device for the sharing of responsibility between States and the Union Government.

Many and varied are the criticisms levelled against the N.D.C. There are some who charge the N.D.C. for usurping authority and functioning as a virtual super-cabinet. Thus, M. Brecher, Nehru's biographer, referring to this body, observes : "The National Development Council was established as a supreme administrative and advisory body on planning.....it lays down policy directives invariably approved by the Cabinet. Since their inception the N.D.C. and its Standing Committee have virtually relegated the Planning Commission to the status of a research arm."⁹ In a similar vein H. M. Patel, a retired member of the Indian Civil Service, remarks : "Among the Advisory Bodies to the Planning Commission is included the N.D.C. This is surely inaccurate, as is clear from its composition. The N.D.C. is a body obviously superior to the Planning Commission. It is, indeed, a policy-making body and its recommendations cannot but be regarded as policy decisions and not merely as advisory suggestions."¹⁰ Santhanam goes even further : "The position of the N.D.C. has come to approximate to that of a super-cabinet of the entire Indian Federation, a Cabinet functioning for the Government of India as well as for the Government of all States."¹¹ A. P. Jain, ex-Food Minister

9 Brecher, M. : *Nehru—A Political Biography*, London, Oxford University Press, 1959, p. 521.

10 Patel, H. M. : Review Section of the I.I.P.A., October-December, 1959, p. 460.

11 K. Santhanam's fourth lecture in the series on Indian Constitution delivered at the I.I.P.A., on March 30, 1959.

in the Union Cabinet, has charged the Council for acting arbitrarily.¹² According to him the Council infringes upon functions which under the Constitution, are assigned to other bodies and attempts to do what the Councils of Ministers at the Central and the States' levels should do. Thus, in 1956, the target of food production in the Second Plan was raised suddenly by the Council without consulting the Food Ministry. Similarly, in 1958, the Council took a decision on State Trading without considering whether the States had either the capacity or the will to enforce controls, the logical corollaries of State trading. In Jain's opinion the Council, neither by law nor by nature of its composition, is a body competent or suited to take decisions on national issues. It is suited to talk, debate and advise but decisions should be left to the Cabinets at the Centre and the States.

To appreciate the above criticism it is necessary to know that the Council has neither constitutional nor statutory position ; it is the creature of the Union Cabinet. It is listed as an advisory body to the Planning Commission and its recommendations are not binding on any one. It is true that, in practice, the Council has become a high-ranking policy-making body and its recommendations are usually accepted. This is due to the nature of its membership. The Council may well be said to be a summit conference of the chief executives of the States and the Centre, and it is no wonder if its decisions carry weight. "There is no harm if the Council sometimes functions as super-cabinet so long as it reaches decisions after full deliberations."¹³ In fine, due to the status and stature of its membership and to the role it plays, the Council is bound to gain more and more influence and prestige and *de facto* authority.

There are, however, two possibilities of marring the effectiveness of the Council. In the first place, the Council may turn out to be a forum for the ventilation of grievances on the part of the spokesmen of the States. It will be a bad day for its future if the Council forgets its main role of co-ordination and integration of State policies. A reading of the proceedings of the Council will, however, reveal that such a trend is not completely non-existent. Secondly, if and when the present one-party character of all the States and Central Governments changes, it is sure to have repercussion on the working of the Council.

12 Jain, A.P. : Article on the Food Problem and the N.D.C., *Times of India*, May 6, 1959.

13 *Times of India*, Editorial, November 3, 1959.

Implementation

The Plan, as finally adopted, is implemented by the Central Ministries and the State Governments in their respective spheres. The Planning Commission is an advisory body and has no executive functions. In the beginning, it had some executive responsibility when the Community Projects Administration, supervising the implementation of the programme of Community Development and National Extension Services in the States, was a wing of the Planning Commission. This work has since been transferred to a separate Ministry of Community Development and the Planning Commission is now only a national organ for planning and a staff body to advise the Union Cabinet.

It has no direct responsibility for the administration of plan programmes which are the responsibility of the Union and State Governments. The Commission, however, has advisers on programme administration who tour the States and assess progress on a continuing basis and make recommendations necessary to move the programmes ahead. The Commission also undertakes information and publicity work to acquaint the people with the Plan and to stimulate public co-operation in its implementation. Two organisations that assist the Commission in the implementation and evaluation of the plan projects and programmes, are the Committee on Plan Projects and the Programme Evaluation Organisation.

Much of the criticism against planning in India falls in the field of implementation. Our experience with the working of the First and the Second Plans has shown that the effective implementation of plan projects has been perhaps the weakest link in the chain of the entire planning process. This has been particularly true regarding the execution of programmes in the rural areas where an overwhelming majority of our people live. Effective implementation of a small plan is perhaps more conducive to public good than indifferent execution of a big plan. In the words of the Planning Commission itself, "the success of the Third Plan will rest very largely on the efficiency with which it is implemented."¹⁴ Examples of indifferent execution of plan projects are legion, for instance, grow-more-food campaign, distribution of seeds, manure and *taccavi* loans, social education, provision of irrigation facilities, etc., etc. What is this due to? It is not enough to blame the ignorance of the villager or the lack of ethics

14 *Third Five Year Plan (Draft)*, Government of India, 1960, p. 58.

on the part of public officials. A close examination of the situation reveals that five factors are involved in it, namely, lack of enlightenment on the part of the people, character of official personnel, insufficient and effective supervision, want of adequate communication among the officials, and the criterion of the evaluation of work of the officials.

Evaluation

One of the functions of the Planning Commission is to appraise from time to time the progress achieved in the execution of each stage of the Plan and to recommend the adjustment of policy and measures that such appraisal might show to be necessary. The Commission makes this appraisal, (i) through monthly reports of selected projects, quarterly reviews on the working of the Plan, the annual progress reports obtained from the Central Ministries and the State Governments ; (ii) through the Advisers (Programme Administration) who visit the States within their charge throughout the year, and study at first hand the working of the development programmes giving special attention to the more important projects ; and (iii) through the machinery of the Committee on Plan Projects. In addition, there is a Programme Evaluation Organisation which assesses the work of National Extension Service and Community Development Programmes.

Three posts of Advisers (Programme Administration) were created in 1952. A fourth adviser was added later. These posts are filled by senior officers of suitable administrative experience with State. The functions of the Advisers are to keep the Planning Commission in close touch with the progress of the planning in its various aspects and to give the fullest possible assistance to State Governments and the Central Ministries in matters concerning implementation of various projects. They help to effect co-ordination between the State and the Planning Commission in regard to, (i) preparation of the Five Year Plan, (ii) preparation of the annual Plan, (iii) provision of adjustments in the Plan, and (iv) watching the progress of the Plan and attending to the problems of implementation which they come across during their visits to the States. As regards the implementation of the Plan, the Advisers hold discussions, during their visits, with the various development departments and the State Planning and Finance departments and review the progress of the Plan in different sectors and projects. Particularly, they look into

those projects which are assisted by loans and grants from the Central Ministries, and also note the State's efforts to raise resources. In the course of these discussions and field inspections problems relating to bottlenecks due to non-availability of steel, technical personnel, allocation of foreign exchange, procedural delays in the approval of schemes and the sanctions for financial assistance by the Ministries of the Government and other such matters come to the notice of the Advisers and are dealt with in their reports. The Planning Commission draws the attention of the Ministries concerned to those problems through personal discussion and suggests that an immediate solution is necessary. The Advisers sometimes lead teams of experts from different Ministries to examine particular problems and make recommendations to the Government of India. They check the estimates of projects and assess the expenditure incurred on the projects in terms of the Plan. They also offer advice to State Governments for improving the implementation of the projects and the Plan in different fields of development.

COMMITTEE ON PLAN PROJECTS (COPP)

Origin

A check-up of the Second Plan indicated that the traditional view of economy, namely, reduction in the staff strength, was outmoded in the context of the Plan. The real issue in the plan expenditure is the speed with which projects can be executed which requires a great deal of thought and effort in standardising practices and procedures of execution in order to make estimation of costs realistic ; to achieve basic economy based on scientific development of techniques from the inception of the project ; and to set up norms and standards for evaluation. It was against such a background that the Committee on Plan Projects was set up in 1956, in pursuance of a decision of the National Development Council, for exploring the possibility of achieving economy consistent with efficiency in the projects included in the Second Plan.

Organisation

The Committee on Plan Projects (COPP) has the Home Minister as Chairman, and the Ministers for Planning and Finance and the Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission, as members. In addition, two Chief Ministers of States for each category of projects are

nominated to the Committee by the Prime Minister in his capacity as the Chairman of the National Development Council. Besides, the Union Minister concerned with the project under investigation is also a member.

Activities

The functions of this Committee, as envisaged in the Second Plan, are :

1. to organise investigations, including inspections in the field, of important projects, both at the Centre and in the States, through specially selected teams ;
2. to initiate studies with the objective of evolving suitable forms of organisation, methods, standards and techniques for achieving economy, avoiding waste and ensuring efficient execution of projects ;
3. to promote the development of suitable machinery for continuous efficiency audit in individual projects and in agencies responsible for their execution ;
4. to secure the implementation of suggestions made in reports submitted to the Committee on Plan Projects, and to make the results of studies and investigation generally available ; and
5. to undertake such other tasks as the National Development Council may propose for the promotion of economy and efficiency in the execution of the Second Five Year Plan.

For convenience of investigation, the Committee has divided the projects under certain heads—irrigation and power, public works and buildings, agriculture and communications, public industrial and mineral enterprises, and social services. For each set of projects, the Committee works through groups composed of Ministers from the Centre and Chief Ministers of States. Reports of investigating teams are discussed with the Chief Ministers of States concerned with the execution of projects under study, and the normal procedure is for investigating teams to discuss and obtain the views of the Central or State departments and authorities in charge of projects on their draft reports before submitting them to the COPP. Matters of general policy connected with the investigation of projects are considered from time to time in meetings of the Standing Committee of the National Development Council.

By way of illustration, let us examine the working of the team for the evaluation of selected building projects. It was clear to the COPP early enough that construction costs should be the major target for analysis with a view to economy and efficiency and that, among them, the buildings alone would account for nearly Rs. 800 crores out of a total outlay of Rs. 4,200 crores for the Second Plan. It was, therefore, decided to set up a team for the evaluation of building projects. The team is composed of the Minister for Food and Agriculture as leader, a well-known Consulting Engineer, the present and a former Director of the National Buildings Organisation as members, and a Superintending Engineer of the Central Public Works Department as Secretary. In addition, the Director, Central Board of Research in Irrigation also attends important meetings of the team and has access to all its working papers. Since the team has to investigate various projects of highly technical nature, it has set up technical panels consisting of qualified persons in different fields. Thus, there are separate panels for Grain Godowns, Slum Clearance, Factory Buildings, Bridge Structure, etc. So far, the evaluation team has taken up the investigation of various types of buildings representing an estimate plan outlay of Rs. 550 crores, namely, Grain Godowns, Multi-storeyed Buildings, Factory Buildings, Slum Clearance Schemes, Residential Buildings, Small Storage Structures, National Water Supply, Sanitation Schemes, and Bridges. The report of the Team on Multi-storeyed Buildings has won encomium in all quarters and has become a regular book of reference. Subsequent to the publication of the report a proforma has been prepared which will bring out the actual performance of any particular building compared to standard laid down by the Team. The team has also undertaken the study of the organisation at some of building sites to evolve a pattern which would be conducive to greater economy and efficiency. The team has also made detailed study of the Public Works Organisation at the Centre as well as some of the States, and has come to the conclusion that certain changes are necessary in the organisational set up in order to make it conducive to speedy and economical execution of works.

Similarly, the team for the study of Community Projects and National Extension Services did a remarkable work under the Chairmanship of Balwantraji Mehta. In its three-volume Report (1957) the team made a thorough and detailed study of the working of local bodies and development blocks and recommended a new three-tier organisation of local and development administration in the district

which has since come to be known as 'democratic decentralisation'. These recommendations are now being given effect to with minor modifications in different states. The Committee has also submitted a report on the working of Social Welfare agencies in the country.

PROGRAMME EVALUATION ORGANISATION

The Organisation was established in October, 1952, simultaneously with the inauguration of the Community Development Programme. It was set up under an agreement between the Government of India and the Ford Foundation dated the 12th August, 1952. It is an independent unit for assessing the work of the National Extension Services and Community Development Programmes, but functions under the general guidance of the Planning Commission.

Organisation

The Organisation at the headquarters consists of a Director and two deputy Directors, eight Research Officers and other staff. In the field there are three Regional Evaluation Officers, one for Eastern Zone with headquarters at Calcutta, a second for Southern Zone with headquarters at Bombay, and a third for Northern Zone with headquarters at Delhi. Each of these three officers has 6 to 7 Project Evaluation Officers under him, twenty of them in all. The centres where these officers are posted were selected by dividing the country into major economic and agricultural regions. The choice of the particular centre was guided by the objective of obtaining areas representative of the different environmental, agricultural and economic conditions in different regions so that the rural development programme might be studied under varying conditions. The Regional Officers tour and guide the Project Officers in their survey and act as intermediaries between them and the State Governments. The Project Evaluation Officers are expected to be in the know of all the changing conditions in the Blocks. They have also to conduct surveys in order to assess the impact of the plan projects on the community. For this purpose they have the assistance of an investigation staff. They work in close contact with the Project staff. Among the Research Officers one category is in charge of tabulation units and the other of processing. Other officials put together the reports coming in from the field, scrutinise them and prepare final reports.

The present set up of the PEO enables it to work independently of the Ministry of Community Development. It works under the general direction of the Planning Commission. These directions are informal and, as the Director of the Organisation told the Estimates Committee, "there has not been a single instance where the Planning Commission or Projects Administration has even asked the PEO to do a thing in a particular way."¹⁵

Functions

The main functions of the Organisation, as laid down in 1952, are :

- (a) making a systematic recurring evaluation of the methods and results of the Community Development Programme by keeping all concerned apprised currently of the progress being made towards accomplishing the programme objectives ;
- (b) pointing out those extension methods which are proving effective and which are not ;
- (c) help explaining why some recommended practices are adopted while others are rejected by the villagers ; and
- (d) furnishing an insight into the impact of the Community Development Programme upon the economy and culture of India so essential to anticipating emerging obstacles to continuing economic and social progress.

The present work of the PEO is of twofold character : (1) a general appraisal of the progress of the programme with detailed examination of those aspects which may be of particular interest, and (2) field surveys to assess the impact of the programme on economic and social conditions. In the initial stages greater emphasis was placed on general assessment. After the programme evolved a more settled organisational pattern, it was possible for the PEO to devote more time to analytical examination of particular aspects. It should be noted that the Organisation is not designed to make a check like an engineer which is an administrative function. It never takes upon itself the responsibility of checking the figures. The organisation is merely concerned with indicating the methods which are being adopted and to what extent they are adequate or otherwise. It is not interested in examining if the amount spent on development work is

15 Estimates Committee (38th Report), 1956-57, p. 39.

commensurate with the success achieved and progress made. Similarly, it does not test the technical efficiency of any improvement measure. It only brings out the fact that certain method was not proving successful.

The Evaluation Reports are compiled on the basis of the data supplied by the Project Executive Officers, Block Development Officers or the District Officers, as the case may be, and there is no independent machinery of the PEO to check the basic data. However, the Project Evaluation Officers sometimes make on-the-spot checks and make their own surveys to assess the impact of the Community Development Programme and are in frequent contact with the villagers who supply them the data for their observations. Moreover, these officers maintain contact with local non-officials and members of State and Central Legislatures at the Project and Block level in many cases and their views are duly considered by them, but the contact is informal. Evaluation Reports are of two types—Survey Reports and Main Evaluation Reports. Survey Reports, for example, 'Community Projects Reactions' and 'Cotton Extension in PEPSU', are purely study reports and are circulated to the State Governments, the Ministry of Community Development and the Planning Commission. These reports are based on facts as brought out by surveys and are of great value to the field workers. The main Evaluation Reports are sent to all Heads of departments, Deputy Commissioners, or Collectors, Block Development Officers in States. They are also translated in Hindi and regional languages for wider circulation.

The PEO has produced eight Annual Evaluation Reports which make a general review of the programme and give a detailed description of its work in certain specified evaluation centres. Besides, it also conducts surveys and enquiries. Among the important surveys are : a Survey of Initial Reactions towards the Community Projects, a Bench-mark Survey, the Acceptance and Practices Enquiry, and Study of the Role and Functions of Gram Sewaks. The Organisation does a follow-up of its recommendations and keeps a record of the suggestions and recommendations made by it and regularly checks the action taken by the Community Development Ministry and the State Governments on them. At times the PEO even makes an objective test of finding out as to what is actually happening in the field and directions are issued to the field officers to see as to what extent the weaknesses in the programme pointed out are remedied or not remedied. The recommendations are not always accepted.

*BUREAU OF PUBLIC ENTERPRISES*¹⁶

The Bureau of Public Enterprises functions, since 1964, in the Department of Co-ordination (Ministry of Finance), and is headed by the special Secretary—designated as Director-General, Bureau of Public Enterprises—and manned by experienced technical, industrial, economic and other experts and staff. This Bureau acts as a centralised co-ordinating unit in the Government for providing policy and overall guidance to public undertakings, and for making a continuous appraisal of the performance, organisational set up, manpower requirement, etc., of various public undertakings. It is a service, co-ordination and evaluation agency, performing the following functions :

- (a) to provide a central point of reference and consultation on and to deal with matters of general interest, like organisational patterns, methods of management, personnel policies, collaboration arrangements, training programmes, project planning, economic, social and financial policies etc.;
- (b) to explore all avenues of economy in capital costs of projects (including townships) by scrutiny and analysis of elements of such costs in projects of different types ;
- (c) to devise steps for improving the productivity and profitability of public enterprises by keeping under constant review their performance through suitable methods of reporting and analysis of the performance data ;
- (d) to undertake appraisal and evaluation of selected areas in the performance of public enterprises or in individual units as may become necessary from time to time ; and
- (e) to prepare for presentation to Parliament an annual report on the working of the central government undertakings or such other reports as may be called for by the parliamentary committees or other governmental agencies.

ADMINISTRATIVE IMPLICATION OF PLANNING IN INDIA

The Indian experiment in Planning for a socialist society through democratic process is unique in the contemporary world. Russia and China are both attempting to achieve socialism through

16 The need for such a unit was first emphasised by the Estimates Committee in its *Fifty-Second Report* (Third Lok Sabha), March, 1964, p. 78.

planning but they do not use the democratic process. The Labour Party in Britain aims at bringing about a socialist society through democratic procedures but has no centralised planning machinery. The U.S.A. is a democracy but believes neither in socialism nor in planning. It is only India which has attempted to combine all the three—planning, socialism and democracy. We want to bring about democratic, co-operative, socialistic pattern of society with mixed economy under a parliamentary system without modifying traditions a great deal. This is a challenging, albeit difficult, task.

The advent of planning since 1953, has affected the nature, scope and scale of administration of the Union and State administrations in India. This impact has mainly arisen as a consequence of three major forces at work : (1) the assumption by the Government of developmental functions including those in the field of welfare ; (2) the increase in the scale and variety of administrative operations ; and (3) the need for the greater association of the people with, and their participation in, the administrative process to facilitate planning from below and effective implementation of the Plans.

Both the First and the Second Plans as also the Third Plan (Draft) have recognised the significance and role of public administration in the successful implementation of the Plans. Said the First Plan : "In all directions, the pace of development will depend largely upon the quality of public administration, the efficiency with which it works and the co-operation which it evokes."¹⁷ In the words of the Second Plan : "If the administrative machinery both at the Centre and in the States does its work with efficiency, integrity and with a sense of urgency and concern for the community, the success of the Second Plan would be assured."¹⁸ Emphasising the importance of administration in the successful implementation of the Plan, the Third Plan (Draft) says : "The need for securing efficiency and speed in execution and widespread confidence in the integrity of the administration at all points affecting the general public has always been stressed as vital problems in economic development. With increase in the tempo of development activities and in the functions of Government these aspects of administrative reforms have assumed even greater urgency."¹⁹ Verily, all planning resolves itself into a set of administrative tasks.

17 *First Five Year Plan*, 1953, p. 117.

18 *Second Five Year Plan*, 1956, p. 126.

19 *Third Five Year Plan (Draft)*, 1960, p. 58.

Administrative Organisation and Management

The First Plan placed emphasis on administrative leadership ; integrity; machinery to enquire into cases of misconduct on the part of persons who hold any office, political or otherwise ; efficiency ; staffing arrangements for management of state industrial enterprises and for dealing with matters of economic policy and administration, development in land reforms and food administration ; improvement of quality of recruits to the administrative services and of the procedures for their selection ; establishment of joint 'development' cadres and similar other co-operative arrangements between the Centre and States ; improvement of in-service training arrangements, the importance of careful grounding in revenue and development administration for the probationers of the administrative services, the organisation of refresher courses for senior administrative officers, etc. ; establishment of O & M units at the Centre and in States ; improvement of supervision and inspection ; better human relations ; review of methods of financial control ; greater attention to financial implications at the stage of planning of projects, and allocation of priorities ; improvement of efficiency rating methods so as to facilitate promotion of outstanding officers ; and systematic evaluation of results as a normal administrative practice.

The Second Five Year Plan enumerated the principal administrative tasks as follows : ensuring integrity in administration ; building up administrative and technical cadres, and providing incentives and opportunities for creative service ; continuously assessing requirements of personnel in relation to the tasks to be undertaken ; organising large-scale training programmes in all fields and mobilising the available training resources ; devising speedy, efficient and economic method of work, providing for continuous supervision and arranging for objective evaluation of methods and results at regular intervals. It also emphasised the need for affording opportunities to officials at all levels for exercising the maximum responsibility ; schemes for executive development ; an attitude of speed and urgency ; administrative talents to be drawn from all fields ; and emphasis on correct human relations.

The Third Plan (draft) lists the principal objectives to be realised in public administration as : (1) formulation of policies in clear-cut terms by Government and ensuring continuity in giving effect to them ; (2) clear assignment of responsibility for implementation with full appreciation of the objectives to be achieved at every level inclu-

ding Minister, Secretary and Head of Department, and no interference with the decision of the individual public servants within the field assigned to him by law and regulation ; (3) ensuring everyday efficiency with speed and prompt disposal, including (a) proper training of personnel, especially middle-grade, (b) simplification of procedures through systematic work studies, and (c) effective supervision of work at each level ; (4) continuing administrative leadership for securing steady improvement in administrative efficiency and standard ; and (5) ensuring in respect of important construction projects that the best results accrue for the expenditure incurred, and there is integrity and economy at all points.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

CO-ORDINATION, DELEGATION, COMMUNICATION AND SUPERVISION

CO-ORDINATION

Significance

Co-ordination is the first principle of organisation : it is also the first principle of management. It is, thus, a very important problem in modern administration. Some writers go to the extent of substituting the term 'co-ordinator' for 'manager'. It should, however, be kept in mind that co-ordination is only a means to an end and not an end in itself. In the words of Newman, "It is not a separate activity but a condition that should permeate all phases of administration."¹ Need for co-ordination arises due to three main factors : (1) to avoid or resolve conflicts or overlapping in the work of the employees or units of an organisation ; (2) to prevent or discourage too much concentration on one aspect of work to the exclusion of the other aspects ; and (3) to curb the growing tendency towards empire-building or greed for power prevalent in the different units of an agency.

Meaning

In a negative sense, co-ordination aims at removing conflicts and overlapping from administration. Positively, it attempts to bring about co-operation and team-work among the employees of an organisation. A few definitions of the term by well-known authorities on administration are given below :

Co-ordination is "the orderly synchronisation of efforts to provide the proper amount, timing and directing of execution resulting in harmonious and unified actions to a stated objective."²

"Co-ordination is the adjustment of the parts to each other and of the movement and operation of parts in time so that each can make its maximum contribution to the product of the whole."³

- 1 Newman, W. H. : *Administrative Action*, New York, Prentice-Hall Inc., 1953, p. 403.
- 2 *Ibid.*
- 3 Terry : *op. cit.*, p. 33.

Co-ordination is a process "causing disjunct elements to a concentration on a complex of forces and influence which cause the mutually independent elements to act together."⁴

Co-ordination is the "integration of the several parts into an orderly whole to achieve the purpose of the undertaking."⁵

Mary Parker Follett defines co-ordination as the "reciprocal relating of all factors in a situation" and goes on to amplify it as "you cannot envisage the process accurately by thinking of 'A' adjusting himself to 'B' and to 'C' and to 'D'. 'A' adjusts himself to 'B' and also to a 'B' influenced by 'C' and to a 'B' influenced by 'D' and to a 'B' influenced by 'A' himself.....and so on and so on. This sort of reciprocal relating, this interpretation of every part by every other part, and again by every other part as it has been permeated by all should be the goal of all attempts at co-ordination."⁶

A simple and brief definition of co-ordination has been given by Seckler-Hudson as "the all important duty of interrelating the various parts of the work."⁷ In general, co-ordination means making arrangements so that all parts of an organisation pull together toward defined goals, without duplication, without gaps and conflicts and on time. Some good examples of high class co-ordination are the assembling of a watch and the rowing of a boat. An orchestra represents perhaps the nearest perfection of co-ordination.

Co-ordination is sometimes confused with co-operation but they do not mean the same thing. In the words of Terry, co-operation is "the collective action of one person with another or others toward a common goal." Co-ordination is much more than collective action and means "synchronisation of efforts". Terry gives a very interesting story to dramatise the difference : "Consider the story of the boy who wished to take an early morning train and accordingly set his watch ahead one half hour before going to bed so that he would be sure to arise in plenty of time. Placing the watch on the table alongside his bed, the boy retired early to get sufficient rest. His father, knowing of his son's desire to take the early train, went to his son's bed-room and turned the lad's watch up one half hour, believing this would give the boy extra time to get up and dressed. Likewise, the

4 White : *op. cit.*, p. 38.

5 Charlesworth, J. C. : *Governmental Administration*, New York, Harper & Bros., 1951, pp. 244-52.

6 Metcalf, H. C. & Urwick, L. : *Dynamic Administration*, 1947, pp. 297 ff.

7 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 61.

mother just before retiring went in the lad's bed-room and turned his watch forward one half hour so that he would not be rushed in the morning. As a result the lad arose one and one half hour early instead of the one half hour losing an hour of needed sleep. Co-operation among the actions of the son, father and mother had been present but no co-ordination."⁸

Co-ordination may be internal (functional) or external (structural). Internal co-ordination is concerned with co-ordinating the individual duties of persons working in an organisation. External co-ordination, on the other hand, is concerned with co-ordinating the activities of different organisational units. In the words of Appleby : "It (Hierarchy) functions both perpendicularly and horizontally. The horizontal relationship is between units and between agencies commonly regarded as co-ordination in an effort to distinguish between co-ordination and administration. Co-ordination effected between units responsible to a single executive is co-ordination at the level of units, administration at the level of the executive to whom they are responsible, whereas he in turn participates in co-ordination with other agencies at his level."⁹

How to Co-ordinate ?

Means of co-ordination are many and varied. Planning, for instance, is a co-ordinating device par excellence. Planning involves the maximum utilisation of all the available resources in men, money and materials with a view to achieving the planned targets and goals within a limited period, and this is nothing but an exercise in co-ordination on a national scale. Secondly, there are organisational devices or institutionalisation of co-ordination techniques. These may take the form of conferences, panels, committees, symposia, interdepartmental meetings, staff units, co-ordinating officers, etc. Hierarchy in an organisation is a co-ordinating agency inasmuch as its main purpose is to evolve a consensus within the agency. As a matter of fact, organisation itself is a co-ordinating device. In India there are numerous organisational devices to bring about co-ordination. The Union Government itself is above all a co-ordinating agency. The Central Secretariat, Cabinet, Cabinet Committees, Planning Commission, Zonal Councils, the National Development Council and the Prime Minister are all engaged in the same process. At the district level

8 Terry : *op. cit.*, pp. 33-34.

9 Appleby : *op. cit.*, pp. 71-72.

the Collector is, above all, a co-ordinator. This role will secure increasing emphasis with the introduction of democratic decentralisation. Then, there are Boards and Commissions helping in the same direction like the University Grants Commission, the Inter-University Boards, and the Indian Historical Records Commission. The institution of Conferences is also freely used towards the same end. These Conferences attempt co-ordination between the Centre and the States for expeditious disposal of schemes and for finding practical solutions of difficulties. They serve as forums for the exchange of ideas and the formulation of definite policy in the light of the discussions. They help in evolving common programmes and enable the review of the progress of implementation of such programmes. Such conferences are held at political, official, and professional levels. The conferences of Governors, Chief Ministers and Ministers of different departments are examples of conferences at the political level. At the official level are the conferences of Secretaries to Government and Heads of Departments. Then there are conferences of professionals like the Vice-Chancellors' Conferences and the Irrigation and Power Seminar which is attended by the Chief Engineers of different States and the Heads of the River Valley Projects.

Standardisation of procedures and methods is the third medium of co-ordination. Procedures, which concern a large number of people and which are repetitive in nature, are generally standardised. Forms are a good example of standardisation of procedures. Manuals, regulations and rules are other examples of such standardisation.

Centralised house-keeping is the fourth device to promote co-ordination. "In administration house-keeping problems usually include supply, warehousing, the cleaning and maintenance of buildings, printing and duplicating equipment control, central mailing, transportation, and food and telephone service."¹⁰ The first Hoover Commission recommended, in 1949, the creation of an office of General Services to be in charge of such house-keeping services. The recommendation was accepted and the General Services Administration was set up the same year. In India, there are many agencies of centralised house-keeping like the accounting and auditing under the Auditor-General ; construction, maintenance and repair of buildings under the Public Works Department ; supplies under the Directorate-General of Supplies, etc. The Union Public Service Commission serves the same purpose for recruitment and selection of public services.

10 Pfflner & Presthus : *op. cit.*, p. 184.

Fifthly, the Finance Ministry (Department) is a great co-ordinator. The annual budget itself is an essay in co-ordinating the resources, expenditures and programmes of the government concerned, and it is the Finance Ministry that co-ordinates and reconciles the claims, demands and programmes of the different Ministries in order to evolve an agreed plan of action, that is, the budget. The Finance Ministry's role does not end with the passing of the budget and the allocation of funds among the Ministries ; its sanction or approval is needed for the implementation of any programme by the operating departments.

Lastly, co-ordination is largely dependent upon the effectiveness of verbal and written communications which channel information and ideas down, up and across the chain of command.

In addition to the formal means discussed above, there are informal media of co-ordination which are not less effective for being informal. Personal contacts are perhaps the most important of these. They help free exchange of ideas, frank discussion and agreement by compromise. Committees and conferences furnish opportunities for such informal consultations. Dinners, lunches and cocktail parties have become recognised media of informal communication. Perhaps by far the most important medium of 'unofficial' co-ordination is a disciplined party system. In our country the fact of the Congress party being in power in all the States and the Centre is greatly responsible for co-ordination of policies, plans and programmes on countrywide basis. Lastly, the role of good leadership as a co-ordinating factor cannot be over-emphasised. In this respect the impact of the personality of Prime Minister Nehru on the administrative and political unity of the country was a great national asset.

Hindrances

There are limits to the degree of co-ordination that an agency can achieve. The path of co-ordination is beset with difficulties. According to Gulick some of these difficulties arise from, (a) the uncertainty of the future—as to the behaviour of individuals and of people ; (b) the lack of knowledge, experience, wisdom and character among leaders and their confused and conflicting ideas and objectives ; (c) the lack of administrative skill and technique ; (d) the vast number of variables involved and the incompleteness of human knowledge, particularly with regard to man and life ; and (e) the lack

of orderly methods of developing, considering, perfecting and adopting new ideas and programmes.¹¹ To these Seckler-Hudson adds four more, namely, "size and complexity, personalities and political factors, the lack of leaders with wisdom and knowledge pertaining to public administration, and the accelerated expansion of public administration to international dimensions."¹² In short, the hindrances to co-ordination are the enormous growth in the size of public administration, the growing trend toward creating new agencies to administer to new needs and demands, the thinning out of the span of control, the tendency on the part of the subordinates to pass the buck up, lack of delegation on the part of 'boss', etc., etc.

There are, however, thinkers who do not deplore the lack of co-ordination ; they, in fact, welcome it. Thus, Harlan Cleveland, till recently Dean of the Maxwell School at Syracuse University (U.S.A.), has challenged the desirability of structuring an organisation for full co-ordinated smoothness in function. His 'tension theory' suggests that there should be deliberate planning so that conflicts in jurisdiction and programme will arise among various bureaus and agencies, served better by having these conflicts within the administration to focus the issues clearly. A smooth organisation may override the public interest too early.

DELEGATION

Need for Delegation

In a one-man organisation all decisions are made by one individual. The smaller the organisation the lesser is the need for division of authority. It is when an organisation grows that the need for delegation arises because one person or a group of persons can no longer make all the decisions. Authority and responsibility along with duties must, therefore, be divided. Delegation is one of the main ways for dividing and distributing authority. The extent of delegation of authority, however, is inversely related to the size and complexity of the organisation. Among the advantages of a sound system of delegation are the following :

1. The various levels of the organisation are used more appropriately. Thus, the chief administrator is able to devote his attention

11 Gulick, L. & Urwick, L. : *Papers on the Science of Administration*, New York, Columbia University, 1937, p. 40.

12 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 53.

to more important questions and need not take time with decisions on operational details which may suitably be dealt with further down the line. It has become a recognised principle of modern administration that the top man or the manager must not waste his time and energy over minute details and should deal only with top-level or exceptional problems of his organisation. Authority to make decision on day-to-day work should be delegated to the level where detailed knowledge and experience exist. The higher management always retains final responsibility, but the people in charge of the routine work should be allowed to make their own decisions and answer for them.

2. A sound system of delegation tends to develop an increased sense of responsibility and an enhanced potential work capacity of individual employees. One of the duties of a manager is to build up his subordinates and the best way to do it is to entrust them with responsibility and authority. If decisions are taken at too high a level, there is danger of undermining the authority of the persons at the lower level who, if they are to work effectively, must be answerable for their actions and must carry a commensurate amount of authority.

3. The services rendered by the organisation are improved and are discharged efficiently, economically and expeditiously by centering action points as far down the line as possible and as close to the scene where action is to be taken.

4. Proper delegation of authority is conducive to an effective control over operations due to a clear definition of responsibility and of action at each level of organisation.

5. Delegation also minimises delay when decisions have no longer to be referred up the line.

White sums up succinctly the reasons for delegation in these words : "Circumstances of magnitude and volume, however, require some delegation of authority, and the settlement of much business at the point where it arises. The convenience of citizens alone compels most matters to be handled outside Washington. The avoidance of delay in administrative bottlenecks requires decisions at a hundred or a thousand field offices rather than in a single headquarters establishment. In some cases proper adjustment of policy and programme to local conditions requires discretionary field decisions. Certainly the delegation of authority means greater energy, a higher sense of responsibility, and better morale among field agents. They are not

content to be mere messengers and reporters of their Washington superiors.”¹³

What is Delegation ?

According to Mooney, delegation means conferring of specified authority by a higher to a lower authority. It is the devolution of authority by a person to his agent or subordinate subject to his right of supervision and control. Terry does not agree with this interpretation. To him “delegation means conferring authority from one executive or organisation unit to another.”¹⁴ It is not necessarily devolution from a higher to a lower level ; it may as well be from a lower to a higher level or between equal levels. Delegation may, thus, be “downward, upward, or sideward”. Downward delegation of authority is illustrated by a sales manager to his salesmen ; upward delegation by stockholders to their board of directors ; sideward delegation by certain African tribal chiefs and their Central Tribal Authority.¹⁵

Delegation, it should be remembered, is not abdication of responsibility and does not connote the transfer of final authority. The person delegating authority does not surrender his overall responsibility and retains the power of inspection, supervision, control and review. He can even revoke his delegation and take back all the authority. On the other hand, “delegation of authority means more than simply assigning duties to others in more or less detail. The essence of delegation is to confer discretion upon others, to use their judgment in meeting specific problems within the framework of their duties.”¹⁶ Delegation has, thus, a dual characteristic inasmuch as both the delegates and the delegator have authority vested in them at the same time. Organisationally conceived, therefore, delegation is only a way for dividing and distributing authority.

What to Delegate ?

The manager should delegate as much as his subordinates can reasonably be expected to do, and just a little bit more. The art of delegating boils down to a weighing of the chance and consequence of error against the necessities of getting work done and of develop-

13 White : *op. cit.*, p. 103.

14 Terry : *op. cit.*, p. 271.

15 *Ibid.*, p. 272.

16 Millett : *op. cit.*, p. 46.

ing morale and utilising subordinates to the extent of their abilities. Delegation, thus, requires knowledge of people and of situations, and has to be continuously revised to meet changes in personnel, programme or pressure. It is often forgotten that there are limits to delegation of authority as follows :

1. *The extent to which authority may be delegated is restricted by constitution, laws and political institutions.*

2. *The calibre of staff at the lower level.* Delegation to an incompetent individual is clearly impracticable. However, the excuse of staff incompetence as a reason for not making delegations sometimes reflects upon the administrator rather than upon the staff.

3. *The extent to which special programme requirements necessitate centralisation.* There may be situations where even the routine work decisions may not be delegated. This may be true in the early stages of a new organisation or when a crisis situation has developed or is developing.

4. *The extent to which work is of a stable and repetitive type.* Delegation is made easier when guide-lines can be established for lower levels to take action directly. If the conditions of work are changed frequently, delegation may be more difficult.

5. *The size of organisation and its geographical location.* The larger the organisation and the broader its geographic coverage, the greater are the chances for delegating authority.

6. *Methods of internal communications in the organisation.* Delegation becomes difficult if there is a lack of effective procedural system in internal communications and work controls.

7. *The degree of co-ordination which is required throughout the organisation.* A manager must co-ordinate or fail. Delegation of this power will be tantamount to abdication of responsibility.

Hindrances to Delegation

Whatever be the need for delegation it is often seen that superior officers fight shy of it, and are generally reluctant to delegate authority. This tendency is particularly noticeable in our country today. The causes for such failure to delegate may well be summed up as : highly developed egotism on the part of persons who rise to positions of hierarchical leadership ; their apprehension that others are incapable of making proper decisions or carrying them out in the desired manner ; their fear that disloyal or subversive power centres may develop among strong subordinates ; their impatience

with the slower pace and the indecisiveness of subordinates ; absence of emotional maturity in the topman ; the desire of leaders to be always in the limelight and to take credit for everything ; lack of knowledge of what to delegate and how ; and lastly the accountability of the chief to those above him or the legislature or the people.

How to Delegate ?

Certain mechanics can, however, be suggested to solve partially the dilemma of delegation so as to retain the basic control in the hands of the executive head, while permitting the right kind and extent of delegation for the execution of details, for example :

- (i) Planned and regularised contacts with staff as a part of each executive's and supervisor's duties are essential. In this way the official periodically can see how authority is being exercised, can discuss problems, can give guidance and can determine if there are questionable points of policy or operation.
- (ii) A systematic plan for reporting and reviewing operational records and documents will facilitate control. This includes such material as correspondence, financial documents and personnel documents. In most cases it is not humanly possible to review all such documentation and sampling must be used. This means careful definition of problems and determination of the kinds of work to be done by the administrator personally, that which he reviews for control or information and that which can be completed without his personal attention.
- (iii) All reports of subordinates which contain specific information about performance, progress, results, new questions or problems and solutions should be reviewed. This enables a review of progress and reveals the problem areas that are developing. A systematic plan of reporting specifically for these purposes facilitates control. It is also possible to simplify, standardise and shorten such reporting so as to give information expeditiously and with minimum time required of the official as well as those reporting.
- (iv) In larger organisations the administrator may use one or more special assistants or a staff unit to develop statistical and operational information through compilation of opera-

tional data, inspections, audits and surveys. Generally these inspections and survey procedures are geared to uncover areas of weaknesses which require corrective action and to show ways in which the functioning of the organisation may be improved.

As we have seen a proper plan of delegation envisages constant scrutiny with a view to improvement. However, certain general principles can be laid down by means of which the effectiveness of a system of delegation of authority can be assessed. These criteria may be outlined as follows :

- (i) Delegation of authority should be specific and customarily be in written form.
- (ii) Policies, regulations and procedures should be well defined to assure uniformity of interpretations in the organisation.
- (iii) Authority which can be exercised competently and safely at lower levels should be delegated. The right to decide should be delegated. The right to decide the form of response to an operational challenge or problem is best delegated to the lowest practicable level so as to be near the scene of actual action.
- (iv) Delegation should follow the normal line of command and should be made to a post rather than to an individual. Authority should never be delegated to an individual if it has not been delegated to his superior except with his implied consent. Distribution of authority at comparable levels should be uniform.
- (v) All parts of the organisation be familiar with the repositories of responsibility and authority and the extent thereof.
- (vi) Delegations should be planned in the sense that they are integrated with the systematic development of a competent and trained staff and conform to the other operational plans and policies.

COMMUNICATION

Significance

Communication has come to be recognised as the first principle of administration. Effective communication is vital to the successful achievement of agency objectives. Persons working for an organisation will show greater devotion to it, take more interest in their tasks

and develop a larger measure of identification with it if they understand the objectives of the organisation, its policies and circumstances. An effective way to evoke a person's enthusiastic and active co-operation is for the head of the agency to take him into confidence. Millett is right in regarding communications as "the blood stream of administrative organisation." Pfiffner considers it "the heart of management."

This is an age of communications. The average man, today, is much closer to his government and his neighbours; he identifies himself more with the life around him. Even in the international field we are moving toward "one world". Researches in group dynamics and human psychology have proved that the successful working of an organisation depends upon winning the co-operation of the persons working in it. Democracy demands that the public must be increasingly associated with administration. Business and government alike, therefore, have felt the need for establishing better communication channels in their organisations. Management has recognised the part that communication plays in promoting participation, co-operation and team-work on the part of the employees. There is ample evidence of the recognition. Almost all civilised governments today have set up information, publicity and public relations departments. The literature on management is full of articles on communication. Conferences, workshops and other training programmes are being organised to develop communication skills, particularly in the United States.

Meaning

Communication is often used in the sense of imparting knowledge or transmitting information. The term, as used here, however, has a wider connotation, and includes interchange of thoughts, partaking of ideas, and a sense of participation and sharing. The essence of communication, thus, is not information but understanding. Millett has aptly defined it as "shared understanding of a shared purpose."¹⁷ Tead expresses the same idea as "the underlying aim of communication is a meeting of minds on common issues."¹⁸

Communication in an organisation may be internal, external and interpersonal. The first deals with the relationship between the

17 Millett, J. : *op. cit.*, p. 84.

18 Tead, Ordway : *The Art of Administration*, New York, McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951, pp. 185-86.

organisation and its employees. The second is concerned with the relations of the agency with the public and is called "public relations". The third is related to the relationships among the agency's employees *inter se*. Communication has also been classified as "up", "down" and "across". "Up" communication is achieved by such methods as systematic, written and verbal reports of performance and progress, statistical and accounting reports concerning work, written and verbal requests for guidance, suggestions and discussions. Means are, thus, provided for the higher level to obtain evidence about work problems. "Down" communication is achieved through devices, such as, directives, manuals, specific written or verbal orders or instructions, staff conferences, budget sanctions and establishment authorisation. The higher level uses these devices not only for command and control, but to inform the lower echelons concerning its attitudes and ideas and to give advice, guidance and direction. "Across" communication is achieved through exchange of written or verbal information and reports, formal and informal personal contacts, staff meetings and co-ordinating committees. The aim is to bring together different but related parts of the organisation.

Media

Communication is possible through numerous media which may be grouped into three main types—audial, visual and audio-visuals ; that is, hearing, seeing, and both. The examples of the audial medium are conferences, meetings, interviews, telephone calls, broadcasts, public meetings, etc. Visual medium includes written communications (circulars, manuals, reports, bulletins and hand-books), and pictorial forms (pictures, photographs, posters, cartoons, flags, insignia, slides, etc.) Sound-motion pictures, television and personal demonstration are examples of audio-visual medium. Each of these media has its merits and limitations, and it is for the manager or the executive to decide which medium should prove effective and when.

The conference method is coming more and more in vogue as a means of encouraging communication whether in a business or a governmental agency. It is supposed to avoid delay, minimise correspondence and cut down red-tape. According to Millett, the important uses of the conference method are, (1) to gain awareness of a problem, (2) to help in problem solving, (3) to gain acceptance and execution of decision, (4) to help promote a sense of unity among the officials working in the organisation, (5) to help in appraising

personnel, and (6) to encourage an exchange of information among administrative personnel.

The objectives of a conference are to aid individuals to discharge their present responsibilities more effectively, co-ordinate their working relationship, profit from the experience of others, organise their own experience, appreciate the problems faced by others, broaden their viewpoint and formalise organisational communication. The conference method possesses the advantage of creating a high degree of interest, full and equal participation by group members, satisfaction through mutual achievement, acceptance of results by participants, inculcating habits of analysis and integration of thought, developing group morale, and possessing an informality.

The conference method, however, has its limitations. In the opinion of the Estimates Committee (Ninth Report) "the conferences have become so many and are sometimes so unwieldy that it is impossible for officers participating in them to do full justice to the subject-matter of the discussions and, in practice, instead of the meetings shortening discussions, notings, etc., they sometimes lead to protracted correspondence, inasmuch as different viewpoints which are expressed have to be recorded, corrected and reconciled and delay occurs in framing agreed minutes and sometimes further conferences become necessary as a result of incomplete discussions. Sometimes, the same officer has to attend more than one conference the same day and cannot obviously be fully prepared for each conference. Consequently he does not contribute fully to the discussions. In short, the conference system is proving more elaborate than the original procedure of noting on files."¹⁹

To be useful, therefore, a conference has to be carefully managed. It should not open without any preliminary planning, without the service of experts, without any rules, and without adequate organisation for effective work. Preliminary planning for a conference is very essential. The persons responsible for it should give adequate time for planning, and tasks should be assigned to several qualified persons in advance of the conference. The organisation of a conference is equally important. Right size of room, moveable and comfortable chairs, good lighting and ventilation, good acoustics, provision of aids like blackboard, recordings, slides and projectors, arrangement of seats, timing, etc., may seem small matters but help to make the conference successful. Similarly, the

19 Estimates Committee, Ninth Report, 1953-54, p. 51.

procedure adopted, and the personality of the chairman may help or mar a conference.

Difficulties and Barriers

The first great difficulty is the complexity of language. Communication is made difficult by the 'tyranny of words' which at best are only poor vehicles for the expression of ideas. Word differences are a big hindrance to mutual understanding. This is particularly true of intentional words. According to Terry words may be classed as extensional and intentional. The former type of words denote objects that are definite, namely, persons, places and materials, and are easily understood. "In contrast intentional words do not refer to something that can be pointed out. They neither always connote an identical meaning to different persons nor the same meaning to the same person at all times."²⁰ To illustrate, the word 'easy' is subject to different meanings. Words, phrases, and idioms in the same language may have different connotations in different countries, for instance, the use of English language in England, the U.S.A., and India. The same is true of the Hindi language in different parts of India. The problem becomes more complicated in a country like ours with fourteen officially recognised languages and numerous dialects. Besides, the jargons developed by different disciplines further add to the complexity. Specialists tend to develop a language which is beyond the ken of the average citizen. The specialisation characterising modern administration has developed its own jargon which inhibits communication.

Secondly, there are, in the words of Pfiffner, "ideological barriers". "Differences in background, education and expectation result in different social and political views. These are probably the greatest handicaps to effective communication and probably the most difficult to overcome."²¹ To these barriers may be added the lack of common experience and common background. All these may lead to differences in the perception of a problem with the result that, like the fable of seven blindmen describing an elephant, each individual gives his own interpretation of the problem, thus, making the meeting of minds difficult.

Thirdly, lack of a will or desire to communicate is not

20 Terry : *op. cit.*, p. 411.

21 Pfiffner & Presthus : *op. cit.*, p. 115.

unknown. Some managers do not believe that administration is a co-operative endeavour and a group effort ; they do not think it necessary to share their ideas with their subordinates. Their concept of the role of the subordinates, in the words of the poet, is "not to wonder why but to do and die." To such executives communication is the one-way process of giving and passing on instructions to those below. They do not relish or encourage communication from below. Participative management is not for them. The obverse side of this attitude is sycophancy among the subordinates. A common weakness of a subordinate is to report only that information to his superior as is palatable to him. This is a sure way of spoiling the boss ; nothing can be worse for the morale of a boss than to be surrounded by yes-men.

Size and distance may be said to be the fourth barrier to communication. The bigger an organisation and the larger the number of its employees, the greater is the difficulty of communication. Then there is the problem of too many hierarchical levels. "Information must percolate through levels, each of which may include empire-builders who consciously modify or subvert higher authority. In addition, individuals interpret facts differently and tend unconsciously to colour them in transmission."²² The problem of distance arises in the case of an agency having its field agencies scattered throughout the country. The department of Posts and Telegraphs may be a good example of it.

Lastly, there may be lack of definite and recognised means of communication. Channels of communication may be formal or informal. Formal channels are established procedures by which information flows through an agency. Hierarchy helps the process. Noting on files and the flow of files up and down the line are recognised means of communication. "Procedure through proper channels" epitomises this concept. All such procedures aim not only at disseminating information, but also at creating consensus of opinion and understanding in the agency. But, however detailed and comprehensive the formal channels, there is a tendency for informal channels to be set up. According to Appleby, a good deal of circumvention of formal procedures is essential to make the transaction of business possible. Pfiffner and Presthus echo the same idea by saying, "the ability to short circuit formal channels is, thus, a necessary and valuable art." Interpersonal contacts and personal

relationships inevitably lead to direct personal contacts which break through the formal channels.

Essentials of Communication

According to Millett²³ there are seven factors necessary to make the communication effective, namely—it should be clear, consistent with the expectation of the recipient, adequate, timely, uniform, flexible and acceptable. Terry recommends eight practices to achieve the goal as follows :²⁴

1. Inform yourself fully.
2. Establish a mutual trust in each other.
3. Find a common ground of experience.
4. Use mutually known words.
5. Have regard for context.
6. Secure and hold the receiver's attention.
7. Employ examples and visual aids.
8. Practise delaying reactions.

SUPERVISION

Why Supervision ?

“That, which is not inspected, is not done,” is an old but wise saying. Inspection, overseeing and supervision arise in response to needs inherent in the functioning of an organisation. Policy-making, programming, budgeting and staffing, by themselves, may not necessarily lead to successful results unless there is someone to ensure that what has been programmed is actually being implemented. Moreover, the workers on the front line very often need guidance and advice. At times they run into difficulties and need a helping hand to extricate them out of these. Every organisation, public or private, therefore, provides for supervision as one of its most important tasks. One out of every seven workers in American commercial and industrial organisations is a supervisor. Moreover, supervision is inherent in the hierarchical nature of organisations, each level of which supervises the one below it and is, in turn, supervised by the one above it.

23 Millett : *op. cit.*, pp. 91-92.

24 Terry : *op. cit.*, pp. 410-13.

What is Supervision ?

It is a compound of two words 'super' and 'vision' meaning superior power of perceiving. It means overseeing or superintending the work of others. It has been defined as "the direction, accompanied by authority, of the work of others." However the term does not always convey identical meaning to all persons. Margaret Williamson gives a graphic story to explain the different aspects of supervision. "Some new group workers were asked : What came to their mind when they heard the term 'supervision' ?" Replies ran somewhat as follows :

"Being safeguarded from making mistakes. Being helped by a person who understands. Satisfaction in having a point of reference. Being made to feel inadequate and inferior because of the authority and power of the person over me. Being pushed around."²⁵ She defines supervision as "a process by which workers are helped by a designated staff member to learn according to their needs, to make the best use of their knowledge and skills and to improve their abilities so that they do their jobs more effectively and with increasing satisfaction to themselves and the agency."²⁶ In brief, supervision means the observation of results.

Supervision is more than inspection and investigation ; the latter are merely parts of the process of supervision. Indeed, supervision is more than superintendence as an administrative task. It has an educative aspect too. A supervisor is supposed to teach the workers under him the best way of doing their work. In addition, it has a consultative role inasmuch as the workers turn to their supervisor for advice and guidance. A supervisor's role, thus, is that of a leader. Supervision, in brief, has many ingredients. It is 'selecting the right person for each job ; arousing in each person an interest in his work and teaching him how to do it; measuring and rating performance to be sure that teaching has been fully effective, administering correction where this is found necessary and transferring to more suitable work or dismissing those for whom this proves ineffective ; commending whenever praise is merited and rewarding for good work ; and, finally, fitting each person harmoniously into the working group—all done fairly, patiently and tactfully so that each person is caused to do his work skilfully, accurately, intelligently, enthu-

25 Williamson, M. : *Supervision—Principles and Methods*, New York, Woman's Press, 1950, p. 3.

26 *Ibid.*, p. 7.

siastically and completely.”²⁷ Millett distinguishes between “substantive supervision” and “technical supervision”. The first is concerned with the actual work done by an agency while the second deals with the methods by which the work is done.

Who are Supervisors ?

All persons in authority, who control the work of others, are supervisors irrespective of their high or low status in the hierarchy. Thus the foreman, the head-constable, the head clerk, the headmaster, the collector are all supervisors. It is sometimes thought that a supervisor merely supervises and performs no line functions himself. It is, however, not always so. Supervisors generally perform both the “responsibility” and the “work” jobs though their main function is the former type of job. Supervisors are of two kinds—line and functional. The line supervisor refers to the control exercised by the persons in line of command. For example, in the Police Department of a State in India, the Inspector-General supervises the District Superintendents of Police who in turn control the Inspectors and so on till we come to the Head-constable who is the first line supervisor. Functional supervision, on the other hand, is exercised by subject-matter specialists like the auditors, the accountants, the O & M specialists, statisticians, etc. While line supervision is of direct and commanding type, the functional supervision is a staff function, and influences rather than commands.

How to Supervise ?

Millett suggests six methods or techniques of supervision : (i) prior approval of individual projects ; (ii) the promulgation of service standard ; (iii) budgetary limitation upon the magnitude of operations ; (iv) approval of key subordinate personnel ; (v) a reporting system on work progress ; and (vi) inspection of results. Let us, briefly, examine each one of these techniques.²⁸

Prior approval. This is a common mode of exercising control by the superior over the subordinate units. The top authorities simply lay down the objectives and policy in broad terms, leaving the details of the individual projects to be finalised later. In India

27 Halsey, G. D. : *Supervising People*, New York, Harper & Bros., 1953, p. 6.

28 Millett : *op. cit.*, p. 99.

the prior approval of the departmental heads is not enough ; in addition the Finance Ministry/Department has also to give its approval. This arrangement not only ensures detailed control but also provides the much needed flexibility to change the general plans through making changes in the projects. There is scope too of removing misunderstanding and rectifying errors. On the other hand, the process almost always tends to interpose delays, increases red-tape, means additional staff to cope with the increase in volume of work, and creates diffidence and indifference on the part of the operating heads, nothing to say about the friction between them and top management. Such a system cannot be observed in times of stress, emergency and crisis, and becomes a mere formality as the operating units gain the confidence of the central office.

Service standards. The second technique of supervision is for the top management to lay down targets or standards for the operating units to achieve. This, in addition to furnishing guide-points, audits their performance. Service standards, thus, set up norms of administrative output. For instance, the service standard for a school may well be the strength of students, the percentage of passes, the quality of performance of the students, general discipline among students, good morale among the teachers, proficiency in games and other extra-curricular activities, and the number of hours of teaching—any one of them, a few of them or all of them. The determination of such norms is a difficult process, and there is the difficulty of striking a balance between quantity and quality, the attaining of targets and the way it has been done.

Work budget. Budget, it has been rightly said, is much more than an array of figures ; it is a plan of work and is a powerful instrument of control over administration. Thus, budget allotments for a school determine how much money will be spent on recruiting additional teachers, constructing new rooms, providing mid-day lunch for students, etc. The operating units, thus, work within the budgetary allotments and are not free to spend money as and when they like.

Approval of personnel. No agency of government is completely free to recruit its staff. The superior staff is invariably appointed by the chief executive. Even in the case of the subordinate personnel the top management usually insists on its prior approval for all posts except the insignificant ones. In fact, this work is often entrusted to the central personnel department of the agency concerned.

Reports. It is a standard practice in administration that the operating units should submit an account of their activities to the central office. Such reports may be periodic—weekly, fortnightly, monthly, quarterly, half-yearly or annual. Reports may also be special or *ad hoc*, that is, be concerned with certain special matter. The term may be used in a broad sense to cover the entire field of communication. Thus, according to Seckler-Hudson, “It reaches not only upward, downward, outward, and around within a given organisation, it must reach across to other agencies doing similar work, and up and out to the government wide agencies and the office of the President.”²⁹ However, we are here concerned only with a system of internal management reporting. “These reports may be narrative or statistical ; they may embrace the broad scope of all major activities, or they may be confined to a few essentials ; they may emphasise achievement to deficiencies in performance.”³⁰ A good system of reporting has obvious advantages. It conveys information to the superiors about what is going on. It enables the supervisors to evaluate the performance of their subordinates, to understand the situation faced by them ; and above all, to control the operations within the organisation.

Inspection. Inspection of some kind or the other has been an integral part of public administration for as many centuries as government has emerged as an organised unit. In general, the purposes of inspection are : (i) to see that the existing rules, regulations and procedures are observed ; (ii) a sort of performance audit ; (iii) instructing and guiding the persons working in the organisation ; and (iv) improvement of efficiency. Inspection, it must be remembered, is not a mere fault-finding process, and the effectiveness of an inspection system is to be judged in the light of the above four ingredients. For a proper understanding of the nature and scope of inspection, a distinction should be made between inspection on the one hand and investigation and supervision on the other. Inspection work and investigation work differ greatly from each other. In the words of Millett, “.....the purpose of inspection is to acquire information. It helps to clarify management purposes and intentions. It helps acquaint top management with the operating problems facing subordinate levels of management. It helps build personal relationship of mental acquaintance and confidence. The purpose

29 Seckler-Hudson : *op. cit.*, p. 237.

30 Millett : *op. cit.*, pp. 606-07.

of investigation, on the other hand, is to inquire into some alleged or suspected incident of an abuse of management authority. It is concerned with the personal wrong doing, often of a criminal nature."³¹ As regards the relationship between inspection and supervision, Millett regards inspection not as a separate management function but as a part of the process of supervision. As shown earlier, supervision is certainly a more comprehensive term than inspection, though at times the two terms are used in the same sense. It may be said that inspection work is *post facto* review and has in a way a negative role. Supervision, on the contrary, is more positive and is in operation both before an action and after it.

Inspections are carried out in many ways. In the first place, the head of an agency himself is responsible for the inspection of offices and establishments under him. In other words, each superior is expected to inspect the work of his subordinates. This may be called a built-in system of inspection. Secondly, the administrative agency at the next higher echelon has also a duty to inspect the working of offices under it. Thus, a Divisional Commissioner has to inspect the Collectorates under him, and the District Collector, in turn, has to inspect the Tahsils/Taluqs. The third system of inspection is to set up an external, separate and independent agency, with the Government, charged solely with inspection work. A good example of such an agency is the Inspectorate of Offices in U. P.

To the above list of techniques may be added a few more, namely, work plans, written procedures or manuals, written and oral instructions, staff meetings and administrative follow-up.

How to get Supervisors ?

Supervision has come to be identified as a separate and defined function. Everyone cannot be a good supervisor. Supervision now needs specialised knowledge and skill in using it. In addition, a supervisor should have certain qualities. Pfiffner lists eight such qualities,³² namely, command of job content, that is, expert knowledge of the work to be done ; personal qualifications, like integrity ; teaching ability, that is, the ability to communicate his ideas to the workers and make them understand the management's point of view ; general outlook, that is, the supervisor should love his job and be absorbed

31 Millett : *op. cit.*, p. 108.

32 Pfiffner, J. M. : *The Supervision of Personnel*, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1958.

in it and inspire those under him ; courage and fortitudes, that is, the ability to take decisions and assume responsibility ; ethical and moral considerations, that is, freedom from vices having social disapprobation ; administrative technology, that is, the ability to manage ; and curiosity and intellectual ability, that is, intellectual alertness and receptivity to new ideas.

According to Halsey, there must be an adequate and reasonably well-balanced development of the following six qualities in a supervisor :³³

1. *Thoroughness*. A supervisor should collect all the information relevant to the issue and take care of every necessary detail.
2. *Fairness*. It includes a sense of justice, consideration and truthfulness towards workers.
3. *Initiative*. It is a combination of the three qualities of courage, self-confidence and decisiveness.
4. *Tact*. It is "the ability to win the loyalty and support of others by saying and doing those things which give them a feeling that they are playing an important part in whatever is being done."
5. *Enthusiasm*. It is "an intense and eager interest in and devotion to a cause, a pursuit, or an ideal." It includes interest, knowledge and achievement.
6. *Emotional control*. It means not the elimination of emotions, but rather to control and channel them in right direction.

But the quality which is perhaps most necessary is the human relations aspect of supervision. The success of a supervisor, more often than not, depends on his personal relations with employees, taken as individuals. It has been rightly said that "the pattern of leadership desirable in supervisory positions is based upon behaviour that emphasises co-operation, participation, consultation, and satisfaction for the egos of the rank and the file, even though the strong leader may have to subdue his natural desire for self-assertion and self-display."³⁴ The Harvard group's (Elton Mayo) Western Electric Research findings and the Michigan (Rensis Likert) Studies have proved "employees can be most effectively motivated by people-centred and democratic leadership aided by favourable institutional environment."³⁵ Studies by the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan have suggested the following conclusions :

33 Halsey : *op. cit.*, pp. 11-23.

34 Pfiffner : *The Supervision of Personnel*, p. 4.

35 Pfiffner : *Public Administration*, p. 160.

(a) There is a relationship between the closeness of supervision and the level of output by the workers, the latter being in inverse ratio to the former. In other words, workers tend to produce more under less exacting supervision, that is to say, the crack of the whip is not effective as it is made out to be.

(b) A supervisor treats his subordinates in the way in which he is treated by his superiors.

(c) Wherever the supervisors are "employee-centred" the output of the employees is more than where the supervisors are "production-centred".

(d) Supervisors of highly productive groups spend more time on and devote more attention to supervisory duties and less time and attention to direct production work than supervisors of groups with low output. In other words, a successful manager devotes more attention to "responsibility" job than to "work" job.

(e) Participative management tends to greater production. Supervisors, who encourage group participation in common tasks, and adopt a helpful rather than a primitive attitude towards the delinquent worker, belong to high production category.

(f) Successful supervisors usually train their personnel for job advancement even at the risk of losing their services.³⁶

Two problems arise in the matter of selecting supervisors. The first is the question of job experience versus supervisory skill. To what extent is it necessary for a supervisor to be an accomplished performer in the jobs of those whom he supervises? In other words, Should the principal of a college be the best teacher or the superintendent of a hospital a very successful medical practitioner? There can be no presumption that a great scholar would necessarily make a good administrator. Barnard would, in fact, say just the contrary. The point to note is that persons should not be chosen to become supervisors on the sole basis of proficiency as journey men. Brilliance in individual work is no guarantee of ability to supervise other people. The skills, which make an excellent worker, are often not the same skills useful to a good supervisor. The second problem is: Should supervisors be promoted from the ranks or recruited directly from outside? Here again there can be no final reply. But, since a good supervisor needs to possess certain qualities, it is better to promote persons known to possess them than recruit persons directly on the basis of qualifications, but whose qualities would always be a matter of guess.

Training Supervisors

The question is often asked : Is skill in human relations and supervisory leadership teachable ? It is said that supervisors are born, not made, and that it is better to select a good supervisor than to try to make him good. Whatever the truth in the above saying, the fact remains that "nine-tenths of genius is sweat." Qualities of a supervisor may be inherent, but they can be developed by training. In the words of Halsey, "It has been demonstrated time and time again that almost any person of normal intelligence and sincere desire to be of service to people, can acquire considerable skill in the art of supervising people, if he will study its principles and methods and apply them thoughtfully, conscientiously, and persistently. The personality of the successful supervisor of people is made up of a number of qualities, and the qualities are made effective through the use of certain definite techniques. I believe, too, that the qualities necessary to success in supervising people can be developed, and that the required techniques can be taught and skill in their use made permanent by practice. I believe that because I have seen it done by both old and new supervisors, and seen their departments improve as they became better supervisors."³⁷

Training programmes for middle and lower level officials have been expanded massively in the United States since the end of World War II. Among the newer training programmes "work simplification" is one of the larger and more popular. There are hundreds of business and government organisations which are now providing such training on a large scale. In the case of the U.S. Department of the Army, every new first line (bottom level) supervisor is required to take the 16 hour on-the-job training course within six months after he joins the supervisory staff. Nearly all of the thousands of supervisors have been so trained. In the financial year 1960, a total of 10,588 Department of the Army employees received the training. A similar massive on-the-job training is necessary in India as an aid to the accomplishment of Plan objectives.

CHAPTER FOURTEEN

PUBLIC RELATIONS AND PUBLICITY

Need for Public Relations

During recent years a plethora of government information and publicity agencies have come into existence, and their number is constantly on the increase. Good public relations has come to be regarded as an important attribute of the present-day leadership, and its significance can hardly be overstressed. Some of the important factors, that have contributed to this importance, may be stated as follows :

1. *Vast increase in government functions.* The modern Welfare State, with its philosophy of looking after the citizen from 'the cradle to the grave', is rendering innumerable services to the public. The very size and complexity of these services render communication with the public imperative. The public has to be made aware of the various facilities offered to it by the government. This mere informational aspect of public relations is assuming vast proportions.

2. *Urgent attention paid to public and private iniquity.* The government is under a constant pressure to defend itself against public criticism. The public is highly sensitive to wrongs and mistakes of public authorities, while turning a deaf ear to worse iniquities of private organisations. Thus, the Mundhra Deal would hardly have attracted any publicity if Life Insurance Corporation were a private business concern. Government work, thus, has not only to be well done, but the public has to be convinced that it is being well done. Government in a free society must function in the glare of publicity.

3. *The civil servant today occupies a changed role.* It is not enough for a career official to implement policies ; he has to explain government policies to the people and build up popular support for them. To use an American phrase, he has to 'sell' the policies and programmes of his agency. This gives 'political' orientation to his tasks.

Meaning and Nature

What is public ? The term 'public relations' stands for govern-

mental relations with the public. The term 'public', though frequently in use, is not easy to define. The general public is really not one but a collection of many 'publics'. The general public is a vague, unidentifiable and amorphous entity. We hardly feel its presence except at election times or times of civil commotion. However, the ordinary citizen, who is the unit of the public, is identifiable, and comes in daily and constant contact with the administration or some aspects of it. He needs information on many points ; he needs help in filling up the ever-growing number of forms ; he requires assistance in getting acquainted with procedures ; he expects expeditious disposal of his case ; and he rightly demands polite and courteous behaviour on the part of government officials. How to determine administration's relations with him, is the main crux of public relations. Generally, the governmental organisations have to deal with particular public, that is, organised groups of public like trade unions, chambers of commerce, students' unions, teachers' associations, political parties, religious or caste groups, press, women's councils, etc., etc. Each agency of the government, thus, has to direct its public relations to that part of the public with which it is directly concerned, that is, its clientele, for example, the agriculture department's clientele is the farmers, the labour department's labour, and so on. However, there are wider publics too with which administration has to deal, the most important of these being the legislature, the press and the political parties.

The legislature, under a democratic system of the parliamentary or presidential variety, constitutes an important segment of public. It is true that it is the ministers, as political executive, who come in direct contact with the legislature ; the contact of civil servants at best is indirect. Nevertheless, there are important points of contact between the legislature and public officials, particularly of the higher echelons. One such important point of contact is the committees of the legislature which summon officials to explain matters or answer objections. The estimates and the public accounts committees are good examples of such contact. In the U.S.A., committee hearings sometimes are a gruelling experience for the officials appearing at such hearings. Then there are requests, enquiries and complaints from individual members of the legislature, and officials concerned have to deal with these in as courteous and expeditious a manner as possible.

Administration's relations with the press in a free society may well be regarded as top priority in the field of public relations, and

these tax the ingenuity of the press officers. It is not for nothing that the press is called the fourth estate. Its power is tremendous. No government ever desires and cherishes a hostile and irresponsible press. The public, on the other hand, has no use for a kept press. A balance between the two extremes is needed. What we need is a fair, impartial, independent and responsible press. Every government, therefore, has arrangements to keep the press people fully informed and briefed. The pressmen have a press gallery in the legislative chambers ; there are press enclosures in public functions ; they are invited to all governmental functions ; they are also taken on public expense to sites of big dams, industrial establishments and agriculture farms, etc., etc. The newsmen certainly form a privileged group of the public. Of course, such facilities are necessary to enable the press to discharge its duties satisfactorily. The government also possesses enormous patronage in the form of government advertisements which are ever increasing with the rapid growth of public enterprises. Then there are the press conferences at which the top leaders meet the press. In the U.S.A., the President holds a press conference every week. In India the Prime Minister meets the press once a month. Finally, there is the Press Information Bureau. Information regarding the policy, plans, achievements and other activities of the Government of India is made available to the press in English and 12 Indian languages by this Bureau. During 1959, textual services were received by about 3,378 Indian newspapers and periodicals, photographic service by 953 and photographs in the form of ebonoid blocks by 746. Indian and foreign correspondents accredited to the Government of India at headquarters numbered 174 in 1959. The Bureau's Information Services in Hindi and Urdu are issued from the head office in New Delhi and those in other Indian languages from the nine regional offices. In addition, information centres have been opened at a number of State capitals.

One of the most difficult problems in democracy is the relations of the administrative officials with the leaders and office-bearers of the political parties, particularly, of the ruling party. There are frequent complaints in India of political interference in official work by the members of the political parties. "It is related of a certain Collector that a member of a local Legislature appeared before him and made a request. The Collector said he would let him have an answer after two days. Two days later, he explained to the M.L.A., very politely why his request could not be accepted, and how, if it was, various other people would be detrimentally affected. The M.L.A.,

with equal politeness, asked if he could use his telephone. Permission being given, he phoned up the Minister and said that he had made this request and had been given this answer, that he was naturally very disappointed and trusted the Minister would take necessary action. He then handed over the telephone to the Collector saying the Minister wished to speak to him. The Minister said he knew the facts of the case and desired that what the M.L.A. asked should be done. The Collector hesitated, suggested sending him the papers for consideration and attempted to argue. The Minister was adamant and ended the conversation by saying, 'Well, you know my views. You can do what I want or.....' The Collector in this case decided to do what the Minister wanted and passed orders accordingly. The story came out through the M.L.A., who used it to let his friends and constituents know how Collectors should be dealt with."¹ Such interferences have given rise to the 'slick officer' who attempts to ingratiate himself with the legislator by doing him favours and anticipating his wishes in order to use him, that is, his influence with the Ministry, or his own advancement."² This is, undoubtedly, a delicate and difficult aspect of public relations. Every democratic country has had to face it. We can confidently hope that as the politicians become more mature with responsibility and more understanding of their role with experience, healthy relationship would be established between them and the public officials.

What Public Relations is ? Public relations has existed in its present form for such a relatively short period³ that there is little general agreement on its precise definition or its proper scope, its practical responsibilities. Every expert has his own definitions, and no two definitions agree. A student of public opinion has collected more than fifty definitions from fifty experts in the field.⁴ The term

1 Gorwala, A. D. : *Report on Public Administration*. New Delhi, Planning Commission, 1951, pp. 24-25.

2 *Ibid.*, p. 25.

3 Modern public relations really was born during World War I and in the years immediately thereafter, and it came of age only during World War II.

4 Given below are some such definitions :

Public relations is the skilled communication of ideas to the various public with the objective of producing a desired result.

Public relations is finding out what people like about you and doing more of it : finding out what they don't like about you, and doing less of it.

Public relations is any situation, act or word that influences people.

[*Contd. on next page.*]

has been defined by the *Encyclopaedia American* as "the art of analysing, influencing and interpreting a person, idea, group or business so that he, or it, will be recognised as serving the public interest, and will benefit from so doing." It operates in many different and constantly changing ways to meet the need, of the client, the problem and the objective. According to Millett, public relations of management have four primary aspects : (1) learning about public desires and aspirations, (2) advising the public about what it should desire, (3) ensuring satisfactory contact between public and government officials, and (4) informing the public about what an agency is doing.⁵ It is in similar sense that the term has been used by Bernays. Public relations to him has three meanings : (1) information given to the public, (2) persuasion directed at the public to modify attitudes and action, (3) efforts to integrate attitudes and actions of an institution with its public and of its public with that institution.⁶

Public relations is the management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an individual or organisation with the public interest and executes acceptance.

Public relations is the recognition and cultivation within an organisation, of those virtues and values which become visible externally in the standing of a company with its workers and stockholders, its customers and prospects, the press and the public. It is neither a cover for shortcomings nor a substitute for good words. Public relations, in the corporate sense, begins with private relations ; it is corporate character believably expressed.

Public relations is the term applied to all activities and attitudes intended to judge, influence or control the opinion of any groups of persons in the interest of any individual, group or institution.

Public relations is the name that applies to the policies and acts of an organisation as they touch the public and either build or destroy goodwill and good understanding that are so vital to the life of a business in that competitive age. Public relations is really a carefully compiled analysis of cause and effect used as a guide to conduct. In one sense, it is the administrative or operating philosophy of an organisation.

Public relations is the art of making your company liked and respected by its employees, its customers, the people who buy from it and the people it sells to.

5 Millett : *op. cit.*, p. 123.

6 Bernays, E. L. : *Public Relations*, Norman, University of Oklahoma Press, 1952, p. 1.

What Public Relations is not ? To make the understanding of the term complete we should also know what public relations is not. Public relations usually are distinguished from general informational activities of the government, internal communications and publicity. One of the important functions of government is to collect a great deal of general information and publish it for the use of the general public. Many departments of the government are engaged in such an activity. Instances of such general information are census reports, weather forecasts, crops reports, food statistics, labour statistics, industrial and commercial statistics, employment figures, etc., etc. Such information is not a part of public relations ; it is just the function of certain units of government. Secondly, public relations ought to be distinguished from internal communication within an agency. Internal communication aims at creating an understanding of the objectives, policies and decisions of the agency among its employees. The better such a system of communication, the healthier shall be the working of the agency. Hierarchy, procedure through proper channel, conferences, meetings, informal gatherings and conversations at lunches and teas are some of the media of such communication. All this, however, is quite different from public relations. Finally, a confusion often arises between public relations and publicity because the two are closely related. As one writer has put it, "public relations deal with the individuals, publicity with the people in mass." Publicity is the often misunderstood and misused function or phase of public relations, primarily due to its being confused with propaganda. It operates mainly by getting its client (in this case the government) well presented in the channels of communications available—newspapers, magazines, radio, television, and others. It can work best only when it is viewed in its proper perspective—as a tool of, but as no substitute for, a public relations programme. Publicity works right as a tool only when it comes after all the other steps have been taken or adequately considered, for example, research, analysis, recommendation, and so forth.

Tools and Techniques

There can possibly be no exhaustive list of tools, instrumentalities and techniques of maintaining good public relations. Time, place and persons always make a difference. There are times when gimmicks work wonders, and there are persons who, with their original approach and imaginative devices, win spectacular success in

the field of public relations. Such things, however, are bound to be infrequent. Among the normal tools may be listed publicity, advertising, personal contact, public speech and direct mail.

Publicity. It is the most important aspect of public relation, and has become a must for every large organisation, including the government. There is hardly a government today without a Department of Information or Publicity. Both democratic and totalitarian regimes make full use of this powerful weapon of influencing and moulding public opinion. Publicity means to make public or to disseminate knowledge of facts. It has been defined as "the art of dealing with the people in the mass." In practice, however, publicity shades off into propaganda. The two terms can certainly be distinguished but the difference is rather too thin. Perhaps the best example of publicity degenerating into propaganda was Hitler's Ministry of Enlightenment under the notorious Dr. Goebbels. Publicity is open, free and factual, while propaganda may be sinister, secretive and based on falsehood. The Nazi belief in the 'big lie' was almost pathological. Constant and high pressure propaganda may well enslave and pervert the public mind. It is for this reason that governmental publicity is often looked upon with disfavour and suspicion.

The principal media of modern publicity are of three types—visual (advertisements, publications, silent movies, demonstrations), auditory (radio broadcasts and lectures), and audio-visual (films and telecasts). All these methods are made full use of by modern governments in their publicity drives. Of these radio and television are obviously the most powerful media. Television played a very important role in the last presidential elections in the U.S.A. Discussions and debates between the two presidential candidates seen on the television screens by millions of Americans went a long way in determining the popular choice. In India, with the television age yet to come and radio being still beyond the reach of the majority of the people, public speaking still plays an important role as evidenced by the people gathering in thousands to listen to their leaders. Public speeches are not only well attended but are also well reported in the press.

The publicity work of the Government of India has been entrusted to the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. The Ministry was created in October, 1941, and is charged with the responsibility for publicity and broadcasting activities of the Government of India and the general conduct of government relations with

the press. The various activities of the Ministry and the important services rendered by it can be briefly described under the following heads :

- (1) All India Radio,
- (2) Press Information Bureau,
- (3) Publications Division,
- (4) Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity,
- (5) Films Division,
- (6) Research and Reference Division, and
- (7) Directorate of Field Publicity.

(1) *All India Radio*. It comprises the entire broadcasting system of the country, and also includes the experimental television service. At the end of 1960, there were 28 full-fledged radio stations, as against only 6 in 1947, with studios, transmitters, receiving centres and other facilities in addition to four auxiliary studio centres and a television studio centre covering all the important linguistic areas. There were 59 medium and short-wave transmitters in regular operation, a television transmitter, and frequency modulating links between transmitters and studios at three locations. The stations are grouped into four regions—North, West, South and East. In addition, Radio Kashmir has two stations. During the fiscal year 1960-61, a plan has been finalised for the installation of 55 medium-wave relay transmitters, 2 short-wave transmitters and 37 receiving centres for extension of broadcast coverage of the country. There has been a simultaneous growth in the number of radio set owners since the inauguration of broadcasting in 1927. Thus, as against 3,954 sets in 1927, there were, in 1958, 12,19,812 domestic receiver sets. In addition, there were 1,09,625 community receiver sets.

The Second Five Year Plan provided for the project of an experimental television unit at Delhi for assessing the value of this medium for mass communication. AIR's Experimental Television Service was inaugurated on September 15, 1959. The service covers the urban and rural areas of Delhi within a radius of 12 to 15 miles, and is being operated twice a week (Tuesdays and Fridays) for a duration of one hour each day. The programmes are designed for community viewing and are primarily of educational and cultural value.

(2) *Press Information Bureau*. The Press Information Bureau serves the Indian press and correspondents of the foreign press stationed in India with news material and photographs concerning the activities of the Government of India. The Bureau acts as a link between the Government and the public through the Press—informing the public

about Government activities and policies and keeping the Government in touch with the main trends of public opinion as reflected in the Press. The Bureau's services are made available in 13 languages, including English and Hindi. To serve newspapers in all parts of the country, the Bureau has a network of regional offices which are connected with headquarters by teleprinter circuits.

In addition to daily news releases, the Bureau provides feature articles, background material, and reference and record material in the form of texts of communiqués, policy statements, printed reports, etc. Bureau officers in charge of publicity for the activities of the various Ministries discuss subjects of current interest with correspondents, answer their queries, and arrange interviews for them with authoritative policy sources. The Bureau also arranges Press Conferences for Ministers and high officials to explain to the Press the scope and purpose of important Government decisions or policy statements. During 1960-61, 156 such Press Conferences were held. Press liaison services are also provided by the Bureau for official meetings and functions and international conferences held in India.

Bureau officers also co-ordinate publicity through other media in the case of certain Ministries. The Bureau is also responsible for arranging the accreditation of newspaper correspondents and cameramen at Delhi.

The Bureau is also responsible for publicity for and to the Armed forces. This is handled by the Defence Wing of the Bureau. In addition to the normal press services, the Wing produces pamphlets, organises advertisement and poster campaigns and produces feature shorts. Thus, it helped in the production of a documentary film on the Rashtriya Military College.

The Bureau has at present 16 regional or branch offices. Two more branch offices are shortly to be set up at Ahmedabad and Bhopal. These offices distribute Press material received from Delhi to newspapers in their area in the regional languages. They also ensure better co-ordination with State Publicity Departments. In addition to these, there are 15 Information Centres and proposals to set up two more Centres at Delhi and Bangalore are under consideration. Most of these Centres are run by the State Governments concerned in collaboration with the Government of India on the basis of 50—50 cost sharing. Each Centre has a reference library and reading-room, containing important newspapers in various languages, literature and charts on the Five Year Plans and publications

of the Central and State Governments. Documentary film shows are also held occasionally.

(3) *Publications Division*. The Publications Division in the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting is responsible for the compilation, production, distribution and sale of popular pamphlets, books, journals, albums, etc., for providing authentic information about the country's cultural heritage, the activities of the Government, the progress of development programmes and places of tourist interest. It also advises the various Ministries and Departments of the Government on the preparation and production of publicity literature relating to their specific activities. Publications are brought out in English, Hindi and regional languages. A similar role is performed in the States by the Departments of Information and Publicity.

The Division publishes 18 magazines, including general and cultural magazines, such as, *March of India* and *AjKal* (in Hindi and Urdu), a children's magazine, *Bal Bharati* (in Hindi), journals devoted to community development (*Kurukshetra* and *Gram Sevak* in English and Hindi), and the 'Plan' (*Tojana* in English and Hindi), besides the programme journals of All India Radio. Four journals, namely, *Indian Information*, *Bharatiya Samachar*, *Metric Measures* and *Metric Map Tol*, were started during 1958. Story books for children in Hindi and regional languages are also being brought out.

Durng 1959-60, the division released a total of 239 books, pamphlets, etc., for general, tourist and Five Year Plan publicity in the various languages. Some of the important publications were : *Women of India*, *Nuclear Explosions and Their Effects* (Revised), *Maulana Azad—A Homage*, *Indian Birds* (Hindi), *Jawaharlal Nehru's Speeches*, Volume III, *Speeches of President Rajendra Prasad, 1952-56* (Second Series), *Community Development in India*, and *India* (A Souvenir).

The Photo Unit of the Division helps in setting up exhibitions on the activities of the various Ministries. During 1958, the Unit assisted in the display of photographic enlargements in various pavilions of the 'India 1958' Exhibition.

(4) *Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity*. While in the States advertising and visual publicity is undertaken by the Departments of Information and Publicity, at the Centre this responsibility rests with the Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity. The Directorate functions as the central organisation of the Government of India for the execution of its advertising and visual publicity requirements. It is responsible for the planning, production and

release of display advertisements to newspapers and periodicals, the designing and production of printed publicity materials and the issue of classified advertisements on behalf of the various Ministries and Departments. For visual and outdoor publicity the Directorate utilises various media like posters, folders, broadsheets, pamphlets, handbills, calendars, hoardings, display panels, cinema slides, neon signs, models and charts, and also organises exhibitions.

During 1960, the tempo of publicity through this Directorate reached the highest level so far and appropriately marked the final phase of the Second Five Year Plan. There was intensification of publicity both for the Plan and for other important campaigns. With two additional field exhibition units and three mobile exhibition vans fully in operation during the year, exhibitions were carried to a larger number of people, especially in non-urban areas.

To prepare the public and secure their co-operation for the 1961 Census, an extensive campaign was launched, utilising the media of Press and visual publicity material. Wide publicity was also given to the Government of India Prize Bond Scheme. The educative campaign for Posts and Telegraphs was also intensified.

To facilitate speedier distribution of publicity material produced by the Directorate and to economise on transport, it was decided to arrange for regional distribution from Bombay, Calcutta and Madras (along with similar arrangements for the distribution of publications). Distribution from Madras has already started ; similar arrangements are being made at the other two centres.

(5) *Films Division.* The Films Division is responsible for the production and distribution of Government of India news-reels and documentary films for the general information and education of the public. The subjects for documentaries are selected at the beginning of each financial year in consultation with the Ministries of the Government of India, State Governments, the Film Federation of India, the Film Advisory Board and other organisations especially interested in documentary films. While the Films Division undertakes the bulk of this production programme through its own units, a number of films are assigned each year to approved private producers ; these films are produced under the guidance and supervision of the Films Division. A list of approved producers, for this purpose, is prepared every year on the recommendation of a committee consisting of officials of the Government and representatives of the industry.

For production of weekly news-reels, the Films Division arranges coverage of important and topical news items depicting the life

and progress of the country and its international relations through its staff camera-men stationed at important centres in the country. Besides, items covered by State Film Units, as also foreign news items received under exchange arrangements, are included in the news-reels.

The documentaries and news-reels are distributed all over India for commercial and non-commercial exhibition through the distribution offices of the Division. In addition, wide publicity abroad is secured for important events in India through films screened in cinemas and on television under exchange or other arrangements in foreign countries.

(6) *Research and Reference Division.* This Division functions as the central pool of current and background information for the media units of the Ministry. Its functions are : (a) to undertake basic research on matters of publicity ; (b) to provide guidance and background notes on current and other topics ; and (c) to build up a compendium of knowledge on important subjects, and to prepare publicity material for the use of various media units of the Ministry. In addition, the Division undertakes investigations on various topics referred to it from time to time by the Information Ministry or other Ministries.

Since 1953, the Division has been compiling annually a standard authoritative work of reference on India under the title "India—A Reference Annual", which provides information on the diverse aspects of national life and activities. Since 1955, the Division has been issuing the bi-weekly service, "Background to the News", with the object of providing the background to select news items of current and continuous interest. The Division has also maintained a library which at the end of 1960 had 17,500 books and bound volumes of reports, periodicals, etc. A number of standard journals, periodicals and magazines were also available in the library. Lastly, the Division undertakes surveys and investigations. Thus, it conducted survey, through a mail questionnaire to assess public reactions to programmes of publicity for the plan undertaken by the various media of the Ministry. A proposal for entrusting the Division with the work of continuing evaluation of programmes in respect of all media under the Ministry during the Third Plan is under consideration.

(7) *Directorate of Field Publicity.* For purposes of Plan publicity, the country has been divided into 14 regions with 76 mobile (field) units spread over the country. Each unit has to look after a number

of districts. As detailed coverage of such a large area is not possible, the activities of the field units are concentrated primarily in large fairs, festivals, and on special occasions and central places at which large number of people collect. In addition, in the rural areas, regular publicity activities are organised in collaboration with the district and the block authorities. Publicity is carried on through all media, *viz.*, film shows, camps, exhibitions, talks, discussions, debates etc. Full co-operation is extended to the State Governments in their Plan publicity efforts. Besides providing general information on the Plan, attention is also given to special aspects of the Plan, *e.g.*, Small Savings, Family Planning, Metric System of Weights and Measures, Panchayats and Co-operatives.

Personal Contact. Public relations, in the ultimate analysis, are nothing but personal contacts between public officials and individual members of the public. The average citizen judges the quality of administration by his contact with the petty officials. Hence the emphasis on smart looking receptionists, a broad smile on the face, habitual use of phrases like 'thank you' and 'may I help you,' etc. Courtesy weeks, so often celebrated in our country, aim at similar results. One of the great demands on public officials in free India is meeting the constant stream of visitors every day in the week. Political executives have to carry even a heavier burden on this score.

Direct Mail. In a democracy the political executives in particular receive a heavy mail. Our Prime Minister, for instance, receives thousands of letters every month from persons and organisations of different types, and each such person expects at least an acknowledgement. It is a stupendous task but any minister can afford to neglect it or be indifferent to it only at his peril. Prompt and courteous replies to letters go a long way in establishing good public relations. "I remember Paul Hoffman telling once in a staff meeting," writes Cleveland, "that we should answer every letter the day it comes in, even all we could say was that we would reply in detail later on. 'When I ran a filling station (petrol pump),' he went on, 'I found that a man would not wait for gas (petrol) more than two or three minutes if nobody paid any attention to him. But if you gave him a big hello and explained that there were several cars ahead of him he would sit there quite happily for quarter of an hour.'"

Cleveland, H. : *The Political Executive*—a paper delivered at the Princeton University on 2nd March, 1956.

Who should be in charge of Public Relations Work ?

Public relations is fast approaching the status of a profession. There are universities in the United States which award degrees and diplomas in public relations. Almost every big organisation, governmental or business or otherwise, now maintains a separate public relations department staffed largely by the experts or professionals in the field. In our own country, every State Government has an Information or Publicity Department with a separate service of that name. The same is true of the Union Government. In brief, there are 'public relations men' all around us in this age of high pressure democracy. But are the relations of the public susceptible to treatment at the hands of these professionals? All too often people regard public relations men with the same jaundiced eye which they flash at the mention of terms like popagandist, press agent or lobbyist. Nothing can be more damaging to public relations than its being identified with propaganda. Therefore, it is in the interest of the organisation that public relations must start at the top. In fact, public relations can be only as good as the continuing conduct of the chief person presiding over it. One reason businessmen got into trouble in Government is that many of them are accustomed to delegating to others the task of dealing with the public. In January, 1953, toward the end of two long days of a Senatorial hearing on his General Motors stock holding Charles E. Wilson revealed how much he had learned about public relations at the age of 62. "The thing that perhaps I overlooked myself," he mused, "was that not only did I have to operate honestly and fairly without prejudice, but all the people should also think that that was the way I was operating, and that part of it I did not quite appraise." Where had he been? Presumably producing cars and trucks while somebody else worried about what the public would think. The contrasting case is of course that of Paul Hoffman. By handling his own public relations from the start, he sold the Marshall Plan and himself in the same package: "To millions of people in the easy days of that singular project, he was the Marshall Plan."⁸

Throughout history certain leaders seem to have been their own best public relations men. In recent years, President Franklin D. Roosevelt perhaps capitalised upon this trait more adroitly than many other leaders of men. He had the remarkable ability of sensing

the public wants, needs, fears, likes or dislikes, and of acting accordingly. Similarly, during the War years Prime Minister Winston Churchill seemed to have the same ability and power over his people. He epitomised the average Britisher's will and determination to fight and defeat the Nazi aggression and tyranny. Our Prime Minister Nehru belonged to the same distinguished company. He was the most effective public relations man on behalf of the Government and the greatest vote-getter for the Congress party. The Prime Minister was not indulging in exaggeration when he said that he was himself a great tourist attraction in India.