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SYLLABUS

PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

MH-425

Chapter-1 Personnel Administration

Unit – 1 Personal Administration: Meaning, nature, scope, function and Significance.

Unit – 2 Ecology of Public Personnel Administration.

Unit – 3 Human Resources Management.

Unit – 4 Classification and Structure of Civil Services.

Chapter-2 Recruitment

Unit – 1 Recruitment, meaning, principles of recruitment, methods of recruitment, UPSC and state public services commission.

Unit – 2 Training, Meaning, Objectives of Training, types, techniques.

Unit – 3 Promotion, Pay and Service conditions.

Unit – 4 Performance Appraisals.

Chapter-3 Conduct & Discipline

Unit – 1 Social Composition of civil services and issue or Representation with reference of India.

Unit – 2 Time management

Unit – 3 Discipline, Employer-Employer relations. Joint Consultative Machinery (Whitely Council).

Unit – 4 Professional standards, Administration Ethics.

Chapter-4 Public Personnel Administration: Issues

Unit – 1 Integrity in Administration, Neutrality, Anonymity, Commitment and Responsiveness.

Unit – 2 Generalist and Specialist Controversy, Politicians and Civil Servant relationship.

Unit – 3 Rights of Civil Servant, Morale, Civil Service Tribunals.

Unit – 4 Administrative Reforms.

CHAPTER – 1

*Public Personnel
Administration :
An Introduction*

PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION: AN INTRODUCTION

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STRUCTURE

- 1.1 Learning Objectives
- 1.2 Introduction
- 1.3 Concept of Personnel Administration
- 1.4 Nature of Personnel Administration
- 1.5 Personnel Administration: Evolution and Development
- 1.6 Scope of Personnel Administration
- 1.7 Importance of Personnel Administration
- 1.8 Characteristics of Public Personnel Administration in India
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- 1.15 Classification and Structure of Civil Services
- 1.16 Classification of Services in India during the Pre-Independence Period
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- 1.18 Critical Appraisal of the Existing Classification System
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- 1.20 Recommendations of the III and IV Central Pay Commissions
- 1.21 Summary
- 1.22 Review Questions
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1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- state the meaning, nature, scope and importance of public personnel administration;
- explain ecology of public personnel administration;
- discuss the concept and elements of human resource management;
- state the classification and structure of civil services.

1.2 INTRODUCTION

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Public personnel administration is a branch of human resource management that is concerned with the acquisition, development, utilization and compensation of a public organization's workforce. The term "public personnel administration" includes three key words. First, "public" refers to regional and local governmental agencies as well as non-profit ones. "Personnel" refers to human resources who work in the public sector and provide public services to society. Third, "administration" refers to the management of human resources in public organizations in an effective and efficient way that helps the organization reach its goals and objectives.

There are four main functions of public personnel administration. The first, planning, includes preparing staffing plans and budgets, deciding how employees will be used, and setting pay rates. Acquisition is the second, and refers to selecting and recruiting employees. The third is development, which involves employee training and advancement programs, as well as performance evaluations. Sanctions, the fourth function, deal with employer-employee relationships, and may include workplace safety and handling grievances.

Some of the most important tasks performed by public personnel administrators include managing employee grievances and employee retention. Public organizations, more so than private ones, have formal grievance procedures that ensure due process and guarantee employee rights. Due process is giving an employee the opportunity to explain and defend his or her actions. Employee retention programs focus on the importance of keeping good employees as opposed to finding new ones. It includes programs such as training, development, and tuition assistance to help build loyalty and reduce turnover.

Public personnel administrators often carry their work within the context of four core, often contradictory, societal values. These include responsiveness, or political loyalty; the rights of the individual; efficiency, or the ability to perform the job; and social equity, or leveling the playing field. Responsiveness relates to the importance of considering political loyalty in addition to education and experience when making employee staffing decisions. In fact, the main difference between public and private personnel administration is the political context and the intervention of politicians and their supporters in decisions affecting public employees.

Efficiency, on the other hand, is the practice of basing appointments on ability and performance, rather than politics. The individual rights of employees are often preserved by national and regional laws, such as the Constitution in the United States; merit systems; and collective bargaining systems, if applicable.

Social equity guarantees that groups that can not compete fairly are given preferences in job selection and promotion decisions.

Public personnel administration consists of three general systems. The first, civil service, helps to protect employee rights and safeguard efficiency. Collective bargaining includes negotiated agreements that determine the conditions of employment and related benefits. Affirmative action guarantees equal employment opportunities for those individuals that belong to protected classes.

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1.3 CONCEPT OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

The tasks of government are increasing everyday. Development and welfare orientations have led to the expansion of government and its administrative machinery. As the tasks, responsibilities and activities of organisations whether public or private multiply, the demands on personnel, at every level, in terms of efficient discharge of their duties also rise. Thus, the task of personnel administration is to assure a steady source of people who can contribute to the success of an organisation and meet the growing demands of development. To understand the concept of personnel administration, it is very essential to first understand the meaning and nature of the term.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION: MEANING

Personnel administration is that part of administration which is concerned with people at work and with their relationships within an organisation. It refers to the entire spectrum of an organisation's interaction with its human resources from recruitment activity to retirement process. It involves personnel planning and forecasting, appraising human performance, selection and staffing, training and development and maintenance and improvement of performance and productivity. Personnel administration is closely related to an organisation's overall effectiveness.

There is no standard definition of the term 'personnel administration'. Still there is a widespread unanimity among writers on its meaning, scope and purpose. According to Flippo, "personnel function is concerned with the procurement, development, compensation, integration and maintenance of the personnel of an organisation for the purpose of contributing toward the accomplishment of that organisation's major goals and objectives". Dale Yoder uses the term "manpower management" instead of "personnel management" and includes both labour relations and personnel administration within its ambit. According to him, "the term effectively describes the processes of planning and directing the application, development and utilisation of human resources in employment. Employers, employees, unions and public agencies all have important roles to play in these processes".

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According to Thomas G. Spates, "personnel administration is a code of the ways of organising and treating individuals at work so that they will each get the greatest possible realisation of their intrinsic abilities, thus attaining maximum efficiency for themselves and their group and thereby giving to the enterprise of which they are a part, its determining competitive advantage and optimum results."

Michael Jucius defines personnel administration as "the field of management which has to do with planning, organising, and controlling various operative functions of procuring, developing, maintaining and utilising a labour force such that the :

- (a) "objectives for which the company is established are attained economically and effectively";
- (b) "objectives of all levels of personnel are served to the highest possible degree";
- (c) "objectives of the community are duly considered and served."

The Institute of Personnel Management in U.K. defines personnel management as "that part of the management function which is primarily concerned with the human relationships within the organisation. Its objective is the maintenance of those relationships on a basis which, by consideration of the well-being of the individual, enables all those engaged in the undertaking to make their maximum personnel contribution to the effective working of that undertaking." The Indian Institute of Personnel Management has also adopted this definition.

The above-mentioned definition was replaced in-1966 by a more elaborate definition. It reads, "Personnel management is that part of the management function which is concerned with people at work and with their relationships within an enterprise. Its aim is to bring together and develop into an effective organisation the men and women who make up an enterprise and, having regard to the well-being of an individual and of working groups, to enable to make their best contribution to its success.

In particular, personnel management is concerned with the development of policies governing:

- Manpower planning, recruitment, selection, placement and termination;
- Education and training, career development;
- Terms of employment, methods and standards of remuneration;
- Working conditions and employees' services;
- Formal and informal communication and consultation both through the representatives of employers and employees and at all levels throughout the organisation;

- Negotiation and application of agreements on wages and working conditions, procedures for the avoidance and settlement of disputes.

Personnel management is also, concerned with the “human and social implications of change in internal organisation and methods of working and of economic and social changes in the community”.

Thus, we can say that personnel administration deals with the recruitment, placement, training, disciplinary measures, monetary and non-monetary incentives and retirement benefits of the human beings or the personnel within an organisation. It also deals with the nature of human relationships in an organisation, interaction between the human beings within an organisation and interaction of human beings with the organisation. Personnel administration includes all activities and functions relating to policy formulation, planning, policy implementation, social change and modernisation, administrative reforms and public relations in an organisation. It aims at optimum utilisation of human resources in order to achieve maximum results with minimum wastage of funds and technology.

Personnel administration is variously known as ‘personnel management’, ‘labour relations’, ‘manpower management’, ‘labour welfare management’, etc. But the term ‘personnel administration’ connotes a wider meaning, it includes both personnel management and industrial relations. Many a times the terms labour relations and industrial relations are used interchangeably with personnel administration but it is always better to distinguish between them. The term ‘labour relations’ refers primarily to the relation between management and organised labour. It includes negotiations of contracts with unions. It deals with handling of differences with unions and business agents. Some organisations have a labour relations officer or director whose primary task is to advise and assist top management in their dealing with union representatives. This official may or may not report to personnel administrator. In an unionised organisation, where there is no labour relations officer or director, the personnel administrator performs the task of labour relations officer.

Thus, personnel administration aims at:

- Effective utilisation of human resources,
- Desirable working relations among all members of the organisation,
- Maximum development,
- Meeting the organisation’s social and legal responsibilities.

According to Michael J. Jucius, personnel management should aim at:

- (a) attaining economically and effectively the organisational goals;
- (b) serving to the highest possible degree the individual goals; and
- (c) preserving and advancing the general welfare of the community.

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To obtain these objectives, personnel administration is concerned with planning, organising, directing, coordinating and controlling the cooperative efforts of individuals within an organisation.

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1.4 NATURE OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Personnel function is crucial in any administrative organisation. The organisation cannot afford to ignore it. Hence, it becomes a basic responsibility of the management, be in the government or in semi or non-government organisations. The changes in the socio-economic environment has its effect on management. The management environment keeps changing due to the changes that occur in the total socio-economic environment. The political environment also affects the work environment in an organisation. Such changes get reflected in personnel administration. These changes can be:

- (i) changing mix of the personnel entering government service organisation,
- (ii) changing values of personnel,
- (iii) increasing expectations of the government from their employees, and
- (iv) increasing expectations of the people from the government at different levels.

Thus, management is affected by the changes in the social, economic and political scenario. In fact, it has to keep up with these changes. A higher number from schedule castes, tribes and other economically backward classes are joining the government service. A greater number of people with higher education, more women, more technically skilled workers are also joining the government service. This has really changed the ratios of working force. With the proliferation of activities under 'development' and 'welfare' programmes, the employees are now expected to be more competent and efficient. People at large expect the administration to be efficient, effective and sympathetic. People's involvement in administrative activities is increasing. Due to the constant demands on administration, the role of personnel administration is also changing.

Personnel are required to perform 'line' and 'staff' functions. Activities directly related to the primary objective of an organisation are called as 'line' functions. The 'staff' functions are those which facilitate and assist the performance of line work. They are in the nature of secondary activities and enhance the effectiveness of the line agencies. For example, assistance in processing and supplying the required number of personnel and training and development of personnel are essentially staff functions. An organisation cannot function without the assistance of line and staff personnel. At the same time, personnel function cannot be isolated from the rest of the administrative functions. Personnel functions include both line and staff activities in an organisation.

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Personnel administration does not always function in a formal organisation. No organisation can solely run on the basis of formal rules and regulations, it comprises human beings who are structured in an authority and responsibility network in order to carry out the tasks and activities for the fulfilment of organisational objectives. This formal structure is supplemented, supported or sometimes obstructed and on occasions taken over by the informal organisation. Informal organisation grows within the formal organisation. It is a natural phenomenon and is based on social and cultural relations among the personnel of formal groups. Political, economic and psychological factors also contribute to the growth of informal organisation.

The functions of personnel administration are becoming more complicated day by day. The problems of personnel administration differ from one organisation to the other. Big organisations have more tasks to perform, they employ more people and serve varied objectives. The task of personnel administration in such organisations becomes more intricate. As personnel administration deals with human beings all the time, the crucial functions of motivation and morale of employees have to be performed by it. It has to meet the growing needs of the people as well as satisfy the increasing expectations of its employees.

1.5 PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION:EVOLUTION AND DEVELOPMENT

While the evolution and development of personnel administration in U.K. and U.S.A. was largely voluntary, in India, the growth of personnel administration can be attributed to the efforts made by the government. While in the West, the pioneering work in the field of personnel management was motivated by the managerial preoccupation with the concept of welfare, in India, unsystematic recruitment practices, growing labour unrest, loss of production etc., initiated some interest in personnel management.

In U.K., personnel administration had its origin in the concept of welfare as propounded and practised by some of the enlightened entrepreneurs, who sought the establishment of modern personnel administration. The term personnel management actually originated in the U.S.A.

It was F.W. Taylor's scientific management which laid the foundation for the development of personnel administration. Taylor laid emphasis on scientific selection and systematic training and development of the individual worker. H.L. Gantt, a close associate of Taylor, in scientific management movements, foresaw the need for obtaining the willing cooperation of the worker. He maintained that it was not enough to tell the worker how to do a job, but it was also necessary to promote the ability and willingness to do a job. Mary Parker Follet also laid stress on training and development aspects of management. The pioneers of scientific

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management, apart from increasing efficiency, aimed at fighting fatigue and monotony among the workers.

Most important breakthrough for personnel administration was Elton Mayo's Hawthorne experiments and the human relations movement. These experiments paved the way for using the disciplines of sociology, psychology, industrial psychology, social psychology etc., with a view to understanding employees and organisational behaviour and influencing them through a motivational approach. All this led to the gradual evolution and development of a theory and practice of personnel management.

There were also other events and influences which led to the growth of personnel management. Various revolutionary concepts like mass production, mass distribution and mass financing were evolved by industrial and business empires. The labour shortages during the world wars and various labour problems posed a challenge to management. With the Great Depression in 1929, big business suffered a severe setback. The State, the public and the trade unions, aimed at efficient professional management. Their demands were, elimination of waste and maximum utilisation of resources, particularly human resources.

All these developments in America emphasised the fact that management of people or personnel management is just as important as the management of production. Thus, the entrepreneurial interest, apart from other events in the sphere of worker welfare provided the source of inspiration for the evolution of modern dynamic personnel administration.

The history of the evolution and growth of personnel management in our country is not very old. It was the Royal Commission on Labour which recommended in 1931 the appointments of Labour Officers to deal with the recruitment of labour to settle their grievances. The industrial disputes of 1920s forced the government and businessmen to think in terms of labour problems and promotion of personnel management. The recognition of trade unions in India gave a new perspective to the employer and employee relationship. Entrepreneurs like the Tatas, Calico Mills, British India Corporation etc. had appointed Welfare Officers as early as 1920. These Labour Welfare Officers performed the functions of redressal of employee grievances and promotion of industrial harmony.

In 1937 in Bengal, on the suggestion of the Government, the Indian Jute Mills Owners' Association appointed a Labour Officer to bring about a settlement of employee grievances with the mills and by 1939 five more Labour Officers were appointed. Other Employers' Associations like Indian Engineering Association, Indian Tea Association, the Engineering Association of India etc., also followed the example of Indian Jute Owners' Association in appointing labour officers. In 1941, the Government of India initiated the Tripartite Labour

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Conference with the representatives of Government, labour and employees in order to promote uniform labour legislation, determine a procedure to settle industrial disputes, and promote consultations on industrial matters affecting the country. Now they have become permanent and regular features of labour policy. In 1948, the Factories Act Rules laid down the appointment, duties and qualifications of a new statutory officer in industry called the Welfare Officer. The following years saw the emergence of yet another officer called the Personnel Officer. The Personnel Officer deals with labour welfare, industrial relations and personnel administration. Many companies in India now have specialised personnel departments and a full-time Personnel Officer in charge.

Now the number of personnel is increasing at a very fast rate, expenditure on personnel is also correspondingly increasing. There has also been a trend in regard to the diversification in the personnel as more and more specialists, experts and technicians are being appointed in government departments, public and private organisations. Contemporary personnel does not just deal with welfare of employees but also aim at achieving profits for the organisation. The motive is to earn profits as well as benefits for the organisation and its employees.

1.6 SCOPE OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Personnel administration incorporates all aspects of management of persons in organisation. The primary objective of personnel administration is to ensure effective utilisation of human resources in pursuit of organisational goals. The personnel administration departments should design and establish an effective working relationship among all the members of an organisation by division of organisational tasks into jobs, defining clearly the responsibility and authority for each job and its relation with other jobs in the organisation. Personnel administration must try to enthuse among the employees feelings of commitment, involvement and loyalty to the organisation. The aim is to establish cordial relations among the employees and do away with frictional situations arising out of personal jealousies, rivalries and prejudices. Personnel administration also has to curb unfavourable practices like favouritism and nepotism in an organisation.

Personnel administration has to concentrate on various aspects of management like recruitment, training, promotion, conditions of service, employees welfare, employer-employee relations and processes of morale and motivation. It has to develop links with immediate, intermediate and external environment to make itself effective and efficient.

As the tasks of organisation increase, the responsibilities of personnel administration also increase accordingly. It is not possible to solve the problems with a one-time and one-stroke decision. Larger the system more are the complexities. Take for example, the Government of India, it is divided into

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ministries, departments, divisions, units etc. It is spread over the entire length and breadth of the country. Lakhs of people work in it, they operate at different hierarchical levels and carry out a large variety of functions. A number of services and their division into groups constitute the entire workforce of the Central government. Almost similar is the situation in each state. Personnel administration has to cater to all these aspects. It requires continuous managerial input.

Planning and providing for the regular supply of the needed manpower for different positions and in different numbers is an important task of the government. The process of recruitment and utilisation of each micro-unit of human resource calls for effective personnel administration, similarly, creating and maintaining desirable working relationships also call for a series of continuous efforts on the part of the personnel. Those responsible for personnel administration have to work for it constantly.

The achievement of these two objectives becomes easier if the organisation provides appropriate opportunities for individual development. These opportunities can be in the form of training, internal and external mobility, promotion, recognition and reward. They act as strong motivators and satisfiers. Besides, salary structuring of lakhs of employees is a wholesome task because each category has to be adequately and equitably compensated for the contribution it is expected to make towards organisation's objectives. This is also a work of personnel administration. The working force also has to be subjected to certain discipline in order to regulate proper performance of duty. Framing of conduct rules, laying down procedures of disciplinary action, enforcement of those rules and adoption of appropriate procedures are also a part of personnel administration.

Employer-employee relations, provision for Joint Consultative Machinery, establishment of public service tribunals for adjudication, adoption of welfare measures and payment of retirement benefits etc. to the employees are the added responsibilities of personnel administration. Trade unionism among government employees has increased during the past few decades. Both employer and employee unions have come up. There is now a dire need for expert skills to foresee personnel needs and problems and to plan for their satisfaction and rectification. All this requires systematic personnel administration. Thus, the scope of personnel administration is wide and varied, moreover it is continuously expanding with the changes in environment.

1.7 IMPORTANCE OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

The importance of personnel administration has also increased because, of late, there has been such a sudden rise in the number and powers of the public services in all civilised countries of the world that the lovers of democratic traditions have begun to look upon them as a new menace to individual's liberty.

Civil Service : The term, 'Public Service' is rather of recent origin and has a limited application. Its predecessor, civil service, has still the largest application and is well understood. Civil service, refers to purely non-technical services. The term 'Civil Service' was coined on the analogy of military and police services. But while the military and police services are concerned with the safeguarding of the country from external and internal dangers, civil service is concerned only with the civil affairs of the state. Hence, the term 'Civil Service' has come to signify non-combatant branches of the administrative service of the state.

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According to E.N. Gladden, "A civil servant may be defined as a servant of the Crown (not being the holder of a political or judicial office), who is employed in a civil capacity and whose remuneration is wholly paid out of monies provided by Parliament." This excludes members of the armed forces and judicial services. Herman Finer defines the civil service as a "professional body of officials, permanent, paid and skilled." Of late a new category has been added to the civil service, namely, industrial workers. As more and more enterprises, both industrial and commercial, come under the purview of the public sector, the number of such workers would increase. Herman Finer has classified the British civil service into three categories Administrative, Technical and Manipulative (to execute orders handed down by the first two classes by common physical activity).

ROLE OF CIVIL SERVICES IN DEVELOPING SOCIETIES

The civil services play an important role in the developmental process and in raising the standards of living of the people. For the civil servants to be successful in their role it is important that they make the common man feel that they exist for his welfare and prosperity and that he should co-operate with them in the task of nation-building. According to Jawaharlal Nehru, "Administration like most other things is in the final analysis a human problem to deal with human beings, not with some statistical data Administration is meant to achieve something and not to exist in some kind of an ivory tower following certain rules of procedure and Narcissus-like, looking on itself with complete satisfaction. The test after all is the human beings and their welfare."

The importance of civil services in the modern Government has been succinctly summed up by Ogg: "The work of the Government would never be done if there were only the Secretaries of state and other heads of departments, the Presidents of Boards. Parliamentary Under Secretaries, Junior Lords, and Civil Lords, in other words, the Ministers—to do it. These people cannot be expected to collect taxes, audit accounts, delivering mail, and carrying messages. Such manifold tasks fall, rather, to the body of officials and employees known as the Permanent Civil Service. It is this great body of men and women that translates law into action from one end of the country to the other and brings the national

Government into its daily contacts with the rank and file in the country—less in the public eye than the ministry; this army of functionaries is not a whit less necessary to the realisation of the purposes for which the Government exists.”

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Commenting on the character and importance of civil service in India, the Simon Commission stated : “In a country of small cultivators, with no accumulated resources and little experience in organisation... private enterprise cannot undertake new and costly experiments. The task of bringing within reach of such a society the benefits of the administrative experience and the applied science of the West was possible for one agency only – the Government; no other had the necessary knowledge or machinery. Thus, the civil service of India, which in origin was little more than revenue collecting agency, gradually took upon itself a very wide range of duties. As the work became specialised, new services had to be created. India looks to Government to do many things which in the West are done by private enterprise.” The brilliant statement serves to explain nature and purpose of Indian civil service.

Today, the civil servants have to play a crucial role not only in the field of political, economic and social development but in efficient running of the Government as well.

The role of the civil services will be discussed under the following heads:

- (i) Civil Service and Development Administration
- (ii) Civil Service as instrument of Political Development
- (iii) Civil Service and Economic Development
- (iv) Civil Service, Modernisation and Social Change
- (v) Role in Energising, Supervising and Execution—Internal Functioning

(i) **Civil Service and Development Administration:** Bureaucracy should lay emphasis on the achievement of the targets most rapidly with least waste and least failures. The bureaucracy has to remove the public feeling of distrust, initiate a process of political socialisation and facilitate planning of strategies and identification of the people with the goals. A development administrator has to be action motivated and committed to development ideology and faith should be more free-wheeling, less adhering to administrative forms, less attached to importance of hierarchy and status.

Stress may be laid on the need for experts and specialists acquiring administrative experience and training to enable them to move into positions of administrative responsibilities in various areas and levels of Government. Popular urges and aspirations must be continually led into public administration at all levels. Significant in this regard is the need for increased and more meaningful participation of citizens and interest groups in the process of Governmental policymaking and its implementation. Finally, political skill and administrative

energy should be ceaselessly directed to convert what has been called 'soft state' into 'hard state'.

The term 'Soft State' is understood to comprise all the various types of social indiscipline which manifest themselves by deficiencies in legislation and in particular law observance and enforcement, a widespread disobedience by public officials on various levels to rules and directives handed down to them, and often their collusion with powerful persons and groups of persons whose conduct they should regulate. Within the concept of the soft state belongs also corruption.

(ii) **Civil Services as an instrument of Political Development:** Political development is interpreted as a process of political institution building and people's participation in it. The civil services as the expert career based system, has the responsibility of anticipating the policy needs of the country, develop the alternatives and evaluate them and suggest a policy. It is a crucial arbiter in deciding who gets what, when and where. In fine, this is the most important political function of bureaucracy.

(iii) **Civil Services and Economic Development:** The increasing role of bureaucracy in economic development is the reflection of the dominant economic role of Government in low income countries. The role of civil services in economic development can be generally discussed within two contexts—the ideology of nationalism and the process of planning.

In the Indian context, Dube has observed, "The major symptoms of the malady are—failure to take decisions at the appropriate level, passing the buck. roping in others in decision-making, equivocal recommendation anticipating what the boss wants, rationalisation of failures, underplaying the essentials and magnifying the grandiose covering the failure of smaller Utopias and outright sycophancy."

As the plan calls for financial resources on an unprecedented scale, the extractive function of public administration — collection of taxes — is to be simultaneously accorded the highest importance. Also, the prevalent system of financial control, which is evidently out of tune with the needs of a developing economy, stands in need of reform.

(iv) **Civil Services—Modernisation and Social Change:** Efficiency in administration may be desirable, but what is more important is the development of an administrative culture, based on flexibility, freedom and change of traditional forms and techniques when they are found unsuited and which recognises public interest as the supreme end of a democratic Government and administration. Bureaucracy has to act as a dynamic force which follows the will of the people as well as leads it. As Waldo puts it, "it is a part of the cultural complex, and it is not only acted upon, but also acts. The burden of bringing about planned social change is on the bureaucracy and if it fails, the dreadful alternative is violent revolution."

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In the social sector, modernisation process must take into account the difficult task of inculcation of rational values, building up dynamic group attitudes, creating and channelising along constructive lines, new citizen-responses to absorb change and accelerate its pace. The civil service has to plan to provide for an immense variety of instruction and healthy entertainment and wide opportunity for cultivation of the spirit, the mind and the body, which is necessary for the maximum development of their personalities by the citizens. It also deals with the policies relating to helpless and handicapped sections of the community, like the untouchables, women and children.

(v) **Role in Energising, Supervising and Execution of Internal Functioning:**

Some of the areas where bureaucracy plays an important role in administration are :

- **Role in Policy-Making:** No doubt, the political head of the department has a right to exercise general supervision over the work of civil servants, but due to lack of full knowledge about the work of the department and other commitments he has to leave much to the discretion of civil servants. This led Ramsay Muir to remark that "Bureaucracy thrives under the cloak of ministerial responsibility." Besides participation in making policies, the higher level bureaucracy is also involved in the traditional role of direction and execution of policy. **Role in Legislation:** The civil servants not only prepare the bills for the approval of the legislature but also provide the details of the laws after the legislature has passed the skeleton laws due to paucity of time. They know best the difficulties involved in the enforcement of a particular law and make necessary suggestions to overcome the same. The civil servants even provide the arguments to be advanced by the Minister in support of the various bills on the floor of Parliament.
- **Role in Financial Matters:** The civil servants formulate the budget proposals containing details about the proposed expenditure and revenues for the ensuing year. The responsibility for putting these proposals into practice also rests with the civil servants. In short, they virtually control the finance of the country.
- **Role in Judicial Matters:** In recent years, the civil servants have come to exercise certain quasi-judicial functions too. The various departments of Government take administrative and quasi-judicial decisions against whom no appeal can be taken to the courts. In other words, the final verdict in these matters rests with civil servants.
- **Innovations within Government:** Innovation means a change to something new, a change which may be either wise or unwise, prudent or risky. In Governments where there is a commitment to development, there are greater pressures for innovation.

The basic task of the civil servants is to transform policies into action. With the diversification of the nature of civil service personnel, civil servants of the technical category engaged in various productive and public sector organisations are rendering useful social and economic services to the people. The welfare of the people will, to an increasing extent, depend on the imagination and sympathy and the efficiency with which work is understood and done by the civil servants.

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1.8 CHARACTERISTICS OF PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA

Public personnel administration in India comprise the public services of the country. By now you must be familiar with the meaning and scope of public services in India, their role in the administrative system must have also become clear. The public personnel administration has certain characteristics which are different from the private administration in many ways. Public personnel administration has to cater to the needs of larger number of people and is engaged with the supply of varied services. Public personnel administration does not exist in a vacuum. It is the product of basic public policy, it operates under public scrutiny, it mirrors general social and economic conditions, and it has a continuous impact upon the general welfare. The government is dependent on the public personnel system for the implementation of its programmes, without proper utilisation of human services, no policy, programme or rule can be made successful.

PRESENT PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IS A LEGACY OF THE PAST

The bureaucracy in India, especially the top bureaucracy is a spillover of British rule. The East India Company promoted a service structure for meeting their commercial and trading interests. In 1858 when the British Government took over the reigns of administration in India, the political consolidation of the country and exploitation of the country's resources to serve its own interests became its aims. This called for minimum economic, social and developmental activities but maximum administrative stranglehold. The superior civil services that is the higher civil services were manned by either British or Indians recruited from higher economic and feudal strata of society. The lower subordinate levels comprised only the Indians. The whole system was an excellent example of high and low, top and bottom, master and servant.

The preponderant characteristics of public personnel system were:

- it was 'elitist', exclusive in outlook and approach,
- it displayed despotism in action and behaviour,
- it maintained safe and wide distance from the people,
- it developed structural rigidity and functional frugidity,

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- it was too hierarchic and precedent adherent,
- it had no human relations orientation,
- it had feudalistic, and separatist attitude and temper,
- it had no welfare or development motivation.

India became independent in 1947, but could not develop or structure a novel public personnel system. Our Independence was accompanied by painful partition of the country, communal riots, massive migration of displaced persons and influx of refugees. Moreover we had to tackle with the complicated problems of integration of states, depletion of administrative personnel due to voluntary retirement of British ICS officers and transfer of Muslim ICS officers to Pakistan. If the health of the economy was bad on account of the after effects of the second world war and partition, the condition of administration, particularly personnel administration was worse. The basic administrative structure remained the same. There were gaps in the cadre, experienced. Senior level officers were very few in number and competent personnel were just not available.

With the adoption of the Constitution in 1950 and commencement of our first five Year Plan, lot of pressure came to be laid on the personnel system. The elitist hierarchic authoritarian and rigid administration now had to be revamped in order to meet the Constitutional objectives of liberty, equality, fraternity and justice. Our plan objectives viz., economic development, industrialisation, modernisation, and social justice put the administration under considerable strain, the administration had to be converted into a development and welfare oriented administration. We can say that after Independence, two basic changes took place which greatly affected the role of civil service. First, with the adoption of the system of parliamentary democracy, the civil service became accountable to the political executive. Secondly, civil service became an instrument of development.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL SYSTEM AIMS AT FULFILMENT OF THE GOALS OF THE GOVERNMENT

Personnel system, for that matter any system must have a purpose which has to be related to the objectives of the organisation. In the case of public personnel administration in India, its basic aim is the facilitation and fulfilment of the goals of government. This is the rationale for creating the government services, this is the justification for their existence. Once the goals have been formulated, the public personnel system must rise to implement the programmes and achieve the qualitative and quantitative targets by judiciously harnessing the available resources, keeping two dimensions in view, time and cost. For this purpose, public personnel system is involved with the functions of recruitment, selection, placement, training, health, safety, performance-rating, promotions and general welfare of the employees.

INCREASE IN DEVELOPMENT FUNCTIONS

The extension of social security benefits and an enlarged public aid to education have become very important functions of the government. The government has assumed the larger responsibility of achieving security and well-being of all citizens. Implementation of these changes is not an easy task. The skills and experience of public service is required for this purpose. The public service is an essential social instrument, it bridges the gaps between legislative content and its fulfilment. Public service can help to establish and strengthen the minimum conditions required for economic development. It is responsible for laying down conditions for the maintenance of law and order, development of infrastructural facilities and favourable administrative structure. The public services by fixing certain general or specific output objectives, play an important role in modifying the resource structure of the country. The public services have now taken control of government undertakings or semi-government bodies.

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GROWING NUMBER OF PUBLIC PERSONNEL

Due to the increase in the social and economic functions of the government, the number of public personnel is increasing at a very fast rate. As the tasks of the government are increasing, the need for personnel to perform these tasks is also growing. A large number of new departments, corporations, commissions and boards are now being set up. The Second Pay Commission had estimated that on April 1, 1948, there were 14,45,050 employees in the Central Government. On June 30, 1957, this figure had increased to 17,73,570. On January 1, 1965, it increased to 22,64,795. On January 1, 1981, it further increased to 32,27,339. This shows that with every new activity of government that aims at providing new services for the welfare of people, the number of government employees is constantly increasing.

GROWING NUMBER OF SPECIALISTS IN PUBLIC SERVICES

The concept of Welfare State, increase in the aspirations of people and the growth of science and technology has brought forth the demand for increasing role of specialists in administration. New specialism, new techniques, new methods are now being expected from the civil servants. The role of the specialists in public services has thus become very crucial and their number in the services is constantly increasing.

LOW RATE OF TURNOVER OF EMPLOYEES IN GOVERNMENT SERVICE

The rate of turnover of government employees is quite low in India. According to O Glenn Stahl, the employees leave their jobs for a variety of reasons like voluntary resignation, optional retirement, instances of death or frequent

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transfers. In India people accept the government service as a career and do not resign on their own due to permanency and moderately good conditions of service. Reasonable hours of work, good leave entitlements, provident fund and retirement benefits, housing and health facilities attract the people to public services and are even able to retain them. Sound promotion policy is another factor which encourages public personnel and fosters a feeling of belongingness in them. In addition, an adequate retirement and pension system also encourage personnel to continue in service till their retirement. Thus, the turnover of public personnel is quite low. Most references of turnover are confined to the vacancies occurring due to death, removal, dismissal and retirement.

PREVALENCE OF RANK CLASSIFICATION IN THE SERVICES

Classification of governmental position is a must for a career service based on merit. It enables rational standards or norms to be set up for the selection of personnel, permits uniformity in the method of describing different types of jobs and establishes an alike basis for giving equal status and equal pay for equal work. There are two well-known systems of classification, one is Rank Classification and the other is Duties or position Classification. India follows the system of rank classification. In India, the public personnel are classified into 'classes' as well as 'services'. We have four classes of service, class 1, class 2, class 3, class 4, these are now called Group A, B, C and D services, corresponding to differences in the responsibility of the work performed and the qualifications required.

Another way of classification is into 'services'. Public personnel in India are directly recruited to different services *e.g.*, Archaeological Service, Engineering Service, Post and Telegraphs Traffic Service etc. Once the public personnel are recruited to these services, they continue to be the members of the particular service until they retire or resign. At present public services are classified into the following classes:

- (1) All-India Services
- (2) Central Services, Group A, B, C & D
- (3) State Services
- (4) Specialist Services
- (5) Central Secretariat Services, Group A, B, C & D

Rank classification system is very easy to understand and administer, it promotes mobility by facilitating transfers within the services, it is flexible in operation, it opens more career opportunities for individuals. But this type of system violates the principle of 'equal pay for equal work', it does not define the contents of any job in detail, it does not explain what is expected of a post. This system is not conducive to the formulation of scientific standards on which selection

of personnel, training, posting, transfer, career development, promotion etc. may be organised. The position classification system prevalent in the USA, Canada, Philippines etc. has various advantages over rank classification system prevalent in our country.

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LIMITED POLITICAL RIGHTS OF CIVIL SERVANTS

Extremely limited political rights of the civil servants have been regarded as one of the essential conditions to maintain the discipline, integrity and political neutrality of the services. To ensure political neutrality of the public services, the civil servants are denied direct participation in the political activities. The Government of India's Civil Services Conduct Rules for ensuring neutrality of the service in politics provide the following:

- (1) Rule 5 of the Central Civil Service (Conduct) Rules, 1964, prohibits civil servants from taking part in politics. They cannot be members of any political party or any organisation which takes part in politics nor can subscribe in aid of or assist in any other matter, any political movement or activity.
- (2) Clause 2 of Rule 5 of the Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules requires the civil servants to endeavour to prevent any member of their family from taking part in, subscribing in aid of or assisting in any manner any movement or activity which tends, directly or indirectly, to be subversive of the government as established by law. In case the civil servant fails to prevent a member of his family from indulging in any of the aforesaid actions, he has to make a report to the effect to the government.
- (3) Article 326 of the Constitution of India guarantees the right of franchise to every citizen of India, whose age is 18 years or above and who does not suffer from other disqualifications. But under the Conduct Rules the civil servants are not free to give an indication to the public of the manner in which they propose to vote or have voted.
- (4) Rule 4 of the All India Services (Conduct) Rules, 1954, civil servants are forbidden to canvass or use their influence in an election to any legislature or local authority.
- (5) Civil servants cannot express themselves on political issues. According to Rule 8 of the Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules they are prohibited to communicate any official document or information to any one whom they are not authorised to communicate.

Thus, we can conclude that the political rights of the civil servants are extremely limited. The higher civil servants must be above politics, as they have to serve the changing governments drawn from different political parties with the same vigour and honesty. According to Masterman Committee Report, "the

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public interest demands the maintenance of political impartiality in the Civil Service and confidence in that impartiality is an essential part of the structure of Government.....". Therefore, it is necessary that political rights of the civil servants are limited.

**ROLE OF PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION IN PUBLIC PERSONNEL
ADMINISTRATION**

The Public Service Commission is an independent statutory body. In India, the Public Service Commission has been so designed as to function only as an advisory body. All rights regarding the appointments of personnel are vested in the Government. The Constitution does not envisage vital role for the Commission in personnel administration. The Constitution of India provides for a Union Public Service Commission and for State Public Service Commissions along with a Joint Public Service Commission on the request of two or more state governments.

The functions of the Union and State Public Service Commissions may be summarised as follows:

- (1) To advise the Government on matters regarding the method of recruitment and principles to be followed in making appointments to the civil services either directly or by promotion.
- (2) To conduct examinations, written as well as personality tests, for appointments to the civil services of the respective governments.
- (3) To advise the government on matters relating to the suitability of candidates for promotion and transfer. Recommendations for such promotions are made by the concerned departments and Commission is requested to ratify them.
- (4) The Commission is consulted on matters relating to temporary appointments for periods between one to three years, grant of extension of services and re-employment of certain retired civil servants.
- (5) The Commission is also consulted on matters relating to regularisation of appointments, claims for the award of pension, claims for reimbursement of legal expenses incurred by the Government servants in defending legal proceedings instituted against them relating to acts done in the execution of their official duties, claims for pension, or compensation in respect of injuries sustained on duty.
- (6) The Commission is also consulted while making of an order in any disciplinary case in the conditions like, (i) censure; (ii) withholding of increments or promotions; (iii) reduction to a lower service, grade or post; (iv) compulsory retirement; and (v) removal or dismissal from service.
- (7) The Commission has to present to the President or the Governor, as the case may be, its annual report, with its recommendations.

There is a provision that the Parliament and the State legislatures, as the case may be, may confer additional functions on their respective Public Service Commissions.

Thus, the Public Service Commission is a recruiting agency with purely advisory role, consulted also in certain disciplinary and other matters. There are some statutory restrictions on the powers of the Public Service Commissions. According to an amendment in Article, 320, which was effected in 1961, it is not necessary for the President to consult the UPSC in a case where he proposes to make an order for the removal, dismissal or reduction in rank of a civil servant after he is satisfied that such action is necessary in the interest of the security of the State.

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1.9 PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA: SOME DYSFUNCTIONALITIES

Over the decades the personnel administrative system in the country has developed certain functionalities and dysfunctions. To make public personnel system effective, the dysfunctions have to be properly identified and removed.

The Conference on Personnel Administration held in 1968 under the auspices of Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi, that "the existing personnel system did not meet the requirements of a desirable personnel administrative system. The existing system leaned too heavily on cadres. Our elite is more "status-oriented" rather than "achievement-oriented". The cadre system's sanction is based on the criterion of an outdated selection system by means of a purely academic examination.

The requirements *i.e.*, the desirable ingredients of a good and sound personnel system were identified as follows, namely:

- (i) The best man for the job,
- (ii) Increasing professionalisation,
- (iii) Competitiveness in selection for higher administrative positions,
- (iv) Placement to be job-oriented and not status trapped,
- (v) Motivation for better performance,
- (vi) Equal pay for equal work,
- (vii) Objective evaluation of performance,
- (viii) Rational promotion and personnel development system,
- (ix) Appropriate organisation of functions of government and appropriate policies and practices to enable optimum personnel performance.

In a Seminar on "Public Services and Social Responsibility", organised by Indian Institute of Advanced Study in Shimla (October 1973), some of the

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characteristic inadequacies and weaknesses of the public service system in India were identified and debated. They were:

- (1) Bureaucracy, especially its higher echelons, has acquired a class character. In operation, its instrumental role is often subordinated, and it emerges as an end in itself.
- (2) The gap between the administration and the citizen is widening. Though unpalatable, it is, nevertheless, true that bureaucracy has been somewhat insensitive to the needs of the latter and has lost credibility.
- (3) The public services are immobilised by their size. Today bureaucracy has become a slow-moving and dull-witted giant.
- (4) There are contradictions and incompatibilities at different levels of bureaucracy. Frequent confrontations between these levels paralyse the entire machine.
- (5) The public services have become a prisoner of their own procedures and precedents. Negative thinking appears to prevail. This leads to inaction rationalised in various ways.
- (6) The public services are becoming increasingly inadequate in taking up the new tasks and challenges. Even in the maintenance of law and order, bureaucracy often finds itself ineffective. In the economic field, its performance has generally been poor. It has rarely been able to take a dynamic view of the emerging problems. It tries to cure today's ill with yesterday's remedies, quite often these do not work.
- (7) The generalist tradition still prevails, on the contrary, need of the day is specialisation. Little attention appears to be given to evolving structures for specialised roles to meet the challenges of the emerging constellation of social needs.
- (8) In the general area of policy making, the public services have not given a convincing account of themselves, they act by hunches and intuition rather than trained insights.

In its Report on Personnel Administration, the Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) (1968) while emphasising the need for a new personnel system dealt with various aspects of personnel system in Central Government and highlighted its shortcomings.

The first of these shortcomings, according to ARC, relates to professional inadequacy of the system to face the great diversification of the functions which calls for a variety of skills in the higher administration.

Secondly, ARC diagnosed that the "tenure system" through which non-professional and non-committed 'birds of passage' are brought temporarily, impeded "building up new expertise in personnel".

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Thirdly, it laid that "generalism" which has been the hallmark of Indian personnel system has lost "its validity in several fields and is declining in importance" as an inevitable consequence of rapidly "growing technological sophistication" in administration.

Fourthly, it would be in public interest to cast the net wide and choose the best material in an effort to match jobs with the persons possessing needed qualification. In the prevalent system, man-job-match is not ideal, nor is it consciously practised, in view of the application of "cadre" concept.

Fifthly, in the policy advice and managerial decisions where specialist-professionals are not expected "to involve themselves directly" the whole process is amateurish, frustrating and time consuming.

Sixthly, there is irrationality in the "remuneration pattern of the different services" which does not "provide for recognition of merit, adequate opportunities for promotion and continuous incentive for good performance."

Eighthly, "adherence to seniority has proved damaging to quality." Finally, "the present personnel system does not make for a rational and optimum utilisation of human resources."

1.10 EVOLVING AN EFFICIENT PUBLIC PERSONNEL SYSTEM

The public personnel system has to perform many vital tasks, human element is the most crucial part of any system and it has to be adequately utilised. Various dysfunctionalities that have developed in the public services over the decades are posing a lot of hurdles in the pursuance of administrative objectives. The problems like the increasing gap between the administration and citizens, the immobility of public services, red-tapism, obsolete methods of operation etc. have to be tackled properly.

In order to evolve an efficient public personnel system a much more closer interaction is called for between the public servants and the citizens. The concept of isolation of civil servants from the public has to be done away with. Constant interaction between the public personnel and government can also solve the difficulties to a great extent, a positive and cordial relationship between the minister and the public servant is needed. According to H. Finer, "However adequately organised the political side of the government, however wise the political philosophy, high leadership and command, these will be of no effect without the body of officials who are experts in applying power and wisdom to the particular cases and are permanently and specially employed to do so."

There is a need for citizen's participation in administrative processes. Citizens should not just be the recipients of the fruits of the implemented programmes, they must actively take part in the formulation, implementation and monitoring

of plans as well. Role of voluntary agencies, planning bodies at the grassroots level and panchayat bodies has become very important. These bodies must aim at optimal utilisation of human resources.

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Media can also play an effective role in removing the dysfunctionality of public personnel administration. It can highlight the methods adopted by administration in removal of citizens' grievances. It can draw the attention of people to the difficulties faced by citizens in their interaction with the administrative personnel and the ways or methods by which they can voice them. Media can highlight the role of nongovernmental organisations and cooperatives in increasing people's participation in administration.

1.11 ECOLOGY OF PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Public Personnel Administration cannot operate in vacuum. It has to interact with the political executive, social political interest groups, commercial and economic organizations, etc, and above all with the people. Public Administration can be taken as a sub-system of the overall social system and has to interact with other sub-systems. A study of such interaction would constitute what has come to be known as ecological approach to the study of public administration. We propose to discuss in brief the ecological aspects of Public Personnel Administration.

MEANING

The word "ecology" comes from the field of biology where it suggests the interdependence between animal species and their natural environment. In 1947, John M. Gaus attempted to employ the concept of ecology in the study of Public Administration. By this he meant the interdependence of Public Bureaucracy and its environment. In the same year Robert Dahl stressed the need for cross cultural studies that emphasizes environmental effects on administrative structure and behaviour. He observed that Public Administration cannot ignore the effect of national psychology and political, social and cultural environment in which it works. These developments in fact reflected the general interest in the study of comparative Public Administration in the newly independent nations during post World War II period. It was realized that the administration of these countries could not be understood in terms of the then existing theories which developed in a totally different setting, mainly in the USA. This interest in the study of Comparative Public Administration (CPA) in the developing countries was encouraged by the following factors:

- (i) American occupational administration during and after World War-II.
- (ii) The emergence of a large number of developing countries.

- (iii) The extension of technical assistance to these countries.
- (iv) Involvement of academicians in the administration of these assistance programmes, and
- (v) Rapid growth of behavioral sciences in general and comparative politics in particular.

In fact, a whole group of scholars in Comparative Administration Group (CAG) emerged which engaged itself in the study of the administration in developing countries of Africa, Latin America and Asia. They found that the study of Comparative Administration requires new concepts which can take care of the dynamic and developmental aspects of administration in cross cultural perspectives. They have also found that such concepts have to take into account the ecological aspects which can explain the impact of environment on the administrative system and vice versa. In fact, Riggs has observed that truly comparative administrative studies have necessarily to be ecological in character.

The basic premise of the ecological approach is that public administration may be regarded as one of the several institutions of the society. Its structure and functions can, therefore, be studied only in relation to these other institutions. In a system approach, public administration is a sub-system of the society and is constantly interacting *i.e.*, affected by and affecting the economic, political and socio-cultural sub-systems. Riggs, in his "The Ecology of Public Administration" has explored the interaction between Public Administration and the environment in which it develops. From the environment he chose, social, Political, communication, and economic fields to study such interaction in the USA, ancient Siam and modern Philippines and Thailand. A Brief discussion of some of the relevant parameters is given below.

ECONOMIC FACTORS

In ideal type of diffracted societies to which America approximates closely, the economic organization revolves round the market which is characterized by the use of rational criteria for the allocation of scarce resources for maximization of output. This rationality of the market mechanism is carried over into the administrative bureau, where recruitment obviously takes place on the basis of merit for the job to be performed. Similarly, the market oriented practices of planning, communication, line and staff organizations etc, are taken over to the Public Administration. On the same count, the performance Budgeting has been introduced in the Government.

On the other hand, the market needs administrative services for enforcement of contracts for regulating trade practices, for provision of infrastructural facilities etc. The money to run these administrative services is, in turn, provided by the economy. The inter-dependence between the economy

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and public administration thus becomes obvious. The economy could not survive without the administrative system which in turn was shaped by the needs of the economy. Moreover, the survival of the administration depends on the support provided by the economy.

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In a traditional society (termed by Riggs as "fused society") there is no market. The re-distributive functions of the economy are performed by the administration which becomes co-terminus with it.

In traditional societies, the economy is governed by Bazaar-Canteen model which is characterized by "Price-indeterminacy", "pariah entrepreneurship" and "subsidized" and "tributary" canteen for the favored and the disfavored respectively. Business of entrepreneurship is not favored and not taken up by "stronger" class. They have to buy protection from influential men, mostly from those in administration. This, on the one hand, leaves little with the entrepreneur for capital formation and on the other hand corrupts the administration. Low capital formation makes for low productivity leading to poor population and low tax collections. The administrators are less paid and have all the incentives for corruption. Inter-twining relationship of the economy and the administration is thus apparent.

SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS

American way of life is characterized by the existence of a large number of functionally specific voluntary associations who recruit members universalistically on contractual basis. Apart from its members, the association may also have some staff which serves as its agent. The staff, when big, becomes its bureaucracy. This pattern of associations has affected both economic and administrative fields. The business field is dominated by big corporations whose members are share holders. Similarly, the public bureaucracy is the agent of the American people who form one big association. This social organization gives to the public administration its very important characteristics of universalistic recruitment and functional specificity. The inter-dependence between associations and the administration is very significant.

Most of the important associations have their counterparts in the administration which depends on them for interest aggregation and articulation. This facilitates the task of administration in policy formulation and executing, which in turn, helps the associations in furthering their objectives.

In fused societies there are no specific associations, but, only family and kinship groups based on status. Higher the status, larger the family with kins family at the apex. Since groups cannot aggregate or articulate the specific functional interests, the administrative order is based on a particularistic group structure which it also helps to sustain.

In prismatic societies, characterized by a high degree of heterogeneity, formalism and overlapping, the social structure is characterized by poly-communalism. Due to improving communication system, the mobilization in the society takes place faster than assimilation. Instead of nation-wide functionally specific associations, we have such associations on community basis. Such associations, called elects by Riggs, tend to further the interests of their community and not the professional interest on national basis. The emergence of elects has profound influence on public administration which tends to carry many traits from the former. The formal bureau chief while paying lip service to the formal laws and rules feels compelled to help the members of his family and elects. This gives rise to selectivism in recruitment to the positions in Government as well as selection of beneficiaries of the Government programmes. This is some way between universalism and particularities. This leads to nepotism and coupled with the corruption induced by bazaar-canteen model of economic system may lead to differentiated groups hostile to the ruling elite. The efficiency of the administration goes down and so does the efficiency of economic organizations. In this way, the socio-cultural institutions and administration interact in a prismatic society.

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POLITICAL FACTORS

Public Administration is most intimately connected with the political sub-system of the society. In fact, it has grown out of the political system of which it was earlier taken to be an integral part. Early theorists of Public administration believed in politics-administration dichotomy. They believed that Public Administration has to execute policies laid down by political masters. The political system needs a lot of information to lay down policies and feedback to readjust them. This information and feedback is provided by Administration. This neat division of the policy making and policy execution functions comparatively diffracted societies to a large extent, though not fully. This need not be the case in the fused and prismatic societies.

In fused societies, the two functions are not distinct. In political model, termed "archaic" by Riggs both political and administrative functions are performed but cannot be understood in terms of making and enforcing the policies. The situation is much more complex in prismatic societies. The prismatic characteristic of overlapping is very much in evidence among the political and administrative sub-systems.

The formal political structure may be universalistic, but in practice laws and policies often discriminate selectively against the excluded groups. The legislators attempt to secure positions for their protégés and devote little time to important functions like legislation and policy making. The strength of elects

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makes universalistic policies impossible. Political system thus does not perform its functions but tends to enter the field of administration.

The administrative system is then called upon to interpret and adopt the laws and policies to practical realities. In the absence of clear-cut policy guidelines and effective control by the political system, the Public Administration acquires considerable leeway in either enforcing policies ritualistically or circumventing them according to the convenience of administrators. Thus in a prismatic society, the administrative and political system, not only show a good deal of interdependence, but also considerable overlapping.

LEGAL FACTORS

The symbol system of a country has a bearing on its legal system. It includes "myth", "formula" and "code". "Myth" means symbols to define source of sovereignty; "Formula" determines the structure of the Government, and "Code" includes laws and regulations. For example, the myth of popular sovereignty determines the democratic form of government with its universalistic laws. Whenever this myth is based on consensus among the population, the formal political structure also becomes the substantive one. The legislative, judicial and the executive wings of the government perform their functions as laid down in the basic law *i.e.*, constitution. Within the executive wing, the political executive is able to exercise control over the administrative wing as the guardian of the popular will. Laws enacted by the legislative wing represent the popular will and are faithfully implemented. In other words, there is a great degree of realism in the enactment and enforcement of laws. Any difficulties in implementation by the administration can be brought to the legislature for amendment in the laws. The legal system thus creates interdependent legislatures and executives although they are assigned different specific functions.

The discussions will not be complete without showing the effects of this inter-dependence in the prismatic system. Here the myth of popular sovereignty based on equality is superimposed on the traditional system with a different myth based on divine origin of king or family and kingship loyalties. The result is that the structure of the government and the laws enacted by the legislature will not represent the consensus and may not be enforced. This gives rise to constitutional and legal formalism with a great deal of difference between the formal and substantive political and power structure. Some obvious symptoms are:

- (i) The political executive may not be able to lay down realistic policies due to lack of consensus and unrealistic laws may be enacted. Obviously, they cannot be implemented. This places great power in the hands of the

administrators who may chose to implement laws which serve their interests.

- (ii) Since the laws and rules and regulations do not lay down realistic goals, the administrators may be very ritualistic in implementing them. This may result in the red tape for which the bureaucracy is so well known.
- (iii) This fluid situation may prompt the political executives to overlap into the administrative functions to further their partisan interest.
- (iv) This also encourages the reverse process in which the administrators by *distorting the rules and laws* acquire a lot of political power.

The above discussion makes the interdependence of the political, administrative and the legal systems amply clear to have a sound administrative system; the laws and rules and regulations should be clear and policies should lay down clear goals. On the other hand, the enforcement of laws and regulations and implementation of policies depends on a sound administrative system.

1.12 HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

Human Resource Management focuses on all issues related to 'people' in the organization. The people in an organization are undoubtedly the most important assets. Therefore, special care must be exercised in managing them. Human resource management is concerned with practices involved in the acquisition, development, motivation and maintenance of people. This is important to achieve the organizational goals.

The people in the organization are instrumental to its success. If human resource management practices are good, then the organization will be effective and efficient. 'Effectiveness' is reflected by the success in goal achievement. 'Efficiency' on the other hand, is reflected by its ability to achieve the output with very little inputs or resources. An organization that is unable to achieve effectiveness or efficiency will eventually die. Survival is dependent on the human resource manager's competence to coordinate the activities of all people in the organization.

ROLE OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGERS

Human Resources Managers are involved in the process of organizing, developing, motivating and maintaining the human resources in the organization. Acquisition implies a need to put the right people on the right job. It therefore emphasizes the need to select the right person as well as to define jobs completely. Developing indicates the need to hone the skills of employees in order to enable them to perform well on their job. Motivation is concerned with sustaining the level of performance of each and every employee in the organization. In today's context of high attrition, there is a need to design attractive measures to retain high performers. Organizations are realizing that this task is perhaps of prime

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concern. The maintenance function is concerned with such issues that have a direct impact on building employee relationships. The sub-functions of these activities are shown in figure 1.1 below.

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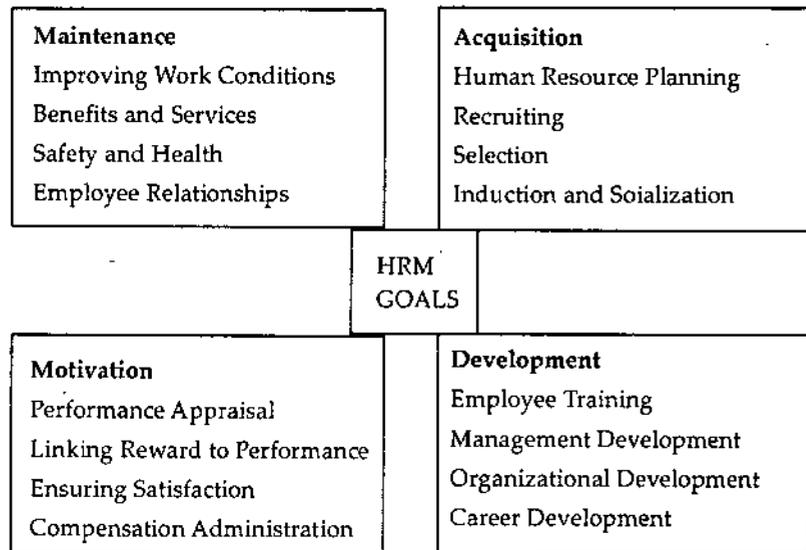


Figure 1.1 Role of Human Resource Managers

You can observe from the figure that essentially, there is four distinct activities that a human resource manager is involved with. They are:

- Acquisition
- Development
- Motivation and
- Maintenance.

Let us understand what are the sub-activities that human resource manager do?

Acquisition

It begins with manpower planning. It tries to understand the current human resources available with the organization. A forecast of future manpower requirement and supply are made. Any shortages are made up, through recruitment and selection at appropriate time. Acquisition also includes other activities such as induction and socialization of employees. At Sum Total, regular team outings, new inductee lunches and evenings are celebrated to develop cooperation and camaraderie between organizational members.

Development

The development function has four distinct activities. They are employee development, management development, organizational development and career development. Employee development is concerned with developing skills of the

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employee. It also includes changing attitudes of employees if need be. Management development is concerned with enhancement of conceptual abilities and improving knowledge acquisition of employees. Organizational development is concerned with planning and managing change. Career development is concerned with matching the long-term goals of the individual employee and the organization.

For example at Ramco System all employees are put through a comprehensive thirty-day program to enrich their skills to enable them to perform well on the job. While at HCL both technical and soft skill training is provided to employees. This is done to ensure that employees are current in terms of knowledge and skills. It helps them to improve their career prospects.

Motivation

Individual employees are different from each other. Motivation techniques must consider these differences. Therefore, this function is concerned with performance appraisal, methods to stimulate performance, linking rewards to performance, compensation administration, and linking rewards to satisfaction. It also takes into consideration issues such as monotony and boredom causing alienation. It is concerned with disciplining of employees too. The need is to provide challenging, satisfying and personally rewarding jobs. At Sum Total, 'Power of One' (global award given quarterly) and 'Big One' (employee of the year award) are given. Surprisingly, these awards are given to the parents/spouse of the employee in recognition of the latter's excellent performance. The family's role in employee excellence is recognized.

Maintenance

This function is concerned with ensuring the continuance of employees in the organization. Therefore, it focuses attention on issues such as working conditions, benefits and services to be provided to keep employees happy, so as to ensure their commitment to the organization. The employees stock (ESOP) is a non-cash compensation issued by Infosys that will boost its stock price. A rising stock price gives the employees the drive to work harder and stay longer with Infosys.

You may be interested to know how human resource management has evolved over the years? The history is traced below.

1.13 HISTORY OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

Human Resources Management in its present form has evolved through the years. There are several significant milestones in this transition. Essentially

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they have been observed in the last two decades. Let us now see these significant milestones. What are their contributions to the development of Human Resources Management as a subject of study?

Early years: Before the twentieth century, there were vague efforts at organizing labor. For the first time, organizations realized the need to organize people. Such organization was considered essential in order to perform jobs. The efforts to organize people gained momentum in the beginning of the industrial revolution.

Mid Years: Between 1900 and 1946 the importance of Personnel Management was recognized. With this came the realization that there is a need to manage employees in order to maintain them on the jobs. This, in turn, was considered crucial to the success of the organisation. Between 1910 and 1920, the focus was on keeping the right person on the right job. Based on Taylor's Scientific Management, work processes were defined more clearly and an attempt to define jobs in terms of sequential activities was begun. The importance of selection was recognized. Organizations attempted to use appropriate selection devices to get the right persons to fit well defined jobs. Simultaneously, Industrial Psychology developed as a subject interest to psychologists. Scientific experiments were conducted to understand the influence of work conditions and work groups on productivity. One of the most famous studies is the Hawthorne study. The results of these studies have wide ranging implications for practicing managers. They are instrumental in understanding work behavior even today.

With the onset of the Great Depression of 1930, organizations could not maintain the labor employed. As such, there was large-scale retrenchment during the 1940s. The ill effects of World War II were reflected in the human resources management practices world over. It was widely observed that most organizations were insensitive to the needs of their employees. Of course, some organizations had no choice either. They had not planned for such eventualities. Therefore, they could not keep employees on the rolls even if they desired to. It was at this time, that some of the techniques that are still in use in developing human resources came into existence. In particular, mention must be made of the use of discussions, role-plays, and case method both for developing the skills of employees and sensitizing employers.

Later years: During the period between 1946 and 1970, government intervention in human resources management in almost all organisations was observed. Government initiatives concentrated on enactment of laws. It was also preoccupied with its enforcement. Welfare measures were also taken up. Together, they did improve the employees' work life. Some of the laws that helped give a new face to the management of employees are the Factories Act, the Industrial disputes Act, the Workman's compensation Act, the Maternity Benefit Act, the Payment

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of Gratuities Act etc. These laws have been amended several times to keep pace with current requirements. Welfare measures include the need to provide housing facilities, educational assistance, crèche, subsistence allowance etc. The nature of the welfare measure has also undergone tremendous change. Yet, the spirit behind these still continues.

Organizational efforts at redesigning jobs and benefit programs are still evolving. The motivation techniques and reward systems have started reflecting the changing attitude of the employers. With the result that employers are getting to be more employee oriented.

The early 1970s was witness to an increased intervention by the government in employee's welfare. It was then that Personnel Management was redefined in broader terms as Human Resources Management. It was at this time that trade unions were perhaps most active. Employees were more organized and could demand better treatment. The human resource managers realized that they could not remain silent spectators. They needed to take more active part in making the workplace peaceful. Therefore, the personnel management department was transformed. The human resource departments were born. Therefore, apart from involving in selection of employees and pay role processing it has since, evolved into a proactive department encouraging the welfare and development of employees. The most important shift observed since the 1990s, is the belief that the management of human resources is not the exclusive responsibility of the human resource management department alone, but the responsibility of all managers. Employees of this century beginning from the year 2000 are seen as partners in progress rather than resources.

Let us critically analyze this shift in attitude. There are several significant reasons that have accelerated this shift to the present form of human resources management. Noticeable among these are :

Younger Job Entrants: The average age of recruitment has fallen and most new entrants are in their late teens or early 20s. This is especially true in the knowledge-based organizations. They are usually mobile and willing to adapt. Whereas, the older work force would have been content with less of challenge in his job the same cannot be said of the younger workforce. Hence, it is necessary for the organization to maintain the dynamism and enthusiasm of the younger work force. This is possible only through implementation of proper motivation techniques. Otherwise, the organization runs the risk of losing the employee.

Older Work Population: If you look around, you can observe that there are a large number of older people on the employment rolls. When these older people retire there would be an absolute vacuum. This is especially true in teaching, research and some of the government services, as there has been no recruitment

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to these positions for a very long time. Apart from this, we can observe that there is loss to the exchequer on account of huge pension payments. This is because; the average life span has significantly increased over the years. Retirees live longer after retirement than their counterparts of two decades ago. The question is should the government continue to pay pension? Would it be wiser to rise retirement age? Can alternate employment opportunities be provided to them? The redeployment of retired faculty members in premier institutes funded by the Government of India is a short-term arrangement made to tide over the problem of getting the right talent for teaching assignments. The government's decision to implement the contributory pension payment scheme in the place of assured pension payment scheme is an example of innovative thinking to tackle expenditure on account of pension.

Steady fall in skilled labor: It is observed that there is a positive shift to formal education at the lower socio-economic strata. Today, a larger number of children are exposed to at least primary education. Some of them attend high school and even continue to complete their graduation. Once they are formally educated, they are unavailable for skilled jobs. Skilled jobs require the learning of a skill. This is mostly informally learnt from the family. These skills are now taught through a formal diploma program. However, the intake of students into these programs is rather low as very few prefer to learn these skills nowadays. As there are relatively less new entrants into this fold, there is a significant drop in the number of skilled labor. We can observe the absence of skilled labor like carpenters, fitters, electricians, plumbers, etc. The rewards of formal education Vis-a-Vis learning a skill is more attractive. This shift may well continue into the future.

Well-educated employees: Education levels have been consistently on the rise. In a country like India, even for a routine job of a clerk, we observe the recruitment of technical graduates and post graduates. This poses many challenges. For, not only is it very difficult to direct an over qualified employee, it is also not possible to sustain his interest in the job. Two decades back, an applicant for the same job would have barely passed the tenth class pass. More white-collar jobs: Most of the jobs available today are positioned at a higher level than those available a decade back. The number of blue-collar jobs has reduced sizably. There are several reasons for this. The primary reason is the increased impact of technology in the factory bases. Technology invasion automates factories and invariably reduces blue collared jobs. It tends to increase the number of white-collar jobs. White collared jobs are relatively knowledge intensive. Therefore, recruitment to white collar jobs has increased. The technological advancements are being introduced on a going basis. The speed and nature of doing jobs is continuously changing. Technology is replacing most of the low level jobs. This does not in any way indicate that blue collared jobs will be completely eliminated. It simply means

that there is a need to redesign jobs keeping in mind the current technological advancements. The presence of such workers in increasing number has forced organizations to take special care to design jobs that are best accomplished by white collared workers.

Entry of Women: Women have been in employment for almost 50 years now. But, what makes interesting reading is the number of women entering jobs. Interestingly, they are seen in some of the most challenging jobs. For example, we see women in space research. The Factories Act of 1947 has been recently amended to remove the ban on employment of women in the factory at night. It is quite clear that women are well trained to compete with their male counterparts. In some jobs there appears to be a preference for women as against men. You can look at any called centre, which comes alive at night. The surprising thing you would see is that a majority of the employees are young women. The taboo of working at night has fallen apart. Women seem to be able to accept challenges and are able balance their family and work life. They are able to reach the top too. Of course, only a few are able to do so.

Equal Opportunities to minorities: The law requires that the minorities, women and the differently abled need to be treated alike for employment. It is a noticeable trend that most premier organizations like the UNDP, WHO, UNICEF etc. increasingly welcome the participation of women and the differently abled in their workforce. Affirmative action and inclusive growth are two key steps that have been initiated to ensure the participation of the marginalized groups. The idea is to bring them to the mainstream. This is considered essential for ensuring social equity.

Business scenario: Today's business is exposed to short and frequent periods of prosperity and economic stagnation. During prosperity organizations do not have problems with payment to employees. However, during economic stagnation there are several problems. An organization committed towards better human relations finds it difficult to retrench employees. How does it then hold costs? How does it survive? Business environment is also getting more complex. We can observe that economic stagnation is having wide implications for businesses across the globe. You may recall the after effects of the WTC attack. Several of the American businesses had problems retaining their existing workforce on account of political and economic volatility. Some Asians went back home. They joined many existing prospective candidates in the job search. With the US economy improving most of them returned. Such situations only show that businesses today are interdependent and the job market is also subject to volatilities.

Lifetime Employment Search: If any one of you believes that with completion of formal education, there is no need to learn at all you are mistaken. Today, there is

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a need to learn continuously as the trend of lifetime employment search has set in. Neither employers nor employees choose to stay committed for years. Therefore, there is a need to change jobs midway. Unless the individual is current in terms of satisfying the job requirements of the time it would be difficult to place him or herself on any job. Therefore, learning has acquired a special place in employment search.

Cross Cultural Influence: Businesses are going global. Therefore, there is need to adopt best practices that are developed from experiences of different businesses. Sometimes, these may have evolved from different parts of the world. Common practices must bind the global employees of a business. No doubt, the culture of the place of business would influence business practices. Yet, businesses today are more responsive to multi-cultures.

Employee Responsiveness: Organizations are aware of the need to be more employee oriented. As the competition to recruit the right talent heats up, they need to differentiate themselves on the basis of benefits extended. Apart from better pay other benefits like flex time, work from home, job sharing, etc are being offered. The idea is to be sensitive to the employees needs. Thereby, employees may be more committed and loyal.

Let us now understand key issues in human resource management.

1.14 INFLUENCE OF CULTURE ON HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Over the years, the world has become a global village. Today's organizations have no geographical boundaries. Organizations are making a global presence with their products and services. At the same time, they also see the need to have the right talent available in each of their work places spread across the globe. Every organization would be better off if it can recruit locally. Yet, it is practically impossible to find all the talent it needs in one single place. Therefore, it needs to recruit from outside its local domain. It implies that these recruits must be able to adapt to the culture, system and practices that are quite different from what they are locally exposed to.

In India with globalization and liberalization, we are seeing an increasing presence of Multinational Corporations. For e.g., Ford, Fiat and Hyundai have a significant presence in the Indian market. Whereas, Tata Consultancy Services, Infosys and Wipro even though of Indian origin have been earning a sizeable portion of their revenue from operations abroad. This trend of global presence is likely to continue well into the future too.

What does this mean to human resource managers? Different countries have different values, customs, systems and laws. These can be confusing at times.

Human resource managers must recognize the cultural dimensions of the countries in which they operate. They must also understand that it is necessary to adopt practices, which are suited to the wider global presence the organization has. Approaching the global environment with a narrow perspective may create problems and even endanger the survival of the organization.

Broadly, there are two distinct approaches to understanding culture and values. They are the Eastern and Western approaches. The Eastern approach is largely reflected in the Japanese and Korean organizations. They emphasize the bonding between the employee and the organization. The Western approach on the other hand is reflected in the American and British organizations. They emphasize individualism. Indian organizations are mostly midway. Essentially, they are rooted in Eastern culture and values, but have also assimilated a lot of Western ways. No doubt by far Indians are fairly flexible, mobile and adaptable. Yet, in multicultural work environment, human resource management must take steps to sensitive their employees to accept differences, reduce conflicts and foster team spirit.

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1.15 CLASSIFICATION AND STRUCTURE OF CIVIL SERVICES

Classification is the act of classifying and is an everyday experience and a useful aid in comprehending and managing things. It means grouping together of persons or things on the basis of some common essential characteristic. In Personnel administration, classification means grouping together of posts into broad classes on the basis of duties and responsibilities. Marhsall E. Dimock defines it as the "systematic sorting and ranking of positions in a hierarchical sequence according to comparative difficulty and responsibility."

According to L.D. White, "In its final form, a classification plan consists of a number of classes adequate to enable a place to be found for each existing position, arranged in orderly fashion with respect to each other, and supplemented by a set of rules and regulations for its administration, interpretation and amendment."

Classification of posts is absolutely essential to a modern public personnel administration. But the basis on which posts are to be classified may not precisely be the same all over the world.

POSITION CLASSIFICATION

Historically, the object of position classification has been to provide a basis for fixing fair pay for work performed for translating into action the principle of 'equal pay for equal work'. It is prevalent in the U.S.A., Canada, Philippines, Taiwan, etc.

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In position classification, the starting point is the individual positions in the machinery of Public administration. A position is a basic organisational unit. Each position represents certain well-defined duties and responsibilities, the latter two terms signifying, the work assigned to a position and the matters for which an employee is held accountable. A position must remain differentiated from its occupant. From the point of classification, it is immaterial if the post is occupied or is lying vacant. According to Stahl, "Position classification is the organising of jobs in an enterprise into groups or classes on the basis of their duties responsibilities, and qualification requirements."

Before going further, it would be desirable to know the meaning of some more related terms—the service, the class, and the grade. These are in the descending order of generality, that is to say, the service is the broader category of classification, the class is the sub-division of the service, and the grade is the sub-division of the class, in India. The Indian Administrative Service, the Indian Foreign Service, the Secretariat Service, etc., are examples of services. Within these may be classes known as senior, junior or as I, II, III, etc., and within a given class, there may be several grades with different scales of pay attached to them. A position is a set of current duties and responsibilities, which are, as Glenn Stahl observes, "the bricks in the classification wall." Like positions are grouped together in a 'class'; a class, thus, is made of positions with duties that are similar in level and kind. According to Stahl, "If positions are the raw material of classification, the class is the operating unit." The different criteria for evaluation of jobs for purposes of determining their class are:

- (a) Nature of occupational field;
- (b) Complexity and difficulty in performing duties;
- (c) Scope of responsibility; and
- (d) Knowledge and skill needed.

Duties in a class should be sufficiently similar so that —

- (i) the same title may be applied to all the positions in a class,
- (ii) the same test can be used to fill all the positions in all classes,
- (iii) persons with the same minimum qualifications can do the work assigned to all positions in the same class, and
- (iv) the same salary range may be applied to all positions in the same class.

The term 'class' means a group of positions established under these rules sufficiently similar in respect to the duties, responsibilities and authority there of. The same descriptive title may be used with clarity to designate each position allocated to the class, that the same requirements as to education, experience, capacity, knowledge, proficiency, ability and other qualifications should be required of the incumbents, that the same test of fitness may be used to choose

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qualified employees, and that the same schedule of compensation can be made to apply with equity under the same or substantially the same employment conditions. In preparing the description of a job, the duties, responsibilities, degree of difficulty and required qualifications are clearly brought out. Each job is broken down into factors, such as, required experience, training, mental efforts, physical efforts, etc. The various jobs are then ranked in order of relative difficulty and grade levels are defined after each job has been ranked. After this, standards are developed for all levels of jobs. The requisite strength of personnel at various levels is determined on the basis of these standards.

Steps in Position Classification Plan

There are four steps in the development of a position classification plan:

- (i) Analysing and recording the duties and other distinctive characteristics of the position to be classified (job analysis and description);
- (ii) Grouping the positions into classes upon the basis of their similarities;
- (iii) Writing such standards or specification for each class of positions as will indicate its character, define its boundaries and serve as a guide in allocating individual positions to the class and in recruitment and examinations; and
- (iv) Installation by allocating individual positions to the classes thus described.

Advantages:

- (i) It facilitates organisational clarity. This is achieved by
 - (a) Use of standard class titles and job specification plans which establish uniform job terminology throughout the organisation.
 - (b) Providing definition and description of all jobs, duties and responsibilities.
- (ii) Position classification induces competitiveness in the totality of civil service, as such, and thus there is more emphasis on merit rather than seniority.
- (iii) It provides a definite target for recruiting personnel possessing specific qualifications to perform specific duties.
- (iv) It paves the way for an objective evaluation of the performance of personnel.
- (v) It provides a basis for 'equal pay for equal work' and ensures that public personnel are paid according to the difficulty and responsibility of their work.
- (vi) The system is helpful to those who undertake organisational analysis, work distribution in the organisation, etc.
- (vii) It permits lateral entry into civil service from outside the Government.
- (viii) The placement practices are shaped by the requirements of job to be done rather than to provide a job to a person who has been assigned a certain status by virtue of membership of a particular service or cadre.

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- (ix) It provides an uniform occupational terminology by grouping similar positions into classes and allied classes into occupational groups, a common language is established with an uniform, significant and defined terminology for the naming of positions.

Limitations

- (a) The duties and responsibilities of a post are capable of clear identification and must be measured—may be seriously questioned at least in the developing countries.
- (b) Since the pace of change in a developing society is inevitably rapid, the duties of civil servants necessarily undergo corresponding changes. This implies that the classification plan will have to be kept under continuous revision which would be quite onerous as well as costly.
- (c) Position classification requires for its introduction and installation technical skills of a wide variety and sophisticated order. It is quite expensive and time-consuming to develop them and besides, many Governments may not be able to afford such a paraphernalia.

Position classification has become a debating point in India. Specialists advocate it while Generalists oppose it. The prevalent 'service' concept in Indian personnel administration can be reinforced with the use of techniques of position classification, especially, at the lower levels of the country's civil service, for quantification of jobs is more practical at such levels.

Classification of Services— Meaning and Importance

In simple words, classification is the process of division of things or persons on the basis of common characteristics. In personnel administration classification means grouping of various positions on the basis of their duties and responsibilities. Positions having similar duties and responsibilities are put together in one class. A class has been defined by Stahl as "a group of positions sufficiently alike in their duties and responsibilities to justify common treatment in various employment processes".

The importance of classification of services cannot be overemphasised. Classification brings some orderliness into the system and makes for uniform treatment of all the people who are grouped together on certain criteria. It also makes possible justification of differential privileges given to certain distinct categories. The duties, responsibilities, qualification requirements, eligibility conditions, salary, status, even authority to be vested, all depend, to a great extent, on the proper system of classification. Hence, it has considerable functional value and validity. According to Finer, "upon proper classification depends the efficiency of recruitment, the possibility of creating a rational promotional system, and the equitable treatment of people working in different departments".

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Classification of services is important because it determines the operational jurisdiction of the services and the nature of the responsibilities to be discharged as also the jobs to be performed by the incumbents of different groups within the services. It facilitates identification of various hierarchic layers and functional segments of the services at any given time. Classification is an organisational tool of great importance, which, if administered properly, can bring satisfaction to the functionaries.

BASES OF CLASSIFICATION

As said, earlier, classification is a process of grouping objects, alike in one or more characteristics, in classes, taking into account several criteria for such classification. Hence, it is important for us to know the bases of such classification. Functional identity is one such basis. Functions are determined on the basis of job-tasks, duties and responsibilities. When jobs similar in nature are indexed, they form a group and there can be higher or lower groups of broadly similar work units. The functionaries working on such jobs require certain general or specific qualifications which are often related to the class of such jobs.

There can be many bases of classification like qualifications, duties and responsibilities. From the administrative point of view, however, classification on the basis of duties and responsibilities, nature and spheres of activities, job similarities etc., is appropriate and useful. The duties and responsibilities assigned to a position determines its significance rather than its qualifications and salary. A number of similar or identical positions, when put together constitute a 'class'. The positions which are in one class have identical qualification requirements and salary structure. In India, the classes are further grouped into broad occupational groups called 'service' like All India Services, Central and State Services.

ADVANTAGES OF CLASSIFICATION

Classification of service is no more regarded as an organisational necessity but as a functional necessity. Its main justification has been not only in terms of the systematisation of the services it offers but also in the wide and extensive support it provides to management. In addition, classification provides for a major control mechanism and offers a set of both realistic and accurate planning devices.

Facilitates Proper Division of Work

Classification system, as a tool of management, offers considerable assistance in developing an administrative hierarchy and in making proper division of work. This makes it easy for the management to organise its work and divide it properly amongst the various levels. Also, the classification system sets out the necessary hierarchy and establishes the levels in it.

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Removes Arbitrary Standards

The classification system, by institutionalising pay structure and other terms of service based on certain objective criteria, can remove arbitrary standards. This makes it possible for the management to remove personalised considerations in matters relating to civil services and to ensure fair treatment to employees. Such a system generates a substantial feeling of security and justice in the minds of an average employee.

Promotes Employee Motivation

The classification system can be employed by the management for directing its operations and for sustaining employee motivation and provide necessary incentives. A systematically developed classification scheme makes it possible for the management to identify areas of work, differentiate between employees according to the job they do and also to promote employees who show potentialities for doing higher kind of duties, thereby giving recognition to the deserving and meritorious personnel.

Ensures Effective Manpower Planning and Utilisation

An immediate assessment of the type and quantum of skills available within an organisation is easily made, thereby locating the persons qualified in each category. It makes it easy to control the intake of skills in proportion to the requirements and also to build up a personnel inventory.

Lays Down Uniform Work Standards

The classification system also makes it possible to devise uniform work standards for the various levels which helps in enhancing the productivity of the existing personnel. It prevents wastage of skills, by seeing that an employee is given tasks commensurate to his/her skills. Exacting a minimum standard of work output is made possible and high priced and scarce skills can thus be more effectively utilised.

Speeds up the Recruitment Process and Indicates Training Needs

Classification is also a planning device. In an organisation, once specifications for necessary personnel and their qualifications are determined at various levels, it becomes easy to plan for their supply. It becomes easy especially for the recruiting agency to prescribe standards for application as well as for examination of the candidates. The recruiting agency is then in a position to phase the recruitment programme, advertise for a group of similar jobs, organise the schedule of recruitment by time-periods and even devise a speedy recruitment process in a critical area.

Under a good classification system, the recruitment process will also quickly indicate the training needs. In cases of dearth of personnel possessing any particular skills or requisite qualifications, it indicates, to the concerned authority, the need

for developing certain related training programmes. Similarly, when employees from a certain level are being promoted to higher level jobs, it becomes easy in identifying the type of training programme that can prove helpful to these employees to meet the demands of the higher job.

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Helps in Maintaining Uptodate Personnel Records

The classification system also makes it easy to maintain uptodate personnel records. Once record-keeping is made a part of the system, individual cases or that of a group are amenable to organised treatment. Easy availability of such records helps in knowing about the size of the service, each of its levels, of its functional group as well as the rate of turnover. All these are useful for management in handling many service problems, study employment trends and patterns and plan its personnel policies and programmes.

Types of Classification

Classification, being a process of grouping objects, alike in one or more characteristics into classes, there can obviously be several criteria for such classification. But there are two well known types of classification, one which was developed in the Britain and the other in the United States. The basic distinction between the British and the US systems really lies in the "position" versus "rank" concept in the civil services. Almost all over the world, the government posts have been classified by these two well known methods.

Position Classification

The more sophisticated of the two types is the 'position' classification system. This is prevalent in the USA. Position connotes a group of current duties and responsibilities assigned by a competent authority requiring the full time or part time employment of one person. It has been defined as the work consisting of the duties and responsibilities assigned by competent authority for performance by an employee or an officer.

In position classification, a person's rank, salary etc., depends on the functions of the position—the duties and responsibilities attached to the job he/she performs. Here the duties and responsibilities which are attached to the job are more important than the person discharging those duties. In the view of Milton M Mandell "By classification is meant the grouping of positions on the basis of similarity of duties and qualifications requirements". The International Civil Service Advisory Board of the United Nations also endorsed this view and states "It is the consensus of the organisations that the general level of duties and responsibilities constitutes the only realistic basis for achieving a comparable classification of posts".

In position classification, positions that are comparable are brought together into a common group called 'class'. The 'class' or 'class of positions' is made up of

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positions which are sufficiently similar in (a) kind of subject matter of work, (b) level of difficulty and responsibility, (c) qualification requirements of the work, so as to enable similar treatment in personnel and pay administration. So that is how a class is formed in position classification system.

Now there is one more term known as 'grade' and let us understand what it is. A grade is used to denote all classes of positions which (although different with respect to kind or subject matter of work) are sufficiently similar as to (a) the level of difficulty and responsibility and (b) the level of qualification for the job. (For example, civil engineer, accountant, geologist etc.) Hence in a grade, all classes are brought together irrespective of the occupation, but those which are of comparable levels of responsibility.

Under the position classification system, each position should be placed in its appropriate class. Each class should be placed in its appropriate grade. Thus, we bring together positions which are alike or very closely related into a class. positions which are in one class are closely comparable in duties, responsibilities and needed qualifications, and can be dealt with as a unit for personnel, budgetary and organisational purposes. We bring together into class-series all the classes which are in the same occupational group. Classes in a series form a logical occupational pattern and define the hierarchy of responsibility for that occupational group. We have one more logical grouping, that of grade. We bring together into a grade all classes, regardless of occupation, which are of comparable responsibility. Hence, grades form logical groups for the setting of pay scales.

Rank Classification

This type of classification is followed in Britain and India. This is the traditional way, in which public servants are classified in a hierarchical order according to their rank, in a sense, as in the case of the Army.

The classification of the British "Treasury Classes" to which the Indian Public Services is a close parallel, is a good illustration of classification by rank system. Here the status and salary of a person are determined with reference to the service he/she is assigned after recruitment. For example, a person belonging to the Indian Administrative Service may serve either in the Secretariat, or in the field or in any Corporation, but he/she would be drawing the same salary and holding the same status in each case.

Modern position classification does not accept the traditional notion that environmental background and general educational attainment makes a person qualified enough to handle any and every kind of job in the government. It is thus a science of administrative specification and requires that specific skills and knowledge be prescribed and accepted for each 'level', 'post' or 'position' in the public service.

Position classification thus tries to classify public service on the basis of a uniform job-language. In position classification, the main objective is to lay the foundation for equitable treatment for the public service employees by the accurate definition, orderly arrangement, and fair evaluation of positions of each employee in the public service. Whereas rank classification is based on job-performance in respect of a cluster of functional positions by a group of people, with diverse qualifications/experience/aptitude but of same or similar rank, as in Army or India's cadre based services.

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1.16 CLASSIFICATION OF SERVICES IN INDIA DURING THE PRE-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

As a result of the British rule, the civil services in India came to be classified on the British pattern. The system of classification of services during the British period also, underwent various changes time and again. Let us now discuss briefly, the classification of services in the pre-Independence period.

CLASSIFICATION OF SERVICES INTO COVENANTED AND UNCOVENANTED

Till nearly the end of the 19th century, superior services in India were manned almost exclusively by Europeans, most of whom belonged to what was known as the "Covenanted Services". The civil servants appointed in England for service in India had to subscribe to covenants with the Company "by which they bound themselves not to trade, not to receive presents, to subscribe for pensions and so forth". The Writers had to sign certain agreements and conditions between the company and himself. These were embodied in an accompanying document called 'Covenant' and hence the term 'Covenanted Civil Services', evolved.

The policy of the East India Company in the initial stages, particularly since 1781, was to reserve all civil posts in India for the covenanted civil servants from England. The Charter Act of 1793 categorically laid down that all civil posts below the rank of a councillor should be filled by covenanted civilians recruited in England. But the limited supply of covenanted civilians could not meet the growing needs of the Company. Therefore, persons who did not belong to the covenanted civil service which comprised people from England, had to be appointed to serve in subordinate capacities, and they came to be known those belonging to the "Uncovenanted Service" in contradistinction to the covenanted civilians. The uncovenanted service comprised mostly Indians.

Slowly, the spread of western education in India, aided principally through the efforts of Lord Macaulay, awakened in Indians lively expectations of being employed in the higher offices reserved for the covenanted Civil Service. The Charter Act 1833, provided that no formal positive disqualifications were to be there in the employment of Indians in any office. Later, the Charter Act of 1853,

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threw open all posts in the Covenanted Civil Service to public competition. But difficulties arising from the conduct of competitive examinations being held in England practically debarred Indians, save in a very few cases, from availing themselves of the right to compete. Then the transfer of power from the Company to the Crown through the Government of India Act, 1858 and the Proclamation of Queen Victoria promising "free and impartial admission of Indians to offices in Her Majesty's Service" brought new hopes to the people in the country.

THREEFOLD CLASSIFICATION OF SERVICES AS RECOMMENDED BY AITCHISON COMMISSION

In 1886, the Public Service Commission under the presidentship of Sir Charles Aitchison (more widely known as Aitchison Commission) was set up. It was to examine the system under which 'natives of India' were admitted to the higher branches of the civil administration *i.e.*, Covenanted Civil Service either under the Government of India Act, 1858 or the Act of 1870. It recommended a three-tier system of classification of services:

- (i) The old Covenanted Service was to be designated "Imperial Civil Service of India" recruitment to which was through conduct of a competitive examination in England. They were appointed by the Secretary of State for India.
- (ii) A local civil service in each province to be called the "Provincial Civil Service" was recommended to be constituted consisting of all those offices not reserved for the members of Covenanted Service. It proposed to remove the lower grade appointments from this service and to add at its top a few highly paid posts normally reserved for the members of the Covenanted Civil Service. Recruitment to this service was to be done in each province under various methods adapted to local circumstances.
- (iii) The third tier was "Subordinate Civil Service" which was to be constituted by transferring the lower grade posts from the uncovenanted service.

The orders of the Secretary of State on the Aitchison Commission report were embodied in a resolution of the Government of India passed on 21st April 1892. The old scheme of classification into covenanted and uncovenanted was done away with. The "Imperial Civil Service of India" and the "Provincial Civil Service", designated after the name of the province to which it belonged, came into existence. The Imperial Services and the Provincial Services constituted the higher services and apart from Subordinate Services there was another category of Inferior Services comprising clerks, typists, peons and messengers. In the case of higher civil services, the classification was based not on any rational formula of duties or functions, but on the basis of their recruitment.

In fact, the Royal Commission on Public Services in India known as Islington Commission (1912-15) pointed out this anomaly and suggested a new classification, consisting of two classes in the Services—Class I and Class II.

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CHANGES BROUGHT ABOUT IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF SERVICES UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT, 1919

After the introduction of the Government of India Act, 1919, the Imperial Services or superior services as they were called, came to be divided into two classes according to the subjects administered, *e.g.*, subjects which were under the direct management of the central government of India and subjects which were primarily controlled by the provincial governments. The former were classified as Central Services and the other class which worked primarily under the provincial governments came to be known as the All India Services, as these were recruited by the Secretary of State to work in any part of India.

Since the Government of India Act, 1919 introduced the system of dyarchy at the provincial level, the departments of the provincial governments were divided into 'reserved' and 'transferred'. As a result, the services operating at the provincial level, came to be differentiated into one sphere or the other. Those services which were assigned primarily in the reserved sphere were the Indian Civil Service, the Indian Police, the Irrigation Branch of the Indian Service of Engineers (the whole cadre of this service in Assam, and except the provinces of Burma and Bombay) and the Indian Forest Service. The recruitment and control of these services was the responsibility of the Secretary of State. The services which were functioning in the transferred departments were the Indian Educational Service, the Indian Agricultural Services, the Indian Service of Engineers (Roads & Buildings branch), the Indian Forest Service (in Bombay & Burma) and the civil side of the Indian Medical Service.

It was decided to retain these services, not only in "reserved" areas but also in "transferred" spheres, with the Secretary of State in Council continuing to recruit and control them. The basic conditions of service of all these services were framed, determined and guaranteed by Secretary of State and in effect, they were the Secretary of State Services, with the right of deployment vested ultimately in the superior authority in London.

Following the Government of India Act, 1919, changes were made in the service structure. The superior or Imperial Services were separated into All-India Services and the Central Services—usage that has continued to this date. The Civil Services (Classification, Control and Appeal) Rules made in 1930 indicated that the public services in India were categorised into (i) the All India Services, (ii) the Central Services, Class I, (iii) the Central services, Class II, (iv) the Provincial Services, (v) the Specialist Services, and (vi) the Subordinate Services. Of these, the Provincial Services came under the jurisdiction of the provincial governments.

The specialist services covered some of the technical fields like engineering. The Central Services were divided into (i) Class I, (ii) Class II, (iii) Subordinate Services, and (iv) Inferior Services.

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The main distinction then between the Class I and Class II Services was that for the former, all first appointments were made by the Governor-General in Council while for Class II positions, a lower authority was empowered to make the appointments. Class I and Class II officers generally enjoyed the "gazetted" status, while the 'subordinate' and the 'inferior' officers had no such status symbol. The Subordinate Services consisted of posts carrying ministerial, executive, or outdoor duties and the inferior services those posts of peons or messengers, whose maximum pay at that time did not exceed ₹ 30/- per month.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE FIRST CENTRAL PAY COMMISSION

The important step in the direction of classification of services came in 1946, when the first Central Pay Commission reviewed the matter. It took exception to the description of the services as "subordinate" and "inferior" on the ground of its being derogatory and recommended its substitution by a numerical calling. It recommended that these two services be called Class III and IV respectively. The technical services were also drawn into the classification so that no separate class of technical services is hereafter made. Accordingly the fourfold classification of services into I, II, III & IV was adopted by the Government.

1.17 CLASSIFICATION OF CIVIL SERVICES SINCE INDEPENDENCE

Civil Services, after Independence, have been categorised into three types— All India Services (common to both Centre & States), Central Services (for purely Central subjects) and State Services (for administration of subjects under State jurisdiction). The All-India Services, like the Central Services, are recruited and trained by the Central Government, but, for work, they are assigned to different States. They serve state governments and their service conditions are also governed by states, except that the disciplinary action against them can only be taken by the President of India in consultation with the UPSC. Frequently, they also serve the central government on deputation, and after a fixed tenure they are expected to return to their respective states.

The rules and regulations governing the new services are framed in consultation with state governments and the Union Public Service Commission (UPSC), in accordance with All-India Services Act, 1951. Art. 312 of the Constitution of India has constitutionalised the 'formation of Indian Administrative Service (IAS) and Indian Police Service (IPS)'. This was done on the eve of Independence as a result of the decision taken in Premiers' Conference in 1946. Later, Indian Forest Service was also included as the third All India Service.

CENTRAL SERVICES

(a) *The Civil Services of the Union are classified into four categories as follows:*

- (i) *Central Services Class I:* This category has services like Indian Foreign Service, Central Health Service, Railway Service, Central Secretariat Service etc.
- (ii) *Central Services Class II:* This includes services like Central Secretariat Stenographer Service Grade I, Telegraph Engineering Service, Telegraph Traffic Service etc.
- (iii) *Central Services Class III:* This comprises services like Central Secretariat Clerical Service, Post and Telegraph Accounts Service etc.
- (iv) *Central Services Class IV:* This category consists of peons, sweepers, gardeners etc.

(b) *General Central Service*

Central civil posts of any class not included in any other Central Civil Service are deemed to be included in the General Central Service of the corresponding class and a government servant appointed to any such post is deemed to be a member of that service unless he/she is already a member of any other central civil service of the same class.

STATE CIVIL SERVICES

These are services exclusively under the jurisdiction of the state government, and primarily administer the state subjects. However, in recent years, 33-1/3% of posts in the All-India Services are filled by promotion from the State Civil Services and 15% of these 33-1/3% quota from other State Services.

This triple scheme of services *viz.*, All-India, Central and State, somewhat reflects the constitutional pattern of concurrent subjects, union subjects and state subjects. This is a unique feature of the federal system in India which is not found elsewhere.

1.18 CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF THE EXISTING CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

The classification system of the services in India has been criticised on many grounds—As the Second Pay Commission Report puts it, “the lines of division run horizontally across the service, resulting in a grouping of services and posts on a non-departmental and nonoccupational basis”. There may be several grades in one class, which may be indicative of the salary and hierarchy in the services, but not of functions or occupation.

The designation of the officer in India does not indicate anything beyond his/her position in the hierarchy of officials from top management to the lowest rung of the ladder. For example, the Class I services in India have the following

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hierarchy-Secretary, Special or Additional Secretary, Joint Secretary (the top executives, corresponding to the Administrative class of the British Civil Services). The middle management (corresponding to the Executive class in the British Civil Service) consists of the two levels *viz.*, Deputy Secretary and Under Secretary. Corresponding to the "Clerical Officers" class of the British Civil Service, there is in India, the position of "Section Officer" or a "Superintendent", which is a class II post with "Gazetted" status. Below this level, the posts of Assistant belong to Class II without the "Gazetted" status. The upper division clerks, lower division clerks, typists and the like positions are grouped in Class III. Both these groups correspond roughly to the Clerical Assistant Class of the British Civil Service. The Class IV staff comprises "peons" and "messengers" and other employees performing "house-keeping functions". Designations in Class I category do not indicate the nature of work done by the incumbent. The title of section officer in Class II only shows that the incumbent is a first line supervisor, while generally, the titles below these levels do indicate the nature of work of an incumbent.

This is precisely because of the fact that the civil services in India are organised on the "generalist" principle rather than on the "specialist" principle. But, at present the services, particularly at the higher levels, are categorised into generalist, functional and technical Classification of Services (Cadres) services. The IAS, the IPS, the IFS, and the Central Secretariat Service may fall into the first category. The functional services include the Indian Revenue Service, the Indian Customs Service, the Defence Accounts Service and the like. The technical services include Central Engineering Service, Telegraph Engineering Service, etc. Unlike the practice in the US, there are no specific qualifications needed for entry to the first two categories *e.g.*, generalist and functional. In India, training in functional subjects in the second category of posts is given only after the initial recruitment, and there is no rigid professionalisation, as in the US.

The other differences between the Class I and other services are: (a) while all the first appointments to Class I posts are made by the President, the lower authorities have been delegated powers to make such appointments in other cases; (b) all posts in Class I, and the bulk of the posts in Class II, are "gazetted" but others are not; (c) The President is the disciplinary authority for the Class I, and the appellate authority for Class II; the disciplinary and appellate authorities for Class III and IV are mostly heads of departments or officers working under them; and (d) while direct recruitment to all Class I and Class II services/posts is made in consultation with the UPSC, there is no such general rule in regard to Class III and Class IV services.

The Indian Classification System has been criticised on many grounds. In 1959, the employees' organisations represented to the Second Pay Commission that the existing system of classification should be abolished on the grounds that

it promoted "class consciousness" and constituted a sort of caste system "which may satisfy some vanities, but serves no public purpose". The Pay Commission, while agreeing with this view, noted:

"Other countries, including those with a large and complex civil service organisation, have apparently, not found it necessary to superimpose upon their civil service grades and occupational groups a broad horizontal classification like ours, and we do not think that any serious inconvenience will be caused to the administration in India if the classification under consideration is given up. We, therefore, recommend the abolition of the present classification."

In spite of this specific recommendation, however, the classification of services in India continues to be on the same pattern. Recently, another suggestion about the regrouping of Central Services into a "unified" civil service was made on the grounds that it will eliminate narrow departmental prejudices, and will provide the central administration with a body of people trained in the work actually handled in the concerned departments and agencies. However, as a senior civil servant in India has pointed out that in view of the fact that the Central, State, and All-India Services more or less reflect the constitutional pattern of union, state and concurrent spheres of administrative power, it is not, therefore, possible to have a unified civil service co-terminus with the dimensions of the entire country.

Within the union and the state fields, separately the possibility of a unified service could, perhaps, be considered, particularly in respect of non-technical services as distinguished from scientific and technical services. Moreover, because of the need of growing professionalisation in the services, it will not be in the interest of efficient administration to constitute a "unified" civil service for the Union Government. This is quite a controversial issue and in view of the repeated advice by the Administrative Reforms Commission for such a reform, the issue was examined at length at a later stage, but no decision was taken officially.

The classification system in India suffers from some other defects. Firstly, the numerical calling in the classification *i.e.*, Class I, II, III & IV is only a matter of convenience, as there is a constant overlapping of pay criteria in services and posts between two different classes. Secondly, the system has never been designed nor intended either for orderly grouping of the services or as a tool of managing the personnel. And thirdly, the different provisions of pay and other benefits of service necessitate the maintaining of a large staff to check and calculate those benefits. Thus, there is ample justification for the system to be revised under a plan of classification for the entire personnel of the government.

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1.19 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS COMMISSION (ARC)

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The issue of evolving a rational classification system of services has been examined by the Administrative Reforms Commission, and the third and fourth Central Pay Commissions.

The extent of variations in some of the pay scales for jobs of similar and comparable duties and responsibilities both at the centre and in the states, and of the disparities in the pay scales obtaining between one state and another state for the same or similar positions has been a serious disturbing factor in administration. As the Administrative Reforms Commission observed, "this is one of the major factor for strikes, agitations, inter-service tensions and rivalries, indifferent attitude to work, poor performance, frustration and low morale of the employees. Jobs similar in nature and with comparable difficulties, duties and responsibilities should, therefore, carry the same scales not only in the central government but also between the Centre and the States....".

There are many examples where certain jobs have been overvalued and certain others carrying heavier responsibilities have been undervalued *e.g.*, qualified engineers in the Government of India doing only file work, of medical personnel joining lower positions at the headquarters, qualified educationists occupying a position in a Ministry requiring just an average competence, of agricultural scientists being attracted to headquarters organisations for doing routine paper work, leaving important field positions. Similarly, the private secretaries of ministers are in the grade of Deputy Secretaries and occasionally even Joint Secretaries. There are similar anomalies even in the lower posts. The existing pay structure introduces differences based on the Service origin of the person holding the post. Secretariat posts generally carry a higher pay in comparison with field posts. The pattern which prevails today does not take into account the rapid changes which have taken place in the nature of work that is done by the civil services.

The ARC pointed out some of the defects in the classificatory grading structure, which are as follows:

- (i) In the absence of a careful evaluation of the work-content of jobs at certain levels and the matching of scales of pay thereto, the healthy principle of equal pay for equal work cannot be implemented. Failure to adopt this principle has an adverse effect on the morale of the personnel, and also adds to the cost of administration.
- (ii) The absence of a rational pay structure which could take into account distinct levels of work and responsibility makes it difficult to put through

a programme of career development based on the discovery and development of talent and a planned deployment thereof.

- (iii) The existence of a multiplicity of scales of pay for different groups neither makes for a rational system of remuneration related to work content nor does it facilitate the selection of personnel from different Services for higher positions.

The posts in the civil service should be grouped into categories so that all those which call for similar qualifications and involve similar difficulties and responsibilities fall in the same category. The same pay scale should be applied to all posts in the same category.

The task of grading is burdensome, but should not be an impossible one. All these posts could be evaluated and assigned to common pay scales, each representing a grade. These grades may be divided into three levels, namely, junior, middle and the senior. The progress of an officer of an established service among the grades within each level should, of course, be on the basis of proved performance.

ARC recommended that—

- (1) The posts in the civil service should be grouped into grades so that all those which call for similar qualifications and similar difficulties and responsibilities are grouped in the same grade. The number of such grades may be between 20 and 25.
- (2) All the Class I posts may be evaluated and assigned to, say, nine common pay scales. These nine grades or pay scales may be divided into three levels, namely, junior, middle and senior. The progress of an officer of an established Class I Service among the grades within each level should be on the basis of proved performance. Promotions from the junior to the middle level and from the middle to the senior level should be by selection.
- (3) The Department of Personnel should undertake, urgently, a detailed study for the purpose of determining the grades as well as the posts to which they should be attached.

The Commission was of the view that after all the Class I posts under the centre and those to be manned by the All-India Services in the states have been evaluated and allotted to the various grades, other posts at the centre as well as in the states be taken up for examination and the entire civil service be brought into a framework of 20 to 25 grades.

The advantages of such a unified grading structure are:

- (a) an automatic upward movement in a time scale will be checked;
- (b) each officer will have to display positive merit to deserve promotion from one grade to the next;

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- (c) a more conscious assessment of each officer's work will become a practical necessity with concomitant benefits;
- (d) it will provide sufficient scope for genuine merit to earn accelerated promotion and it will enable government to stop comparatively mediocre officers at a stage where their unmerited progress should be arrested;
- (e) the existence of identical grade in the different services will facilitate mobility;
- (f) the replacement of distinctive pay scales which now apply to different services by a unified system will help in curing the psychological complexes which such pay scales are, at present, bringing in their wake; and
- (g) it will make it unnecessary to provide, save in rare cases, special pays to Secretariat posts.

With the pace at which the number as well as the variety of jobs in the civil service are increasing, the task of getting the best person for each job will be greatly facilitated by a unified grading structure.

1.20 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE III AND IV CENTRAL PAY COMMISSIONS

In the civil service under the central government, the pay range within which the scale of pay of a post falls normally determines its classification. Several exceptions have been made to these general criteria and certain categories, which on the basis of their pay range, though they qualify for the lower class, have been placed in the next higher class.

The division of the civil service into four classes was adopted on the recommendations of the First Pay Commission. As said earlier, a number of employee associations had urged before the Second Pay Commission, that this scheme of classification promoted "class consciousness" within the service and should therefore, be done away with.

The Commission came to the conclusion that the existing classification served no practical purpose and, on the other hand, it had an unhealthy psychological effect. The Commission recommended that the classification should be given up and the amendments that would be necessary in respect of the Central Civil Service (Classification, Control and Appeal) Rules of 1957 and of certain other rules and orders should be carried out.

The government, however, could not accept this recommendation since it was found that the existing classification was convenient for personnel management purposes. A proposal to replace the existing nomenclature of Class I, Class II, Class III and Class IV by Group A, Group B, Group C and Group D also seems to have been considered since the word 'Class' might hurt the susceptibilities

of some sections of the employees. This proposal was also not accepted since it was felt that a mere change in the name was of no practical value.

The Third Pay Commission, however, felt that, some kind of a classification for purpose of personnel administration was necessary. This classification should take into account equivalence of the work content at the different levels of various occupational groups to rationalise pay ranges.

The present system of classification is fairly well known, and the employees have become accustomed to it. It has the advantage that orders can be issued, or the existing orders amended, by referring to the particular classes covered. In other words, it may be feasible to redesignate the existing Classes I, II, III and IV as Groups A, B, C and D. In conformity with the revised pay structure, the pay ranges applicable to each of these groups should, according to the Third Pay Commission, be the following:

<i>Pay or maximum of the scale of the post</i>	<i>Grouping</i>
Not less than ₹ 1300 (950)	A
Not less than ₹ 900 (575) but less than ₹ 1300 (950)	B
Over ₹ 280 (1 10) but less than ₹ 900 (575)	C
₹ 280 (1 10) or less	D

(*Note:* The figures in brackets are those of the Second Pay Commission's monetary minimum and maximum for the purpose of classification of services posts into classes I, II, III & IV. The terminology, Group, in place of Class, came with the Third Pay Commission.)

Like the Third Pay Commission, the Fourth Pay Commission also had an occasion to go into the question of classification of services and posts. While noting that the staff side of the National Council (JCM) had suggested discontinuance of classification of employees under different groups, the Commission was of the opinion that classification made it possible for government to examine and decide matters of common interest to the group or groups concerned. It played vital role in disciplinary matters also, besides being by now a well understood system. The Fourth Pay Commission recommended groupwise classification as follows:

<i>Pay or maximum of the scale of the post</i>	<i>Grouping</i>
Not less than ₹ 4000/-	Group A
Not less than ₹ 2900/- but less than ₹ 4000/-	Group B
Over ₹ 1500/- but less than ₹ 2900/-	Group C
₹ 1150 or less	Group D

This scheme of classification has been accepted by the Government.

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1.21 SUMMARY

- Public personnel administration is a branch of human resource management that is concerned with the acquisition, development, utilization and compensation of a public organization's workforce.
- Personnel administration is that part of administration which is concerned with people at work and with their relationships within an organisation. It refers to the entire spectrum of an organisation's interaction with its human resources from recruitment activity to retirement process.
- It was F.W. Taylor's scientific management which laid the foundation for the development of personnel administration. Taylor laid emphasis on scientific selection and systematic training and development of the individual worker. H.L. Gantt, a close associate of Taylor, in scientific management movements, foresaw the need for obtaining the willing cooperation of the worker.
- Human Resource Management focuses on all issues related to 'people' in the organization. The people in an organization are undoubtedly the most important assets. Therefore, special care must be exercised in managing them. Human resource management is concerned with practices involved in the acquisition, development, motivation and maintenance of people. This is important to achieve the organizational goals.
- Human Resources Managers are involved in the process of organizing, developing, motivating and maintaining the human resources in the organization. Acquisition implies a need to put the right people on the right job.
- Civil Services, after Independence, have been categorised into three types— All India Services (common to both Centre & States), Central Services (for purely Central subjects) and State Services (for administration of subjects under State jurisdiction). The All-India Services, like the Central Services, are recruited and trained by the Central Government, but, for work, they are assigned to different States.

1.22 REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the principal objectives of personnel administration?
2. Discuss the nature of personnel administration.
3. State the important characteristics of public personnel administration in India.
4. Describe the importance of human resource management.
5. What is the structure of civil services in India after independence?
6. What are the bases of classification of civil services in India?

1.23 FURTHER READINGS

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CHAPTER— 2

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RECRUITMENT, TRAINING AND APPRAISALS

STRUCTURE

- 2.1 Learning Objectives
- 2.2 Introduction
- 2.3 Recruitment—Meaning and Types
- 2.4 Problems of Recruitment
- 2.5 Recruitment System in India
- 2.6 Public Service Commissions (Union, State and Joint Public Service Commissions)
- 2.7 Training—Concept, Techniques and Types
- 2.8 Training in India
- 2.9 Promotion—Concept and Types
- 2.10 Principles of Promotion
- 2.11 Methods of Testing Merit for Promotion
- 2.12 Essentials of a Good Promotion Policy
- 2.13 Promotion System in India
- 2.14 Performance Appraisals
- 2.15 Factors that Distort Appraisals
- 2.16 Improving Performance Appraisals
- 2.17 Summary
- 2.18 Review Questions
- 2.19 Further Readings

2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- state the meaning methods of recruitment;
- explain importance and functions of UPSC and State Public Service commission;
- discuss the meaning, objectives and techniques of training;
- describe the concept and elements of promotion, pay and service conditions;
- understand the fundamental concept and use of performance appraisals.

2.2 INTRODUCTION

The traditional methods of indicating job postings through advertisements, campus recruitments and postings on the organization's notice boards are largely supplemented by e-recruitment initiatives. Job postings on the organization's websites and the websites of prominent recruiting agencies are quite common. You would have seen a few such postings on the websites of your organization as well as many others. You might have also seen the job listings on familiar sites like, jobs.com or naukri.com. Such postings help human resource managers to access a larger number of potential applicants. Several organizations prefer an electronic resume to a hard copy of the resume. Electronic resumes can be instantly scanned for relevant information. Some times the organization may get a large number of applicants. They may have a standard format for filing applications, which can be screened later on defined parameters. E-filing of applicants may be therefore encouraged. An initial list of potential job applicants can be obtained quickly. It helps save a lot of time. Moreover, it proves to be a good data source for future reference. Thought works encourages prospective applicants to use the online application on its website.

The Indian Railways one of the largest recruiters in India has recently adopted this method. Unlike traditional advertisements that fade away from memory, e-job postings may be kept open for a longer time or 'any time basis'. This is useful when the organization requires a large number of recruits or faces attrition that necessitates recruitment off and on.

According to Edwin B. Flippo, "recruitment is the process of searching the candidates for employment and stimulating them to apply for jobs in the organisation". Recruitment is the activity that links the employers and the job seekers. A few definitions of recruitment are:

- A process of finding and attracting capable applicants for employment. The process begins when new recruits are sought and ends when their applications are submitted. The result is a pool of applications from which new employees are selected.
- It is the process to discover sources of manpower to meet the requirement of staffing schedule and to employ effective measures for attracting that manpower in adequate numbers to facilitate effective selection of an efficient working force.

Recruitment of candidates is the function preceding the selection, which helps create a pool of prospective employees for the organisation so that the management can select the right candidate for the right job from this pool. The main objective of the recruitment process is to expedite the selection process.

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Recruitment is a continuous process whereby the firm attempts to develop a pool of qualified applicants for the future human resources needs even though specific vacancies do not exist. Usually, the recruitment process starts when a manager initiates an employee requisition for a specific vacancy or an anticipated vacancy.

2.3 RECRUITMENT – MEANING AND TYPES

The process of recruitment is one of the crucial tasks of modern Government and lies at the heart of the problem of personnel administration. The main test of any machinery of recruitment lies in its ability to recruit the right type of persons for the right jobs. Recruitment is the key to a strong public service, and, as Stahl puts it, the “cornerstone of the whole public personnel structure.” J.D. Kingsley says.

Public recruitment may be defined as that process through which suitable candidates are included to compete for appointments to the public service. It is thus an integral part of a more inclusive process—selection—which also includes the process of examination and certification.

Pfifner and Presthus observe, “Personnel recruitment for the second half of the twentieth century will have to be geared to a nuclear physical world in which the solutions of human problems will demand the utmost in human competence. The emphasis will be not only on finding, but on building men who are capable of performing the complex tasks of coordinating institutions growing even more complex.”

One of the United Nations Report rightly states that the core design of progressive recruitment policy in any organisation is the reduction, if not the elimination of favouritism, nepotism and incompetence in the selection process.

The first country to develop a scientific system of recruitment was China where recruitment through competitive examinations was first introduced in the second century before Christ.

In modern times, Prussia was the first to introduce a system of recruitment gradually replacing the ‘patronage’ system from 1857 onwards. In the United States, the ‘Spoils system’ was discarded in favour of the ‘merit principle’ by the Civil Service Act of 1883. In India, the merit principle has been in existence since 1853, when it was first introduced during the British rule.

The maladies of the spoils system were so glaring that the civil service commissions were designed as reform movements to uproot the spoils system. Recruitment was, thus, conceived of in purely negative terms—its task being mainly confined to ‘Keep the rascals out.’

According to J. Donald Kingsley, "The rascals have been kept out, perhaps, but so have many men of vision and ability." Recruitment policies therefore should be positive and calculated to attract the best and the most competent.

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ELEMENTS OF POSITIVE RECRUITMENT POLICY

- (a) Discovery and cultivation of the employment market for posts in the public services;
- (b) Use of attractive recruitment literature and publicity;
- (c) Use of scientific tasks for determining abilities of the candidates;
- (d) Tapping capable candidates from within the services;
- (e) Placement programme which assigns the right man to the right job; and
- (f) A follow-up probationary programme as an integral of the recruitment process.

FORMS OF RECRUITMENT

There are three main forms of civil service recruitment which are as follows:

- (a) **Cadet System:** It is followed in many countries mainly for recruitment in the defence services. Under this system, recruitment is made at a young age, usually between the ages of 16 and 20 years, followed by a long period of institutional training during which the cadets are given instruction on courses in general education and specialised skills required for the jobs.
- (b) **General Mental Ability:** The system which is followed in India and many European countries lays stress on recruiting young men and women after graduation in the liberal arts of basic sciences between the age group of 21 and 28 years. Under this the Government seeks to recruit candidates with broad educational attainments and mental ability. It is based on the concept of career civil service.
- (c) **Expertise:** The Government recruits people with specific qualifications, technical knowledge or experience suited for the recruitments to various posts. The age-scale of recruitment varies from 18 to 45 years. This system is followed in the U.S.A. and in Canada to a certain extent. In this open recruitment from outside takes place at all levels of the hierarchy and Government service is not based on the concept of a career civil service. Eligible candidates from non-Governmental positions may also be recruited to Government posts, if required. This system has the same objectives as the 'lateral entry system' under which a certain quota is fixed for recruitment to the senior civil service posts from among outsiders not belonging to the same service through competitive selection. The 'lateral entry system' may be followed in recruitment on the basis of general mental ability.

2.4 PROBLEMS OF RECRUITMENT

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The recruitment process involves a number of problems. They are as follows:

1. Location of the Recruiting Authority — This problem is of such general importance that the recruiting authority is determined by the Constitution of the country itself. Generally, there are two methods of locating the recruiting agency. In one system, the power is vested in the electorate. This effective system of recruitment is usually adopted for policy making posts (*i.e.*, chief executive) or in electing personnel of a local administration (*i.e.*, village panchayats). The other system is where the power of appointment is given to a Government organisation. Constitutionally the recruiting bodies called Public Service Commissions function as the personnel recruiting agency on behalf of the Government.

2. Methods of Recruitment — There are two main methods of recruitment, one is recruitment from outside and the other is through departmental promotion. The latter is one in which appointment to the higher posts in the service is made only from within the service itself either through a system of promotion or through restricted competitive examinations. It has been argued that the best method is to have direct recruitment in the lower grades and recruitment through promotion in the higher grades of service.

3. Qualifications of the Employees — One of the main problems in the recruitment system of modern civil service is laying down proper qualifications to suit the needs of the diverse tasks of administration. Broadly there are two types of qualifications required to public servants — general and special.

General Qualifications: The modern State lays down certain general standards for its employees. They relate to his civil status, domicile, sex and age. Since the growth of nationstates it has become a universal practice to recruit only citizens.

The qualification of being domicile is generally laid down in public services in countries with federal systems. This qualification was first introduced in the U.S.A. to give the representation to each federating unit in the national services. In India, domicile rules were prevalent till 1957 and have been discarded now.

Public service, until recently, was taboo for women in most countries, a restriction which gradually disappeared with spread of the influence of the doctrine of equality, and the increasing employment of women in all types of services. In India, all public services have been thrown open to women.

In countries like Britain and India where the concept of civil service as career has been adopted. Comparatively lower age limits for clerical and semi-skilled jobs (between 16-20 years) and for administrative and technical (21 to 28 years) have been provided. But America which does not follow the Government

service as a career principle prefers to recruit trained and experienced personnel in public service. Hence, the age scale there varies from 18 to 50 years.

Special Qualifications : In respect of educational qualifications, different countries prescribe different patterns. The British system lays down definite educational qualifications for entrants, with an emphasis on liberal education (classical and the humanities). In India, every university graduate can sit for the civil service competitive examinations and the subjects are so broad based as to include the widest range of university subjects. The American system being influenced by the doctrine of equality does not prescribe any educational qualifications.

Anybody who qualifies in the competitive examination may enter the civil service. Technical experience is an additional qualification often laid down for technical services.

This is essential to fill up technical posts in Public administration by professionals like doctors, engineers and lawyers. The public servant must possess executive ability, tact, resourcefulness, integrity, energy, faithfulness and capacity to get along with others. He should be a leader of men, and imbued with a sense of public interests.

4. Methods of Determining Qualifications: The following methods of determining qualifications have been adopted in most countries today:

- (1) Personal judgement of the appointing authority,
- (2) Certificates of character, ability and educational qualifications,
- (3) Record of previous experience—educational and occupational, and
- (4) Examinations.

Written Examination: Written tests may be either essay-type or objective type in form. Essay type is meant to examine the power and clarity of expression and the standard of logical thinking of the candidate. The objective type is usually employed to test the general knowledge and speed of thinking of the candidate. Either or both types are employed in civil service recruitment. Written tests fall under the following main categories:

1. **Ability tests:** They may be either objective or essay type in form. In both, the purpose is to assess the general mental ability of the candidate, his memory, response to problems and power of reasoning. Besides, other tests have been derived in the U.S.A. to test the specific character traits of candidates. These may be listed as follows :

- (a) General Intelligence test was invented by Binet and Simon of America in 1905. It is a device of measuring the mind through such measures as Intelligence Scale and Pressey Series.

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- (b) Unit Trait system was devised by L.L. Thurstone and his group. It is a process of identifying unit traits of intelligence, for example, perception, space factor, memory, reasoning ability and comprehension.
 - (c) Social intelligence test was also devised by Thurstone and his group. It measures the quality of social intelligence, that is, the quality of adaptability to all kinds of new situations and ability to influence people.
 - (d) Administrative ability test is known as the Gottschold test and it tests the administrative ability. Some of the qualities tested are –
 - (i) ability to appraise people;
 - (ii) capacity to take prompt decisions; and
 - (iii) social behaviour.
 - (e) Mechanical intelligence test is used to test the ability of mechanical performance needed for lower level skilled and semi-skilled grades, e.g., clerks, typists and machine operators.
2. *Aptitude Tests:* Various aptitude tests are extensively used for recruitment in the defence and other technical services in the U.K. and the U.S.A. which are meant to test the particular aptitude of the students towards that job.
 3. *Achievement Tests:* The academic qualifications laid down for recruitment to various services are referred to as achievement tests, for example, in India the achievement test for taking the civil service examination is graduation.
 4. *Personality Tests:* Various kinds of complex personality tests have been devised in western countries to discover all possible traits of human personality, such as the Laired Personal Inventory method was devised to measure emotion and temperament; Bern Reuter Flanagan Personality Inventory to test confidence and sociability; and Alloport A.S. Test to test qualities of ascendance and submission. These are highly complex psychiatric devices meant to test hidden traits of human personality.
 5. *Oral Interview:* However, the most common, the least complex and expensive method of personality test is the viva voce (also called the oral interview). This test is normally supplemented by a written test. The interview is generally conducted by a board of three to five experts consisting of members appointed by the civil service commissions. These tests can never be entirely free from bias or subjectivity. They are meant to test the candidates' alertness, intelligence, presence of mind and general personality.

2.5 RECRUITMENT SYSTEM IN INDIA

In India, recruitment system is essentially based on the British pattern. Recruitment qualifications at the initial stage are not based on any kind of specialised knowledge or experience. The method of testing merit of the applicants is to assess the general knowledge of the candidate on a variety of subjects. Entrance to civil services is based on merit which is tested by competitive examinations open to all citizens irrespective of religion, sex, caste or creed. Direct recruitment to the administrative and most of the executive services is made on the basis of competitive examinations based mainly on the following:

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- (i) Civil Services Preliminary Examination (objective type) for the selection of candidates for the main examination;
- (ii) Civil Services Main Examination (Written);
- (iii) Interview of those candidates who have qualified in the written test at the final state of recruitment.

2.6 PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSIONS (UNION, STATE AND JOINT PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSIONS)

The civil servants occupy an important rôle in the successful administration of state at different levels. Therefore, their recruitment, training, emoluments, conditions of service, promotion policies, etc. assume importance. For an impartial consideration of these matters relating to civil servants, an independent and expert authority is required which is known as the institution of public service commission.

One of the important features of our Constitution is the inclusion of Public Service Commission at both Union and State levels in the Constitution itself.

While UPSC and SPSC are constitutional bodies, a joint public service commission is created by an Act of Parliament.

THE NEED OF AN INDEPENDENT AGENCY

Recruitment of civil servants has to be neutral, unbiased and free from prejudices of any kind. Then alone any merit system will inspire confidence. To ensure objectivity and impartiality in recruitment, several measures have been taken. The constitution of an independent agency in the form of a public service commission for recruitment is one.

Through this agency:

- (i) the executive branch has been divested of the power of making recruitment to the superior levels of civil services.
- (ii) the agency thus created is an extra-departmental body such as a commission, which functions outside the normal machinery of government.

(iii) a special constitutional status is conferred on this agency to ensure autonomous functioning.

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It must be remembered that the commission is only a recruiting agency, and not an appointing authority. The authority of making appointments rests with the government. The commission is an advisory and recommendatory body. Its decisions are not mandatory. Normally, government accepts its recommendations, but government may not always accept what the commission suggests. However, in such cases the reasons for not accepting the recommendations have to be explained and recorded.

WHY A COMMISSION TYPE OF ORGANISATION?

The constitution provided a commission as distinct from the customary departmental type for undertaking the task of recruitment of civil servants. The fathers of the constitution were perhaps guided in their decision by the fact that the task requires experts and longer specialized knowledge also and that facilitates collective deliberation by a group of experts who are able to pool their knowledge and experience to arrive at informed and objective decisions. Such a method of making decisions collectively is described as corporate mode of functioning or decision making.

Further a plural body like public service commission consisting of experts in parts professional and technical weightage in the process of decision making. When several heads combine for deliberations, biases are eliminated and objectivity is ensured. A commission functions outside the normal governmental machinery, hence greater flexibility and innovativeness of approach is possible. Bureaucratic rigidities and delays, which characterize government departments can thus be avoided.

Significance of a Constitutional Status for the Commission

The constitutional status is intended to ensure the Commission to function without fear or favour. This can be facilitated when its composition, role and authority, privileges of its members, method of appointment and removal of members, qualifications for appointment and ground for removal etc. are constitutionally protected. The Commission can function without being influenced by political or other extraneous consideration. Confirmation of constitutional status is, thus, meant to provide safeguards against any possible encroachment on the authority and independence of the commission either by the executive or the legislature.

COMPOSITION OF UNION PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

For the purpose of the higher level civil services of the Union Government, the Constitution provides for the setting up of the Union Public Service

Commission (UPSC). The number of members of the Commission and the conditions of their service are left to be determined by the President, which means the government. It has since been decided that there shall be a chairman and six to eight members of the Commission. At present the strength of the Commission is nine including the chairman. The chairman and the members of the Commission are appointed by the President. The Constitution provides that at least half the members have to be persons who have served for at least ten years under the Government of India or a State Government.

A member holds office for a term of six years from the date he joins duty or until he attains the age of sixty five years, whichever is earlier. The Chairman is ineligible for any future employment under the government, but other members are entitled to accept the chairmanship of the UPSC or of a State Public Service Commission.

The conditions of service of members cannot be changed to their disadvantage after appointment. Their salaries, allowances, etc. are not submitted to the vote of Parliament as they are charged on the Consolidated Fund of India.

It is also provided that the chairman or a member of the Commission can be removed from office by the President on the ground of misbehaviour. It is only after an inquiry by Supreme Court, on a reference being made to it by the President. Pending the inquiry by the Court, the President may suspend the member concerned. A member including the chairman would be deemed guilty of misbehaviour if he becomes interested in any monetary benefit in the discharge of duties as a member. It is also provided that the President may remove the chairman or any other member from office, on the ground of insolvency, infirmity of mind or body, or if he is engaged during the term of office in any paid employment outside the duties of his office.

FUNCTIONS OF UNION PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

The functions of the UPSC as described in the Constitution are:

- (i) To advise the government on all matters relating to the methods of recruitment and norms to be followed in making appointments to civil services either directly or by promotion.
- (ii) To advise on the suitability of candidates for appointment, promotion and transfer.
- (iii) To conduct examinations for appointment to All India services.
- (iv) To advise on disciplinary matters affecting government servants.
- (v) To advise on claims of legal proceedings instituted against a government servant and on the claims in respect of injuries sustained by a government servant while on duty.

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(vi) To advise on any other matter specifically referred by the President.

There is also a provision for extending the functions of the Commission by Parliament not only in respect of government services but also in respect of services under local authorities, corporations or other public institutions.

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The jurisdiction of the Commission can be reduced by taking away some posts from its purview. For example, the Commission is not consulted in regard to selections for the following appointments :

- (i) membership or chairmanship of tribunals or commissions,
- (ii) posts of high diplomatic nature,
- (iii) Group C and Group D employees who constitute nearly 90% of the total number of the Central Government employees.

The Commission is consulted in matters of censure, compulsory, retirement, removal or dismissal from service, seduction to lower same grade or post or scale, with holding of increments or promotion, recovery of the whole or part of any loss caused to the government by negligence or breach of order. Moreover, the Commission is also consulted in relation to an order of the President on an appeal against any of the above penalties made by a subordinate authority after consideration of any petition or memorandum or otherwise.

The Commission also tenders advice to government on methods of recruitment, and the principle to be followed in making appointments, promotions and transfers from one service to another and the suitability of candidates for such appointments, promotions or transfers.

It is the duty of the Commission to present annually to the President a report as to the work done by the Commission. The report along with the memorandum explaining the action taken by the government on the recommendations of the Commission, is placed before the Parliament. Government, thus, becomes responsible to explain the reasons in case it has not accepted the recommendations of the commission.

Composition of State Public Service Commission

Each state in India has a public service commission. The Constitution stipulates that the Governor determines the number of members of the Commission. At least half of the members of Commission are persons with a minimum of ten years of experience under the central or a state government. Members are appointed by the Governor for a term of six years or until the age of 62 years.

Though the Governor is the appointing authority but members can be removed only by the President. Conditions of service of the members are determined by the Governor but the Constitution stipulates that these shall not

be revised to their disadvantage. Implicit in the foregoing are certain safeguards to ensure the Commission's independence.

A member of a state public service commission on retirement or otherwise can be appointed as chairman or member of UPSC, or as chairman of that or any other state service commission.

As in the case of UPSC, the state public service commission submits its annual report to the Governor. The Governor goes through the report to be placed before the state legislature along with the cases in which the government has not accepted the advice of the Commission. In such cases the government has to record the reasons for non-acceptance or rejection of the recommendations.

The state public service commission performs the same functions in regard to its respective states public services as are performed by the Union Public Service Commission in regard to the Union Government.

A JOINT PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

Two or more states may agree that there should be one public service commission for them. If a resolution to that effect is passed by the House or by each house of legislature (where there are two houses) of the respective states. Parliament may by law provide for the appointment of a Joint State Public Service Commission to serve the needs of those states.

The chairman and other members of this joint commission are also appointed by the President.

INDEPENDENCE OF PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

The following constitutional provisions are intended to make the commission, both UPSC and SPSC, independent of any external influence:

1. Members are appointed for a fixed tenure of six years or until the attainment of sixty-five years of age in the case of UPSC, and sixty-two years in the case of SPSC.
2. The conditions of service of a member cannot be changed to his/her disadvantage during his tenure of office.
3. The removal of a member can take place by an order of the President on certain specific grounds in consultation of the Supreme Court.
4. The expenses of the commission are charged on the Consolidated Fund of India.
5. All regulations to be issued by the government excluding any matter from the purview of the commission will have to be laid before the Parliament or the state legislature for such modification as it may deem fit to make.
6. Further employment of any member is severely restricted.

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2.7 TRAINING – CONCEPT, TECHNIQUES AND TYPES

Training is learning that is directed at bringing about a permanent change, that improves the persons ability to perform the job assigned. Training involves changing knowledge, skills and attitudes. It also involves changing social skills to suit organizational needs. Training is confined to operatives. Operatives are persons employed in production, maintenance and other clerical jobs. They do not supervise the work of others. Therefore, they need to learn skills required to perform their jobs. Training directed at understanding and usage of social skills is limited.

Training is increasingly becoming an integral part of the contemporary administrative system. Indicative of this growing realisation is the setting up of training institutions and devising of suitable training programmes in most countries. Training is the systematic imposition of skilled knowledge to all categories of civil servants for their advancement and efficiency in service.

According to William G. Torpey, training is "the process of developing skills, habits, knowledge, and aptitudes in employe for the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of employees in their present Government positions as well as preparing employees for future Government positions." According to A.D. Gorwala, the general conception of training is a mixture of many elements. "In one sense, training means the imparting knowledge of facts and their inter relations – knowledge essentially of specialised or professional nature. In another sense training involves the teaching of techniques which require the coordinated handling of tools and appliances and physical faculties rather than of ideas. In still another sense, training entails the formation of mental and physical habit patterns to ensure that the same stimuli would always produce the same automatic responses; finally, training implies what the good gardener does to the growing sapling."

Training moulds and shapes the entrants to internalise the organisational skills and character, and helps them to adapt to new environments.

Training helps to build integrity and morale in the public servants by developing the requisite mental attitudes to questions of personal and public conduct. The role of training has been brilliantly analysed in the report of the committee on the training of civil servants (popularly known as the Asheton Committee Report), submitted to the British Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1944. The five main aims of training are:

- (a) attainment of precision and clarity in the transaction of business;
- (b) continuous adjustment to the changing socio-economic needs of our times;
- (c) gain a broad overview of administration instead of narrow departmental vision;

- (d) vocational training is needed to understand the nature of present tasks and to undertake new responsibilities; and
- (e) enliven the nature of routine tasks by making them more interesting.

Simon lays emphasis on three factors which have given particular urgency to training for Government service in developing countries. These are:

- (a) the need for innovation in administration to meet the demands and challenges of our times;
- (b) the rapid multiplication of Government tasks and duties; and
- (c) the acute shortage of skilled manpower in developing countries.

OBJECTS OF TRAINING

The main object of training is 'efficiency'. Efficiency has two important aspects—

- (a) technical efficiency in the present work of the employee or some higher work to be entrusted to him in future,
- (b) improvement of his morale. It is connected with the outlook and the attitude of the employee towards his work. When he is able to see his work as an essential part of the larger effort directed towards the service and the well-being of the community, it acquires a new significance and importance for him and calls forth from him a better effort than before. An employee must understand the legal framework under which he is to operate. He must be provided with the basic knowledge of social sciences to understand the intricacies of social environment. With the knowledge of social sciences he can react with the environment favourably.

Training must also aim to cultivate a new altitude and behaviour in human personality.

A very important object of training is the inculcation of or indoctrination into, an uniform technique or procedure of action. This is particularly so with the training of military officers who as a result of a common training at the staff college or academy can be pretty sure in the field how their brother officers would react to and behave in a particular situation.

TRAINING METHODS

Many types of training techniques have been evolved in various countries, mainly the U.S.A.

The methods are as follows:

- (a) **Training by Experience:** This consists in putting the new entrant to a job, and to leave him to learn from its work. In many departments the new trainee is first put in the registry so that he may quickly get a bird's eye view of the functions and the distribution of the work of the department as a whole, and then he is transferred from branch to branch at suitable

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- intervals. Visits to other organisations doing similar or allied work, and tours of observation to semi-government bodies and corporations may also be organised. The Asheton Committee on the training of the civil servants recommended that promising officials in their early thirties should be granted 'Sabbatical leave' to pursue an approved course of instruction or undertake specific research work in the country or even abroad.
- (b) **Lecture Method:** The lecture method is one of the commonest and oldest methods of training in classroom teaching. However, to make it more effective it should be supplemented with post-lecture debates and discussions, seminars, conferences and other audio-visual methods.
 - (c) **Syndicate Method:** It is now widely followed in training institutes in various parts of the world. In this method, a topic under instruction is assigned to small groups of trainees who are asked to conduct a thorough study of that subject under the guidance of the teachers. Syndicates are of two types — problem solving and knowledge gathering.
 - (d) **Conference Method:** This method gathers together the trainees from one or more departments into a meeting under the chairmanship of a senior officer. Discussion on selected problems, in which the trainees themselves are the principal participants, follows. The function of the Chairman is to guide the discussion by putting in an occasional word here and there. Two things are essential for the success of this method. Firstly, the trainees must form a homogenous group and they must feel free to put forward their several points of view. This method has been widely followed for supervising training in the U.S.A.
 - (e) **Case Study Method:** Under this method, an intensive and in-depth study of a particular subject is undertaken by narrating the actual field experience of working with the problem to trainees by experienced persons. The case narrative is first studied and then debated upon by the students with the teachers.
 - (f) **Sensitivity Training:** It is one of the latest methods of attitude conditioning of civil servants to groom them towards requisite modes of behaviour. Trainees are exposed to groups who make them aware of their peculiar character traits (if any), thus providing them an opportunity for self-analysis and improvement.
 - (g) **Role Play and Management Games:** Under this method, trainees are told to enact concrete roles related to their jobs as a part of demonstrative training. Management games are also similar in nature. After the play-acting a debate takes place on the character acting of each trainee in a discussion of creative criticism.

- (h) **Incidence Method:** It is a problem-solving approach meant to develop decision-making skills in the trainees. Students are given instructions on basic administrative facts and problems. On the basis of these facts some problem areas are identified and students are asked to write solutions to these problems and defend their answers.

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TYPES OF TRAINING

Training may be of several types. These are as follows :

- (a) **Formal and Informal Training:** Formal training requires classroom lectures, seminars, debates and discussions combined with tutorials and work projects. It may be given at a particular venue during a specified period, after which a degree or certificate may be awarded to the trainee. It may be full-time or part-time, pre-entry or post-entry in nature. Informal training is training by experience which the employee gradually acquires in the course of the actual doing of the work. This has been the traditional method of training in Public administration and still holds the field to a large extent. In the case of average employee, it may lead to the formation of bad habits and breed much frustration and discouragement. Formal training is free from the above defects.

- (a) a test of intellectual ability and scholastic attainments through written examinations on subjects of the candidates' choice (optional papers);
(b) a written test common to all candidates, meant to test the capacity of clear and logical thinking, memory, expression and general knowledge (compulsory papers); and
(c) an interview to assess a candidate's personal qualities.

Recruitment by promotion is also made at lower levels of services. Following the recommendations of the Kothari Committee, the recruitment to the All-India and Central Services (Class I) is made on the basis of a combined civil services examination common to all the services in three stages:

- (i) Civil Services Preliminary Examination (objective type) for the selection of candidates for the main examination;
(ii) Civil Services Main Examination (Written);
(iii) Interview of those candidates who have qualified in the written test at the final stage of recruitment.
- (b) **Short and Long-Term Training:** The difference between them is a matter of the duration of the training course and calls for no comment except that such duration depends upon the ease or difficulty of the subject matter of the training and the exigencies of the service. During times of emergency

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like war, for example, the demand for short term training of new recruits, military as well as civil, is insistent.

- (c) **Pre-entry and Post-entry Training:** Pre-entry training seeks to prepare future recruits for the service. In a sense, all education in schools and colleges is a sort of pre-entry training seeking to prepare the students, among other things, for State service. The term pre-entry training is, however, limited to referring vocational or specialised training. In India, there is hardly any specific pre-entry training scheme in existence. In the U.S.A., a rather wide pre-entry training scheme exists (for candidates selected for administrative and managerial positions) where students in the course of their technical education undergo internship or apprenticeship in selected organisations before taking up formal employment. On the other hand, post-entry training refers to training after appointment and not before it. It may be formal or informal in structure and content. Lectures may be combined with work experience.
- (d) **Departmental and Central Training:** Training is departmental when arrangements are made for it within the department or the office itself. Such training is usually imparted by the more experienced officers of the department. For less specialised varieties of training, specially for the higher officers, there are central training institutions. Sometimes individual departments also maintain their central or regional training institutions, e.g., the police training schools and colleges in many of the Indian States.
- (e) **Skill and Background Training:** The purpose of skill training is to instruct the employees in some specialised technique or a complicated system of law or procedure, e.g., the teachers' training is primarily intended to develop skill in the art of teaching. Training of craftsmen and manipulative employees is almost entirely a skill training. Background training, on the other hand seeks to teach certain subjects which help the trainee to understand the political, administrative, economic and social background and consequences of his work. Its purpose is to broaden his mind generally. The preliminary training imparted to the cadets of the administrative class at the Musoorie school is an example of background training.

The Asheton Committee suggested some more kinds of training — centralised training, training for mobility, initial training, training for supervision, training for higher administration, vocational training, background training, further education, etc.

Organisation of Training

The different channels through which training can be imparted are as follows:

- (i) Senior officers of various departments may themselves undertake the responsibility of training juniors.
- (ii) Training may be conducted in the organisation by outside institutes.
- (iii) Employees may be sent to outside institutions or universities to get training. Both formal and informal training is necessary if the employee is to specialise and keep an active interest in his job.

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2.8 TRAINING IN INDIA

Training for civil servants in India must be attuned to the following goals in addition to make its recipients competent and efficient:

- (a) Training must inculcate in the recruits respect for the traditions of parliamentary democracy which India has adopted. This point needs emphasis in view of the authoritarian basis of the Indian administration in the past.
- (b) Training should aim at fostering an essentially national outlook, combating in the process, the feelings of regionalism, communalism, casteism, etc.
- (c) It should foster emotional integration with the people.
- (d) As civil services are mostly manned by urban people, having little knowledge and appreciation of rural life and problems, training programme should take special note of this factor, so that the employees may not ignore the realities of situation in rural areas. Training must provide rural bias to the employees.
- (e) India's destiny is linked up with the successful implementation of the successive Five year plans. It should be an important aim of training to make the employees 'Programme oriented'.

According to the Planning Commission, "Next to recruitment the training of personnel has considerable bearing on administrative efficiency. Each type of work in the Government requires a programme of training suited to it. In general in all branches of administration, it is necessary to provide for the training of personnel at the commencement of service as well as at appropriate intervals in later years. In this connection, we would emphasise the importance of careful grounding in revenue and development administration for recruits to the Indian Administrative Service and the State Administrative Services."

Post-entry training of civil servants in India is the responsibility of Central and State Governments. This initial post-entry training is imparted in two ways— institutional training (for Administrative Policy, Audit and Accounts, and Income tax services); and training under the guidance of senior and experienced officers (for Defence, Accounts, Customs, Postal services, etc.) There are various central secretariat training schools which train new recruits to the Central Secretariat

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Service. Systematic facilities for post-entry training do not exist for the class II and subordinate services. Here the emphasis is on on-the-job informal training. However, some departments like the railways and posts and telegraphs run staff colleges to train their staff.

Various administrative bodies, however, regularly conduct refresher courses for public servants. The National Academy of Administration conducts refresher courses for officers of the I.A.S. with ten to fifteen years service. The refresher course is meant to impart specialised training in administrative thought and practice. Refresher courses for senior civil servants are also organised by the Indian Institute of Public Administration.

Young recruits to the Indian Civil, Police and Foreign Services get their initial on probation training at the National Academy in Mussoorie before proceeding to other specialised institutions to get their particular service-oriented training. An important consideration for introducing a common introductory five-month course in Mussoorie for all civil service recruits was to enable them to have a knowledge of the political, constitutional, economic and social context in which the administration functions, besides acquainting them with the machinery of Government and the broad principles of Public administration. A new pattern of sandwich type of training was introduced for the I.A.S. probationers at the National Academy in July 1969. Being problem-oriented the training is based largely on the experience and the observations of the probationary I.A.S. officers in the field of district administration during practical training in the States.

For top business and Government executives, the Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad, provides a four-month course at the college. The objective of the staff college is the development of executive and managerial practices of the administrators, both in business and industry as well as in Government.

Many training schools have been set up in several states to train recruits to the higher levels of the state services.

In India, institutionalised training programmes have greatly expanded in number, scope and nature. Refresher and orientation courses, seminars, workshops and conferences form the major techniques of in-service training of civil servants. The Central Government grants study leave liberally to enable them to undertake post-entry training in service.

The major flaw in our training system is the lack of a sound and integrated policy on employees' training. Training facilities are not equal in all Government departments nor are coordinated in a unified pattern. Another disturbing fact is that no class relationship exists between training and promotion, hence many employees are not often encouraged to undertake training. Flaws also exist in the content of the training courses which need to be modified in keeping with the

advancement in modern administrative thought and practice as well as the changing socio-economic climate of the administration.

Training is thus, an action process by which capabilities of the personnel can be improved, to meet the organisational needs in terms of their knowledge, skills, and attitudes required in performing organisational tasks and functions, within relatively short period of time.

The content and techniques of training in any country cannot be static, but flexible and dynamic in character, changing according to the socio-economic conditions of society and the needs and aspirations of the people.

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2.9 PROMOTION – CONCEPT AND TYPES

Meaning of promotion can be understood from two angles. For the Government, promotion is a system of indirect recruitment *i.e.*, filling up the higher posts by selecting able and competent persons from those, who are already in the service. For the government servant, promotion is an advancement from a lower post, class or service to a higher post, class or service involving higher duties, responsibilities and authority. It also means elevation in the status and increase in the salary for the employee. Mere increase in salary is not promotion. Going up or advancement in rank, status, duties, power, responsibilities and also increase in salary is referred as promotion in the civil service.

Promotion changes the rank, status, designation and salary of an employee. When a Junior Assistant becomes a Senior Assistant, a Deputy Secretary becomes a Secretary, a Class II servant becomes a Class I servant than it is called as promotion.

Promotion may mean change in the grade, *i.e.*, from a lower grade to a higher grade in the same class. Promotion may be from lower class to higher class *i.e.*, from Class II to Class I. Promotion may also be from one service to another higher service *i.e.*, from State Services to All India Services. It is thus clear that promotion may be from lower class to higher class, lower service to higher service.

It should be remembered that transfer from one post to another post of the same status or responsibility is not promotion. Similarly annual increment *i.e.*, annual increase in the same salary scale is also not promotion. Promotion means change of status as well as pay-scale.

IMPORTANCE OF PROMOTION

For a government servant promotion is a reward for his/her faithful and hard work. If there are no chances of promotion for a servant, he will not work hard. He will search for a better job outside and leave the place where he is employed as early as possible.

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For many servants the government service is a life long service. They enter this service when they are very young and continue to work till retirement. They are retained in the services by making provisions for promotion. Civil service cannot be called as a career service without promotions. Without promotions we cannot attract the best talents to join the government service; we cannot retain the most talented and potential persons in the service; and we cannot get the best from them for the service and for the nation. It is clear that without promotions, we cannot have efficient, competent and satisfied civil servants in the country.

Promotion satisfies a natural human urge to make progress and advancement in life. It gives great moral boost to the employees of the government.

NEED OF PROMOTION IN CIVIL SERVICES

Civil Service is a career service. A person who joins the civil service spends his life time in it. He makes progress and advances up in the service with the passage of time. From his recruitment as a young person till his retirement as an old person, it is the chances of promotion which keeps him in the service. Promotion is thus, an integral part of the career service. A proper scheme of promotions can only make the civil service as an attractive career and attract the best talents to join it.

Promotions can also serve as rewards for the servants. *Opportunity of promotion* is a possible reward for hard work, efficiency and faithful service. Government servants will work hard to get possible promotions. This means that promotion chances increase the efficiency and contentment of the civil services.

Recruitment of best persons is the first and foremost important step in the administration. But to retain the talented persons in the services is also equally important. By the device of promotion, it is possible to retain the best, talented and efficient persons in the civil services.

Human being is a growing creature. Everybody wants to make progress and advancement in life and seeks recognition from others. These basic human urges of advancement and recognition should be satisfied by the organisation, where he is working. Otherwise he will not be satisfied with his work and would like to change his job. This may cause problems for the civil services. These two basic human urges of recognition and advancement can be satisfied by the device of promotion.

A sound promotion system fosters the feeling of belongingness in the servants. It also contributes to maintaining a continuity in the policies and programmes of the organisation. Promotion system builds up sound traditions and conventions in the civil service and adds to the goodwill of the government.

If there are adequate chances of promotion to higher levels in the government service, then competent persons would be ready to join the services at lower levels also. This will increase the efficiency of administration.

With the passage of time in the government service, persons acquire up-to-date practical experience of work. Their continuity in the service makes them competent to shoulder higher responsibilities. This experience and competence acquired by the civil servants can be utilised by giving them chances of promotions to higher and more responsible positions. The best use of manpower is possible only through a sound system of promotion.

As the servants grow older in age, their family responsibilities keep on increasing. They need more money. Promotions give them opportunity to satisfy their increasing material needs and give their best to the services. This also reduces the chances of the occurrence of malpractices and corruption in the services. The servants will not nurse grievances against the Government. They would render more efficient, honest and faithful service to the government. There would be greater discipline and higher morale among the civil servants.

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TYPES OF PROMOTION

There are three types or categories of promotion:

- (1) Promotion from a lower grade to a higher grade in the same class, (*i.e.*, from a Junior Assistant to a Senior Assistant or from a Junior Typist to a Senior Typist or Assistant Superintendent to Superintendent).
- (2) Promotion from a lower class to a higher class (*i.e.*, from Class I to Class II, from clerical class to executive class).
- (3) Promotion from a lower service to a higher service (*i.e.*, from State Service to All India Services, etc.).

2.10 PRINCIPLES OF PROMOTION

The principles of promotion need to be established because, in any government service, the opportunities for promotions are limited. Only a limited number of higher posts fall vacant; sometimes or other and that too not at regular and frequent intervals. A large number of servants working at the lower levels wait for these few vacancies.

Everyone of them aspires to get promotion. But it is practically impossible to give promotions to all ambitious persons. In fact, only few of them are promoted to the higher positions and a large number of servants are denied the promotions. This is bad but unavoidable.

Because the structure of administration is like a pyramid, the number of posts at the lower levels is large (level F in the Figure). As we go up higher and

higher, the number of posts are lesser and lesser (EDCB) and ultimately the pyramid ends at a single point (i.e., the chief executive or head of the department).

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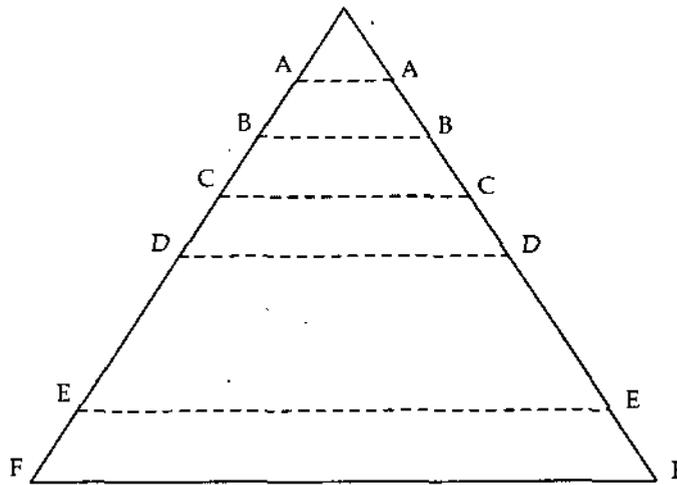


Fig. 2.1. Showing the Pyramidal Structure of Administration

Due to the above mentioned pyramid like structure of administration there is always an unavoidable conflict at the time of promotion. Those who are unsuccessful in getting promotion feel disappointed and lose interest in work. If the promotion is made arbitrarily then this adds to their indifference, inefficiency and insult. It is, therefore, necessary that promotions should be based on some well-defined and recognised principles.

Following are the principles of promotion, which are followed as alternatives or in combination.

- (1) Principle of Seniority
- (2) Merit Principle
- (3) Seniority-cum-Merit Principle.

SENIORITY PRINCIPLE

Seniority means length of service in a particular post or scale or grade. It is a very simple principle. The length of service or seniority is the sole basis in making promotions. According to it, one who has longer length of service must get the promotion. The seniormost person is eligible for promotion first. A seniority list can be prepared and order of precedence can be decided according to experience and age.

The principle of seniority is very simple to apply. It is most objective. It leaves no scope for favouritism or nepotism. It gives respect to age and experience. It is in accordance with the established practices in society. A younger person does not become a boss of the older and more experienced persons. It is more democratic because it gives a chance of promotion to everybody irrespective of merit. Everybody cannot become meritorious but everybody is bound to become

senior with the passage of time. It is safe for every employee and, therefore, seniority principle is readily accepted by the staff as against the merit principle.

But principle of seniority has many drawbacks. Those who are senior are not necessarily fit for promotion. Mere length of service is not a criterion of fitness. Experience is gained by a person in the first few years of service, but afterwards his experience does not increase indefinitely with the length of service. It is said that ten years experience is nothing but one year's experience repeated ten times. Seniority and experience are, therefore, not a rational criteria. All persons in a grade are not fit for promotion. Promotions are few and, therefore, all persons cannot get promotions.

Seniority does not necessarily coincide with age. A younger person who joined the service at an early age may be senior to a person who joined the service late in his life. Seniority principle does not ensure that only fittest person will be posted at higher posts. On the contrary, inefficient and conservative persons may get promoted to higher post adversely affecting the over-all performance of the government services.

Seniority principle is not rational and just. Hard work, efficiency and initiative of the energetic young persons is not rewarded. On the other hand, physically weak, aged and less energetic persons are promoted to higher positions where hard work, alertness and energy are required.

PRINCIPLE OF MERIT

Principle of merit is contrary to the principle of seniority. This principle implies that the most meritorious, best qualified and most competent person must be selected for promotion to the higher post. In the civil service higher position means more powers and responsibilities and it requires more competent and hard working persons. Therefore, those who have merit and qualifications must be promoted to higher positions. Merit, therefore, must be the sole criterion for promotion. The principle of merit is accepted because able and competent persons only deserve promotions and incompetent persons should be left behind. At higher levels in administration only efficient, hard working and meritorious persons are required. The merit principle selects the most suitable person for promotion. Energy, initiative and hard work are rewarded by merit principle. This increases efficiency and competitive spirit in the administration. It motivates the employees at the lower levels to work hard and take interest in their work.

But merit principle of promotion is difficult to implement objectively. Merit is a complex concept. It includes intellectual attainment alongwith personality, capacity for leadership, strength of character, etc. It is not easy to measure the merit objectively. Merit principle of promotion excludes senior and experienced persons from the competitive chance of improvement. Experience, seniority and age is set aside by the merit principle. Older persons cannot compete in the written

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examination or interviews etc. against the younger persons. The administrative experience and skills attained by a person in the service with the passage of time, is totally neglected by the merit principle.

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PRACTICAL COMBINATION OF SENIORITY AND MERIT PRINCIPLES

We have seen that both the principles of seniority and of merit have some advantages as well as drawbacks. In practice, therefore, a third method is adopted where the seniority and merit principles are combined for making promotions. For example, a minimum length/years of service (seniority) is fixed and then the fittest and meritorious person amongst those who possess that minimum experience, is selected for promotion. This means the fittest amongst the seniors' is selected for promotions. Another way of combining these two principles is that the minimum qualification and competence is tested and then all other things being equal the seniormost of them is preferred for promotion.

This means the "seniormost amongst the meritorious" persons is selected. It is observed that in most of the countries including India, the general pattern of promotion is based on the following lines:

- (1) Promotions to the higher posts are made on the basis of merit principle only.
- (2) Promotion to middle level posts are made on the basis of seniority-cum-merit principle.
- (3) Promotions to lower level posts, are made on the basis of seniority principle (but here also exceptional merit is rewarded).

2.11 METHODS OF TESTING MERIT FOR PROMOTION

We have seen that 'merit' is considered to be a more important element compared to 'experience' in making promotions in the government service. Now the question is how to test the merit essential for promotion to higher posts? In the previous section on Recruitment we have studied the methods of testing merit for direct recruitment in the civil service, like written examination, interview etc. Those methods are not applicable for testing the merit for promotions. It should be noted that here we have to test the merit of those persons, who are already in the service. They possess minimum educational qualifications required for recruitment in the service. They have already passed in the written and oral tests at the time of their recruitment. Now their merit is to be tested for promoting them to higher posts. This is more difficult and delicate.

Many employees, old and young, experienced and inexperienced, senior and junior working together for many years in the same grade and in the same organisation aspire to get promotion to the higher grade. The vacancies at the higher level are very few. Each of them thinks that he is most competent and fit

for the higher post: In such a situation it is very difficult and delicate to test their merit for promotion to higher positions.

Normally the following three methods are employed for testing the merit for promotion:

- (1) Written and Oral Examination
- (2) Efficiency Rating
- (3) Personal Judgement of the Head of the Organisation.

WRITTEN AND ORAL EXAMINATION

In many countries written examination is taken for promotion. It is an objective the authorities from the troublesome work of making judgement about individual employees. It keeps the employees up-to-date about the developments. It gives equal chance to everybody to aspire and compete for higher positions. It is good when the number of aspiring persons is very large or when the higher job requires specified knowledge. In many countries departmental examinations are taken. Everybody who wants a promotion, is required to pass the qualifying departmental examination. (It is common in the Banking Services in India.) Brilliant and hard-working employees get quick promotions by passing these examinations. The system of written examination for promotion has some drawbacks also. The employees neglect their routine administrative work because they are preoccupied with examinations. Faithful and devoted employees feel neglected. Older and experienced employees cannot study and memorise things for examinations. Less experienced younger employees who are fresh from their college, normally get more marks in written examinations compared to their experienced colleagues. Therefore, written examinations are not very popular for promotion among the experienced employees. Although these promotional examinations are competitive, but closed *i.e.*, confined to those who are already in the service, they result in a lot of jealousy and heart-burning amongst the competent competitors.

In order to avoid the drawbacks of the system of written examination, in many countries, oral test or interviews are taken after the candidates pass the written examination. Candidate's overall personality, attitudes and manners etc. are judged through the interviews. His past experience and record is also assessed at the time of interview. Whether a person is fit to be appointed to a higher position and whether his personality is suitable for the higher post is also judged at the time of oral examination.

EFFICIENCY RATING

It is an old and universal practice in the Civil Service to maintain the service records of each person. These service records are known by various names like confidential report, service book, personal record or personal file etc. In the past,

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these records were mostly used to locate a person with bad records and to keep him away from promotion. But now these service records are used to evaluate the relative merits of the employee for the purpose of promotion. This is comparatively a new method which was first adopted in the USA for rating comparative ability and merit of the employees for the purpose of promotion.

Maintenance of service record itself is not efficiency rating. The service record provides the necessary data on the basis of which evaluation or rating can be done. In large organisations, there are many branches, divisions and sections having large number of employees. In each section, branch or department every year a confidential report relating to the overall service-record of each and every employee is prepared and maintained by the concerned head or superintendent or superior officer. These records are used for rating the efficiency and suitability of an employee at the time of promotion. This efficiency rating system is now widely followed for testing merit for promotions.

The efficiency rating system is most useful for finding the most able and efficient person for promotion. It is a fair and reliable system of rewarding the most efficient person and eliminating those who are comparatively less competent. It not only rewards merit but also the careful and faithful service. It keeps the employees alert and up-to-date. It guarantees the promotion to the best out of the available staff.

These are some of the positive points of the efficiency rating system. But there are many negative aspects of this system. It is not objective. It depends upon the subjective judgement of those superior officers, who prepare the service record, and also of the rating officers. It is difficult to prepare a good 'rating form' which will include all qualities, traits or criteria necessary for effective rating. More sensitive employees become nervous and self-conscious because of this system and their morale is depressed. The rating system leaves room for negligence, low integrity and subjective judgement of the rating officer. What qualities or traits must be taken for comparative rating and how to integrate the various judgements relating to different qualities or traits into one final decision? These questions pose many difficulties before the promotions are finalised. Therefore, this efficiency rating system does not provides an automatic basis of promotion. The final judgement has to be taken by the promotion making authority.

In this method, efficiency is rated on the basis of service records. Records are maintained in respect of all employees. Assessment is done on the basis of some qualities, traits, performance, output records, evidences, or check-lists, etc. Qualities or traits like knowledge of work, personality, judgement, initiative, accuracy, willingness to take responsibility, neatness, punctuality, organising ability, etc. or output of the employee is rated as follows.

- (a) Above average
- (b) Average
- (c) Below Average
or it may be rated as (in Britain and India)
- (a) Outstanding
- (b) Very Good
- (c) Satisfactory
- (d) Indifferent
- (e) Poor.

Sometimes it is rated as (in USA) —

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------------|
| (a) Highest Possible | (a) Extraordinary |
| (b) Very good | (b) Satisfactory |
| (c) Ordinary | (c) Unsatisfactory |
| (d) Bad | or |
| (e) Very Bad | (d) Highly Unsatisfactory. |

Sometimes rating is done by giving grades like —

A+, A, B+, B, C, etc. or giving marks *i.e.*, numbers.

PERSONAL JUDGEMENT OF THE HEAD OF THE ORGANISATION

In this system merit is determined by the head of the organisation. The head or the boss knows everybody. He has personal understanding about the overall performance of each and every employee working under him. He therefore, at the time of promotion, relies upon his own personal judgement and makes promotion of the persons of his own choice. This system is based on nepotism and favouritism. It is like the spoils system. It gives scope for dictatorial tendency. It encourages politics and sycophantism (flattery) in administration. Sycophants surround the head of the office all the time. As a result there is lot of inefficiency, insecurity and uncertainty among the workers. Consequently their morale is depressed. Only 'Yes men' and 'sycophants' have good chances of promotion in this system.

This system of promotion, left to the judgement of the head of the office, is mostly followed in business and industry but is not very common in the civil service. However, some very top level executive promotions are made in this system. Only in small organisations personal knowledge of the various employees is possible.

Correct use of discretion and judgement depends upon the integrity and impartiality of the concerned head of the department. In practice, the actual judgement of the promotion authority is influenced by the service record, past performance and efficiency rating of the employee concerned. However, in the

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final selection of an employee, the personal judgement of head of the organisation plays its part.

We have discussed the various methods of testing merit for promotion in the preceding text.

In fact, all these methods are suitably combined to fill up posts by promotion. The combinations are different in different countries.

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2.12 ESSENTIALS OF A GOOD PROMOTION POLICY

Civil service is a career service. It offers life time job to the capable persons. It provides opportunities for them for growth and advancement. Only good promotion system can make this possible. At the same time only a fair promotion policy ensures supply of capable and competent persons for filling up higher positions without any breakdown. A good promotion policy is absolutely necessary for the success of civil service. Following are the essentials of a good promotion policy.

- (1) Promotion policy must be well-planned in advance.
- (2) There must be a clear and sound classification of the civil services.
- (3) Posts or grades in each service or class must be arranged in a hierarchical manner.
- (4) Line of promotion and rules of promotion must be clearly laid down in advance.
- (5) Instead of a single person a board or committee should be responsible for making promotions.
- (6) A systematically accepted method of promotion must be followed strictly.
- (7) Employee must know that the vacancy for promotion is an opportunity and not a right and he must earn the promotion in competition with others.
- (8) Seniority should not be given excessive weight. Principles of seniority, merit and efficiency must be combined. Candidate's past performance, service record, and capability to assume higher responsibilities must be decisive elements. Various suitable devices like efficiency rating, examination, interviews, etc. must be adopted to test the merit for promotion.

2.13 PROMOTION SYSTEM IN INDIA

The question of promotion was first discussed during the British Raj in India in the year 1669, when the principle of seniority was accepted for promotion by the East India Company. The Charter Act of 1793 clearly accepted the principle of 'seniority' for promotions in the civil service. This principle remained in force

till the enactment of the Indian Civil Service Act, 1861. Although the seniority principle was continued, allowance was also made for merit, integrity, competence and ability in making promotion. Formula of seniority-cum-merit was followed till 1947.

In Independent India, the matter of promotion received attention in 1947 itself. The First Pay Commission (1947) recommended that direct recruitment and promotion system must be combined for filling up the positions in the civil service. According to it, principle of seniority must be adopted for those posts where more familiarity with office work is a necessary requirement, top positions must be filled up on the basis of merit and middle level positions on the basis of seniority-cum-merit basis.

The Second Pay Commission (1959) also recommended the principle of merit for filling higher level posts and the principle of seniority-cum-fitness for middle and lower levels in administration. Administrative Reforms Commission (1969) also recommended the principle of seniority-cum-merit for promotions. The governing principle of promotion in India, during the last forty years is that of 'seniority-cum-merit'. The relative weightage of the two factors of 'seniority' and 'merit' varies from service to service.

Promotions in India are made by the Union or State Government on the recommendation of the Head of the Department, sometimes with the approval of the Union or State Public Service Commissions. In some cases approval of the Finance Department is necessary while in the cases of some top level promotions, the approval of the Prime Minister or Chief Minister is also required.

Principle of seniority-cum-efficiency is adopted invariably for promotions at lower and middle level posts like Assistants, Senior Assistants, Section Officers, Superintendents, etc. In addition to this practice, in some cases, government employees are allowed to appear in competitive examinations held for promotions. At higher levels of promotion a Departmental Promotion Committee makes promotions out of a list prepared on the basis of 'merit and suitability in all respects with due regard to seniority'. The system of promotion varies from service to service and class to class in India. After critical evaluation of the present Indian system of promotion, we find that there are some shortcomings in it.

They are:

- (1) heads of the departments deliberately exclude some persons from the list of potential competitors;
- (2) personal records of the employees are not maintained satisfactorily and impartially;
- (3) employees' are not informed about the vacancies to be filled up by promotions;

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- (4) seniority is given too much importance instead of merit;
- (5) absence of systematic promotion machinery makes promotions unjust, arbitrary and haphazard; and
- (6) there is no effective system of appeals in cases of injustices in promotions.

In order to overcome these shortcomings it is suggested that a suitable and systematic promotion policy must be adopted. Service-records must be kept objectively and impartially. An effective machinery for evaluation and for appeals must be established. Promotion boards or committees must be established in all government services at all levels. Qualifying examinations and interviews may be started for making promotion at middle level positions. Instead of seniority the merit system must be adopted.

2.14 PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS

The organization must achieve its goals. This depends on whether the individual employees are able to achieve their individual goals. Therefore, it is important to make a periodic evaluation of how successful each individual employee is in achieving his individual goals. Performance appraisals help to assess individual accomplishments. It is a very important role of the human resource manager.

There are three purposes served by a good performance appraisal process. The first is it is used as a basis for allocating rewards. Decisions about salary increases, promotions, and other rewards are the fallouts of the performance evaluation. Second, the appraisal could be used to identify areas where development is necessitated. It helps the evaluator to determine those individuals who lack the skill or knowledge to do a good job. Finally, the performance appraisal can also be used as a criterion to validate selection devices and training and development programs. For example a company may have introduced a new selection process. How can it determine if the process is able to differentiate between good and bad performers? It is possible if it is able to identify some standard of satisfactory performance in the selection. A bias-free, valid, and reliable performance appraisal system can help it establish such standards.

All most all organizations have a well-defined appraisal process in place. At the Hindustan Unilever Ltd. every employee is put through a thorough performance evaluation. The evaluation is linked to the reward system. At Satyam computers, performance assessment is two-dimensional. The two dimensions assessed are, 'outcome' and 'asset building'. The performance Appraisal in Reliance Energy essentially involves recognition of employee performance, willingness to involve in continuous learning, and development of skills required to remain employable. HDFC Bank has introduced a novel scheme. Subordinates are asked to evaluate their boss on some dimensions. The dimensions are communication,

direction, feedback, and empowerment. Almost all public sector organizations like ONGC, SAIL, IOC, NTPC, BHEL etc. have a yearly appraisal. The appraisal considers two components. The first, is an evaluation of the employee by the boss and the second, is a self-evaluation. The composite of these score is considered to reflect the employee's performance. Multinationals like Ford, Hyundai, Microsoft, Cisco, American Express and Grind lays, have performance evaluations that are directly linked to the rewards. There is uniformity of evaluation across all employees in the organization irrespective of place of posting.

Let us take a look at a typical appraisal process.

THE APPRAISAL PROCESS

The stages in an appraisal process are shown in figure 2.2. It begins with the identification of performance standards. Normally, they are derived from the job analysis and the job description . The performance standards should be clear and objective .

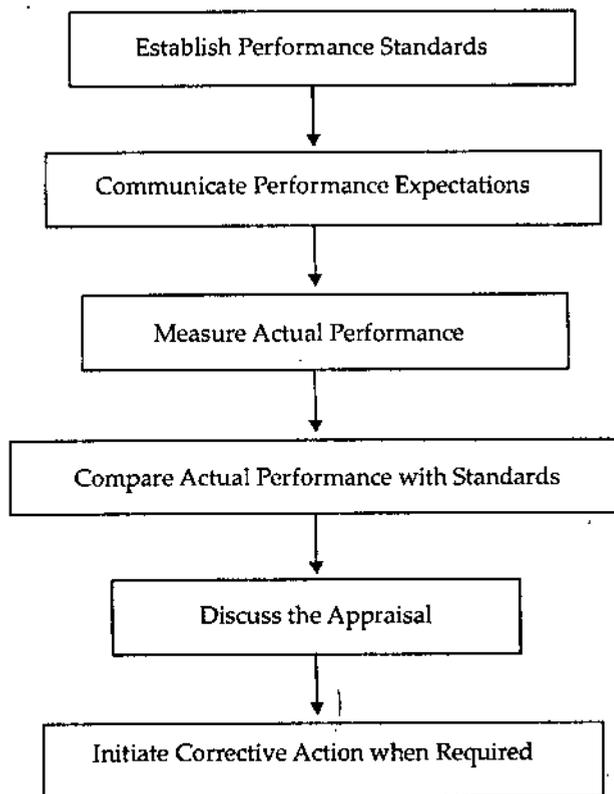


Fig. 2.2 The Process of Performance Appraisal

Only then will it be understood by the parties concerned. Objective standards are essential as it helps the evaluator to communicate it to the

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subordinate. Measurement of the performance against these standards becomes easy. It also gives credibility to the evaluation. After the performance standards are established, it is essential to communicate these expectations to the subordinate.

The subordinate knows what he needs to do to be successful. This avoids ambiguity in performance standards. When these standards are communicated to the employee he can seek clarifications where required. Feedback is also required from the subordinate to the manager. Feedback ensures that the information communicated serves the purpose for which the message is envisaged.

The third step in the appraisal process is to address issues in the measurement of performance. To determine the actual performance, it is essential to collect relevant information about it. Questions like, how are we to measure performance? What is to be measured? These must be answered.

Information is obtained through primary and secondary sources. Data from the primary source is based on personal observation. The secondary source is based on reports. Reports may be oral, written or statistical reports. Each has its use. These may be used singly or in combination. A combination of sources improves the quality of data. The probability of getting reliable information is also better.

What is measured in the evaluation process is extremely important. If the manager selects the wrong criteria it can lead to negative consequences. Generally, managers tend to measure criteria that employees excel in. This is quite irrelevant and misleading too. Managers must exercise caution while identifying the relevant criteria. Otherwise, the entire process may serve no purpose.

The criteria chosen must measure performance. Managers often tend to measure something else. For example, if the salesman is informed that he would be evaluated on sales calls rather than sales made then the manager should do so. At the time of appraisal, the manager may observe a poor sales record. If the manager now decides to use this data to assess the salesman, it would be wrong. By doing this, the manager would be discounting the efforts put in by the salesman. It is unacceptable as it would emotionally disturb the salesman. It is quite possible that this may have a negative impact on his future performance.

The fourth step in the appraisal process is the comparison of actual, performance of the employee with predetermined standards. Deviations between standard performance and actual performance may be observed. Sometimes the deviations may be positive while at other times it would be negative. The former are good for the organization the latter are not. The fifth step in the process is the discussion of the outcomes of the appraisal with the employee. Drawing up an accurate appraisal is a challenging task for most managers. More difficult is the task of getting the subordinate to accept a bad appraisal without conflicts. Appraisals that report performance lower than the employee's perception usually

create a lot of unpleasantness. This is because employees tend to overstate their performance. Such situations are tricky and need to be addressed carefully.

Performance appraisal is thus a very sensitive issue. This is because it questions the individual's contribution and ability. The feedback from the manager directly influences subsequent performance. However, if the appraisal gives a positive feedback it is easily accepted by the subordinate. Ideally, there should be no embarrassment if appraisals are done in a constructive manner.

The last step in the appraisal process is the commencement of corrective action when necessary. Corrective action must address symptoms as well as the causes. Corrective action that checks symptoms have immediate effect. Whereas, corrective action that checks causes is basic and therefore likely to give permanent results. Both are required to improve performance.

In short, in spite of negative and positive consequences appraisals are essentially constructive in managing performance. The time spent to analyze deviations and, permanently correct differences between standards and actual performance is often justified. These actions have good payoffs in terms of improved performance overtime.

Let us now understand the common appraisal methods used by managers.

APPROACHES TO APPRAISAL

Typically, managers use three approaches for conducting performance appraisals. They are:

- Absolute standards
- Relative standards and
- Objectives.

Each approach has its strengths. However, none is the best in all situations. Managers must evaluate the utility of the approach based on the situation. The decision should be based on it. To tide over the weaknesses of an approach and to derive benefits of the different approaches a combination of approaches may be used.

Absolute Standards

Absolute standards appraise the employee individually. The employee's performance is not compared with any other person. Common methods under this approach are the:

- Essay appraisal
- Critical incident appraisal
- Checklist
- Graphic rating scale

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- Forced choice and
- Behaviourally anchored rating scales

We shall see them in detail.

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Essay Appraisal

It is one of the simplest methods of appraisal. It requires the evaluator to describe the employee's strengths, weaknesses, and past performance. It may also indicate the employee's potential and suggestions for improvement for the future. The strength of the essay appraisal is the ease with which it is done. It does not require complex documentation. The essay appraisal provides a lot of information which is understood by the employee. There is no specific training to be given to the evaluator.

However, there are several shortfalls of this method. Essays are unstructured. Therefore, they do not have any uniformity. They differ in content. It is difficult to compare individuals across the organization. A major drawback is that the style of the essay may influence the rating of the employee. This may have nothing to do with the employee's actual level of performance. As such a poor essay writer may force a bad performance appraisal on the employee and a good essay writer may force a good performance appraisal on the employee. Since both are far from reality it is confusing and demoralizing. As this method provides only subjective data it is better to use it in combination with other objective data. Then it can be compared and ranked objectively.

Critical Incident Appraisal

Critical incident appraisal focuses the evaluator's attention on critical or key behaviors. These help us understand why some do a job effectively and while others do it ineffectively. The evaluator notes down what the employee did that was effective or ineffective. In this approach, specific behaviors are identified for appraisal. It does not consider personality traits. A behaviorally based appraisal is more valid because it is more jobs related. Critical incidents judge an employee's performance rather than his personality. Therefore, it is more accurate.

The strength of the critical incident method is that it identifies behaviors that are desirable. It provides the employee an idea about behaviors that need improvement. A major drawback of this method is that appraisers are required to periodically write down these incidents. This is time-consuming and tedious for managers. Besides, critical incidents are subjective and are difficult to compare. They are not amenable to quantification. Therefore, it is not possible to compare and rank employees.

Checklist

In the checklist method the evaluator prepares a list of behavioral descriptions. Thereafter, he checks if all those behaviors apply to the employee.

The evaluator then indicates "yes" or "no" responses against each item in the checklist (see table below).

Table 2.1 Sample of Checklist items for an accounting clerk

S.No.	Checklist items	Yes	No
1	Is he following instructions?		
2	Is he doing work systematically?		
3	Is he punctual?		
4	Is he careful in his work?		
5	Is he making errors?		

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The completed checklist is evaluated by the human resource department. In effect, the evaluator actually does not evaluate the employee's performance, but merely records it. The human resource department then scores the checklist items based on their importance. The final evaluation is returned to the evaluator. Thereafter, the evaluator initiates a discussion with the employee. Alternately, it may be done by the human resource department. Giving the feedback to the employee is an important part of checklist appraisal.

The checklist reduces bias as the evaluator and the scorer are different. However, if the evaluator wants to introduce bias he could do so by manipulating the responses. However, he would have to do it based on his hunch of what is the right response. This appraisal method is not suitable when there are a number of jobs. This is because a checklist of items must be prepared for each. The process would be too tedious and obviously inefficient.

Graphic Rating Scale

It is perhaps the oldest and most popular method of appraisal. It is used to assess both quantitative and qualitative aspects of work. Quantitative aspects include attendance, knowledge, promptness etc. Qualitative aspects include attitudes, cooperation, dependability etc. This method is not suitable when it is not possible to define a measure in clear behavioral terms. For example, it is not possible to define loyalty or commitment clear behavioral terms. The method uses a rating scale with five or seven points. Each point signifies a specific level of presence of the measure see table below.

Table 2.2 Performance Rating Scale

S.No.	Item	Scaling				
		Low				High
1.	Ability to complete job on time.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Regular in attending work.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Willing to take responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Obedience to orders from the boss.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Extent of job knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5

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The rating scale is a continuum moving from lowest to highest rating or vice versa. The evaluator indicates a point along the continuum. This point describes the extent to which the item fits the employee. A large number of points on the continuum make the differentiation better. However, too many points may serve no purpose. The number of points is decided based on the requirements of the organization to differentiate between employees. The rating scale is a useful tool. However its utility depends on its clarity. Care must be taken to see that the items measured are correctly understood by the rater and the scoring is precise.

Graphic rating scales are commonly used by organizations. They are easy to administer, are less time consuming and facilitates collection of a lot of information. It can be subject to quantitative analysis. As it allows greater standardization of items it makes and comparison between employees in different job categories possible.

Forced Choice

The forced choice appraisal is a type of checklist. Here, the evaluator has to choose between two or more statements. Table given below shows an inventory for a shop floor sales girl. The statements may be favorable or unfavorable.

Table 2.3

S.No.	Item	Choice
a.	Is polite with customers.	
b.	Is helpful to customers in making choices.	
c.	Is punctual.	
d.	Is friendly.	
e.	Is knowledgeable about the job.	

The evaluator has to identify which statement best describes the employee being evaluated. Choosing one choice automatically excludes the possibility of the other. However, the right answers are not known to the evaluator. In order to reduce bias, the human resource department does the scoring of answers based on the key. This key is pre validated. Thus, it is possible to conclude that employees with higher scores perform better.

The major advantage of the forced choice method is that evaluator cannot manipulate the scores as they are unaware of the right response. Bias and distortion are thereby reduced. However, this method is disliked by appraisers. They may find it difficult to differentiate between statements. As the key is not known, they may even resist the use of the forced choice method.

Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale

The Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale (BARS) is a modern day appraisal tool. These scales represent a combination of the critical incident and graphic rating scale methods. The evaluator rates the employees on specific job behaviors rather than personality traits. The behaviorally anchored rating scales identify

well-defined, observable, and measurable job behaviors. This ensures reliable and relatively accurate ratings.

How do we go about developing a BARS? The first step is to ask employees to identify effective and ineffective job behavior that affect performance. This helps to generate an appropriate list of job related behaviors. They are then grouped into appropriate performance dimensions. Thereafter, it is scaled numerically to represent a level of performance that each is perceived to represent. The incidents that have a high rater agreement on performance effectiveness are used as standards.

The drawback of BARS is that it is imperfect. However, it reduces rating errors. Its major advantage is that it is developed through a rigorous process. The process brings clarity to what job behaviors lead to effective or ineffective performance.

Relative Standards

In the second approach to appraisal methods, the individual employee is compared against other employees. Hence, these methods are relative. Some of the popular of the relative methods are:

- Group order ranking
- Individual ranking, and
- Paired comparison.

Group Order Ranking

In the group order ranking method the evaluator groups employees into a particular group. For example three groups may be formed as the top twenty percent or the bottom twenty percent. When managers appraise employees using this method, they have to assess all their subordinates together. For example if an evaluator has fifty subordinates, he must consider them together. Thus, only ten would be in the top twenty percent while ten others would be in the bottom twenty percent.

The advantage of this method is that it prevents raters from inflating evaluations. The major disadvantage is that it is not meaningful when the number of employees being compared is small. This is because if the evaluator has five employees who are all good, the evaluator may be forced to rank them into different categories.

In effect, the evaluation is wrong. No doubt, theoretically, as the sample size increases, the validity of relative scores increases. Then it becomes a more accurate measure. Another disadvantage, with relative measures, is that an employee who is mediocre may obtain the best score only because there is no one better than him.

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Individual Ranking

In the individual ranking method the evaluator lists the employees in an order from highest to lowest. Therefore, there is only one "best" employee. Similarly, no two employees get the same rank. This method assumes that the difference between the first and second employee is the same as that between the third and the fourth employee. The individual ranking method has the same advantages and disadvantages of the group order ranking method.

Paired Comparison

The paired comparison method considers the total of $(n(n-1))/2$ comparisons. The score for each employee is obtained by counting the number of pairs in which the individual employee is the preferred person. It ranks each individual employee vis a vis all others on a one to one basis. If for example, if five employees are being evaluated, the first employee is compared, one by one, with each of the other four employees. Each of the other four employees is compared in the same way. The final ranking is based on the greatest number of preferred scores. In this method, each employee is compared against every other so it is comprehensive. However, when the number of employees being compared is large, it becomes complex.

Objectives

The third approach to appraisal uses objectives. This approach is also referred to as management by objectives (MBO). The employee is evaluated on the basis of his accomplishment of specific objectives that are determined to be critical in the successful completion of his job. Through MBO organizational objectives are converted into individual objectives. It consists of. They are:

- Goal setting
- Action planning
- Self-control and
- Periodic reviews.

Goal Setting

In this step, the overall objectives of the organization are used as guidelines. From these, departmental and individual objectives are derived. The manager and his subordinate jointly identify those goals that are critical and need to be achieved by the subordinate. These goals have a bearing on the requisites of the job. They are determined by the job analysis. These mutually set are the standards by which the employee's performance is evaluated.

Action Planning

In this step, the means for achieving the goals are developed. These plans must be realistic and capable of attaining the objectives. This step also includes

identifying the activities necessary to accomplish the objectives, establishing the relationships between these activities, estimating the time needed to complete each activity, and calculating the resources required for each activity.

Self Control

In this step, systematic monitoring and measuring of performance – ideally, by having the individual review her own performance is done. The employee does a self analysis of his own performance. MBO is based on the belief that employees are responsible and can exercise self-direction. External controls and fear of punishment are not necessary to motivate them to accomplish the goals.

Periodic Reviews

In this step, actual performance is compared with preset goals periodically. Corrective action is initiated when behavior deviates from the standards established in the goalsetting phase. The reviews are normally constructive and aimed at improving performance. These reviews are done at frequent intervals.

It is important that objectives are tangible, verifiable, and measurable. Wherever possible, quantitative objectives must substitute qualitative objectives. For example, a quantitative objective such as to process and pass bills of ₹ 500 and below within five working days from the receipt of the bill makes requirements of the job clear to the employee processing these bills. As ambiguity is avoided, the job becomes clear and measurable.

The advantage of MBO is its results-orientation. It serves the dual purpose of motivation, as well as performance appraisal. Employees know what is expected of them and the process of evaluation. They also know that their evaluation is based on the achievement of objectives. Moreover, employees generally have a greater commitment to objectives that they participated in developing. The major disadvantage of MBO is that it is ineffective when the management does not give freedom to its subordinates.

2.15 FACTORS THAT DISTORT APPRAISALS

The performance appraisal process and techniques that we have seen must be objective. It means that the system must ensure that the evaluations are free from evaluator's personal biases, prejudices, and beliefs. Objective assessments are emphasized as the dysfunctional behavior of the evaluator is often an impediment to the achievement of the organizational goals. It is however true that in most cases, practicing managers is unable to impartially evaluate and standardize the criteria on the basis of which they appraise. This is especially true of jobs that are not routine or standardized. In these cases it is difficult if not impossible to develop appropriate objective performance standards. Jobs that require a good deal of creativity and decision making perhaps fall in this class. To

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tide over this situation, managers generally use nonperformance or subjective criteria against which they evaluate their subordinates. This is often detrimental. As far as possible, managers must use direct performance criteria in appraising subordinates.

An absolutely error-free performance appraisal is at best an ideal situation. It is seldom possible. Most appraisals are not perfect but optimum. There are a number of factors that prevent an objective evaluation. If we are able to isolate them, we can exercise some control over them thereby, the extent of subjectivity could be reduced. The factors that distort evaluation are:

- Leniency Error
- Halo Error
- Similarity Error
- Low Differentiation
- Forcing information to match non-performance criteria
- Inflationary Pressures
- Inappropriate Substitutes for Performance
- Low Appraiser Motivation

Let us see these factors in detail.

LENIENCY ERROR

Every evaluator has a value system against which appraisals are made. When compared to the actual performance some evaluators mark their subordinates high while some others mark their subordinates low. This is what we refer to as leniency errors. The former is a typical case of positive leniency error and the latter a negative leniency error. When the evaluator is positively lenient in the appraisal, the subordinate's performance is seen as better than the actual performance. It is rated much higher than it actually should be. Similarly, in a negative leniency error the performance of the subordinate is not given due recognition. The evaluator gives the subordinate a low appraisal than what he deserves.

There is no problem when the same evaluator appraises all in an organization. This is because even though there is an error factor, it is uniform to all. The problem arises when we have different raters with different leniency errors evaluating different individuals. For example, two subordinates may be equally good on their jobs. If one is assigned to a boss who tends to be positively lenient whereas the other is assigned to another boss who is negatively lenient. These two evaluations are dramatically different and therefore difficult to reconcile.

HALO ERROR

The halo error shows a tendency to let the assessment on one trait influence

the evaluation of that subordinate on other traits as well. For example, if a subordinate is hardworking we may be biased to rate him high on other attributes such as team spirit and dependency. This may not be true at all. The subordinate may in fact be a loner.

One method frequently used to deal with the error is to require the evaluator to consider each dimension independently. Another method, which is generally used where there are a number of subordinates to be evaluated, is to ensure that the evaluator appraises all of them on each and every dimension step by step.

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SIMILARITY ERROR

When the evaluator rates others in the same way as he perceives himself, he is making a similarity error. Thus, the evaluator projects perceptions of the self onto others. For example, the evaluator who perceives himself as dependable may evaluate others by looking for this dimension in others. Those who display this characteristic benefit in the evaluation process. Others tend to lose on the other hand. This error would not matter if the same evaluator appraises all. Low inter rater reliability is observed when there are several evaluators and each uses his own similarity criteria.

LOW DIFFERENTIATION

Sometimes, the pattern of evaluation remains the same irrespective of whom or what trait is evaluated. The evaluator's ability to appraise objectively and accurately is affected by the evaluator's rating style and behavior.

Evaluators may be classified as high differentiators and low differentiators. The former uses all or most ranges of the scale while the latter use a limited range of the scale. High differentiators tend to accept differences and report them. Low differentiators tend to ignore or hide differences.

An evaluator must possess two qualities to be good at evaluation the first quality is the capacity to differentiate. The second is the ability to vary the scores to reflect these differences. Prior to considering the appraisal scores it is desirable to test evaluators to identify low differentiators. The scores provided by them may then be ignored or discounted in the appraisal process.

FORCING INFORMATION TO MATCH NON-PERFORMANCE CRITERIA

Sometimes, the formal appraisal takes place following the decision as to how the employee has performed. This way, subjective, yet formal, decisions are made prior to obtaining objective information. The information is subsequently obtained to authenticate that decision. For example, if the evaluator believes that the promotion should be based on seniority then the evaluation may be adjusted to reflect this. The performance appraisal thereby discounts other factors like quality of experience or merit on the job. Performance ranking of employees

therefore simply reflects seniority as against other crucial considerations. In this case the evaluator manipulates performance appraisals to align with the non-performance criteria actually preferred by the organization.

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INFLATIONARY PRESSURES

Another problem in appraisals is inflationary pressures. This is a case of low differentiation within the upper ranges of the rating. Inflationary pressures have existed for long. Now a days, perhaps, evaluations are less rigorous. Therefore, the negative consequences of the evaluation are reduced by inflating appraisals.

INAPPROPRIATE SUBSTITUTES FOR PERFORMANCE

In most jobs it is difficult to get a clear agreement on what criteria must be used to evaluate performance. For a shop attendant in a small shop managed entirely by himself the criterion may be the sales in his shop. However, this criterion may not be the right one. Usually the sales in the shop are affected by customer preferences, product offerings, the location, décor etc. These factors may be outside the control of the sales attendant. Can he be evaluated on these counts then?

Consequently, the appraisal is frequently made by using substitutes for performance. These are criteria that usually give a fairly good estimate of performance and can therefore be used. Their utility depends on how well they are chosen. They must be able to give a close approximation of the actual performance. However, often the substitutes chosen are inappropriate and do not serve the purpose. In the example given earlier the organization may use criteria such as enthusiasm, leadership decision-making etc as substitutes for performance. These criteria may not reflect performance at all. Criteria such as cordial relations, friendly disposition, positive attitude etc. may be more meaningful. Jobs differ widely. Therefore, what is an appropriate substitute for performance in one job need not be appropriate to another. Caution must be exercised while determining the substitute criteria. Failing which appraisals will not be realistic.

LOW APPRAISER MOTIVATION

When the evaluator knows that a poor appraisal could significantly affect the employee's career he may be unwilling to give a correct appraisal. Appraisals often have an impact on the increments or promotion of the employee. On account of the importance of these decisions and their effects on employee morale, the evaluator may be reluctant to give a realistic appraisal. There is sufficient research evidence that proves it is quite difficult to obtain accurate appraisals when rewards depend on the appraisal results.

The appraisal can lead to three different outcomes. They are the employee is rewarded, not rewarded, or punished. The latter two outcomes are bad for the

employee. At times, there is a risk of negative consequence of accurate performance appraisals. Therefore, there is a lot of hesitancy to do the performance appraisal. Alternately, evaluators prefer to give inaccurate ratings. While there are seldom any penalties for assigning inaccurate ratings, an accurate low appraisal makes the evaluator disliked.

Unless steps are taken to make the evaluator motivated to do a realistic appraisal the chances are that it may not be done correctly. The purpose of doing appraisals is vitiated.

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2.16 IMPROVING PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS

Managers face problems with performance appraisals. Yet it need not be a frightening experience. Managers can do several things that can make performance appraisals more effective and pleasant. There are several techniques used by organizations to accomplish this. Most organizations may use any one of these techniques singly. However, more realistic results are obtained when they use a combination of these techniques. That is why we see practicing managers use different techniques to suit the needs of the requirement of the organization. The choice of technique is environment specific. Let us now see some of the popular techniques used by practicing managers.

PREFER BEHAVIORALLY BASED MEASURES

The organization may emphasize behaviorally based measures over those based on traits. This is because most traits often considered to be related to performance may lack any relationship with good performance. Traits like loyalty, honesty, reliability, and leadership are no doubt intuitively desirable criteria in employees. However, the question is, "are individuals who score high on those traits really higher performers than others who score low?" It is difficult to answer this question. No doubt there are employees who are rated high on these criteria yet they are poor performers. There are others who are good performers but score low on such traits. We can conclude that traits are important but serve a limited purpose in performance evaluation. Moreover, they are job specific and cannot be used universally.

Traits suffer from low inter rater agreement. This is because people differ in their judgement of the criteria. There may not be any clear consensus of what is leadership? How much is needed for doing the job fine etc. No two evaluators would completely agree on these. Therefore, no purpose is served.

Behaviorally derived measures can address these issues. It deals with specific issues of performance. It considers both the good and bad aspects. Therefore, it avoids the problem of using inappropriate substitutes. As specific behaviors are evaluated, the possibility of two or more evaluators agreeing on it is more. As such we may get realistic results.

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COMBINE ABSOLUTE AND RELATIVE STANDARDS

Quite often absolute standards suffer from positive leniency. This is because most evaluators prefer to give higher ratings to avoid conflicts. Relative standards do not give the right picture when the number of subordinates being appraised is small. It is likely that there is very little variability in their performance. No real purpose is served by using relative standards. Therefore, appraisers would do well to use a combination of both absolute and relative standards. For example, an appraiser may use the individual ranking method together with the graphic method. This gives a relatively realistic appraisal as it draws the advantages of both the methods.

ENCOURAGE ONGOING FEEDBACK

All of us are generally inquisitive to know how well we are working. The annual performance review gives us an opportunity to know how the boss evaluates our performance. Such a review is mandatory in almost all organizations. Yet, it suffers from constraints. It is seldom taken seriously. Very often the review is never ever conducted. Sometimes the review is done but the feedback is not given especially if the appraisal is negative. Some managers use the review to settle differences of opinion in the workplace. This causes a lot of stress on the subordinate and strains relations between the boss and his subordinates. In such situations it is not surprising that the boss prefers to keep it a secret. This way he is able to avoid confrontations. Moreover, even when the boss is right he may prefer to avoid an uncomfortable situation like when the subordinate denies or justifies lapses in his performance.

It is better for the evaluator to communicate his opinion on performance on an ongoing basis. The subordinate becomes watchful. He is also alerted on the consequences of his performance. He gets an opportunity to realign his performance. Ongoing feedback also ensures that the annual review is less stressful to the evaluator and the subordinate. He is therefore well prepared for the rewards or punishment that arises out of it. Annual reviews do not offer such flexibility.

USE MULTIPLE RATERS

There is evidence to prove that using a large number of raters increases the probability of more accurate evaluations. This is because when the rater error follows a normal curve, increasing the number of raters will automatically tend to push the majority to the middle. Extreme evaluations are discounted thereby. The probability of achieving valid and reliable evaluations is increased. Most organizations use the 360 degree feedback technique to evaluate employees. The method uses feedback from all persons familiar with the employees work to evaluate him. This would give a more accurate appraisal of performance.

EMPHASIZE SELECTIVE RATING

Evaluators must recognize the importance of restricting their evaluations to only those areas in which they have the required expertise. Thereby, we will be able to increase the interrater agreement. The evaluation is more valid. Evaluators at different organizational levels often differ in their expectations. The situations on which they base their evaluations also differ. If they are separated by several hierarchical levels it is likely that the evaluator rarely has an opportunity to observe the individual's work behaviour. Thus, the possibility of inaccurate evaluations increases. It is therefore better for the evaluator and the individual being evaluated to be as close in the hierarchy as possible.

It is a normal practice to have immediate supervisors and peers participate in the appraisal. They are instructed to evaluate only those factors that they are well qualified to evaluate. For example, while evaluating a worker it may be better for the supervisor to evaluate him using criteria like responsibility, technical skill, and work quality. On the other hand, peers may use such criteria as order, team spirit, and timeliness. This approach is logical as well as reliable. As each evaluator is evaluating only those criteria on which they have first hand knowledge the evaluations are more realistic.

Evaluators differ in traits. Selective rating should also consider the traits of the evaluator. It may be observed that certain traits are correlated with accurate appraisals while certain others are correlated with inaccurate appraisals. Therefore, it is possible to identify effective raters. Such raters alone must be involved in performance appraisals. However, this may not be always possible. In such cases at least greater weights may be assigned to their evaluations.

USE EFFECTIVE EVALUATORS

How do we distinguish between effective and ineffective evaluators? The first step is to identify the traits of each evaluator. The second is to understand how these traits relate to accurate evaluations. Third, we also need to ascertain the capacity of the evaluator to differentiate between performances. An effective evaluator must possess the traits that facilitate realistic evaluations. They must also be able to differentiate between good and bad performance.

It is widely held that managerial effectiveness is correlated with the criteria that are rated high in evaluations. Thus, more effective managers normally tend to value criteria such as initiative, hard work, knowledge, etc. Whereas, less effective managers tend to value criteria such as consideration, team spirit, cooperation etc. Therefore, it would be logical to use more effective managers when evaluating the former criteria. Similarly, it would be logical to use less effective managers when evaluating the latter criteria. Evaluations should preferably be done only by high differentiators. Thus, errors in evaluation are minimized.

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TRAIN EVALUATORS

It is generally difficult to find good evaluators. One possible solution is to train evaluators. The training must be given prior to assigning them the task of evaluation. Systematic training can make individuals more accurate evaluators. Training can help identify weak areas. Workshops may be developed around these areas. Often, evaluators suffer from errors such as similarity, halo and leniency. These can be overcome through practice. In a typical workshop the trainees are asked to observe and rate others behaviors. The feedback given in these sessions expose errors committed in evaluation. Evaluators tend to correct themselves thereafter. However, the effects of training usually diminish over time. Therefore, there is a need for periodic training sessions.

REWARD EFFECTIVE EVALUATORS

All managers doing the evaluation must appreciate the importance of accurate evaluations. They must understand that it is in their own interest that they do an accurate appraisal. However, it is often difficult to impress managers about this. Most managers even prefer to avoid the appraisal process itself. This could affect all round performance. To encourage managers, it would be desirable for the organization to design rewards for accurate appraisals. This provides the much needed incentive to do a realistic appraisal. It also encourages the evaluator to make tough evaluation decisions whenever required.

2.17 SUMMARY

- Recruitment of candidates is the function preceding the selection, which helps create a pool of prospective employees for the organisation so that the management can select the right candidate for the right job from this pool. The main objective of the recruitment process is to expedite the selection process.
- In India, recruitment system is essentially based on the British pattern. Recruitment qualifications at the initial stage are not based on any kind of specialised knowledge or experience. The method of testing merit of the applicants is to assess the general knowledge of the candidate on a variety of subjects. Entrance to civil services is based on merit which is tested by competitive examinations open to all citizens irrespective of religion, sex, caste or creed.
- Training is learning that is directed at bringing about a permanent change, that improves the persons ability to perform the job assigned. Training involves changing knowledge, skills and attitudes. It also involves changing social skills to suit organizational needs. Training is confined to operatives. Operatives are persons employed in production, maintenance and other clerical jobs.

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- Meaning of promotion can be understood from two angles. For the Government, promotion is a system of indirect recruitment i.e., filling up the higher posts by selecting able and competent persons from those, who are already in the service. For the government servant, promotion is an advancement from a lower post, class or service to a higher post, class or service involving higher duties, responsibilities and authority.
- The question of promotion was first discussed during the British Raj in India in the year 1669, when the principle of seniority was accepted for promotion by the East India Company. The Charter Act of 1793 clearly accepted the principle of 'seniority' for promotions in the civil service. This principle remained in force till the enactment of the Indian Civil Service Act 1861.

2.18 REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the basic elements of positive recruitment policy?
2. Discuss the different-different forms of recruitment.
3. How is training conducted?
4. What are the basic features of training in India?
5. What are the fundamental principles of promotion in India?
6. Discuss the approaches of performance appraisal.

2.19 FURTHER READINGS

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CHAPTER— 3

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CONDUCT AND DISCIPLINE

STRUCTURE

- 3.1 Learning Objectives
- 3.2 Introduction
- 3.3 Basis of Position of Bureaucracy
- 3.4 Bureaucracy — Representative Nature
- 3.5 Broadening Base of Indian Bureaucracy
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- 3.13 The Salient Features of J.C.M. Scheme
- 3.14 The Functions of Councils
- 3.15 Board of Arbitration
- 3.16 Administrative Ethics — Concept and Elements
- 3.17 Summary
- 3.18 Review Questions
- 3.19 Further Readings

3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- describe the social composition and issue of representation of civil services with reference to India;
- state the meaning and concept of time management;
- explain concept and importance of discipline;
- discuss the nature and significance of administrative ethics.

3.2 INTRODUCTION

Bureaucracy is the instrumentality of the government to translate the formulated policies into programmes and programmes into realities. Modern state has assumed an array of new functions in the fields of social development, economic progress, institutional modernisation, nation-building, enrichment of

the quality of life for the people. To attend to all these activities, the government of the day must have an adequate administrative machinery so that the welfare programmes and developmental missions of the government can be implemented in the most effective manner. Bureaucracy of the country is precisely in charge of these challenges of change to transform a society poised for a take-off. In this unit, we shall discuss the basis of position of bureaucracy in India and the case for representative bureaucracy. This unit highlights the broadening base of the Indian bureaucracy, some of the studies undertaken in India relating to socio-economic background of the public bureaucracies.

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3.3 BASIS OF POSITION OF BUREAUCRACY

There are different personnel systems in different countries. Indeed, it is difficult to find uniformity in the matter of personnel practices, civil service laws, bureaucratic structure and other dimensions of bureaucracy. Every country has its own societal tradition, environmental compulsions, economic and institutional influences which shape the administrative and personnel system of the government. Bureaucracy occupies an important place in every system. What is important is to know the basis of position of bureaucracy from where does it derive its authority, since all the administrative powers are vested in bureaucracy. Regarding this there is neither a common practice or theory. The French Constitution laid down that the fundamental principles governing the civil service fall within the domain of law and authority of legislature. But application fell within the sphere of regulation of authority of the executive *i.e.*, the parliamentary legislation and rules and regulations made by the executive there under constitute the basis of bureaucracy. In the United Kingdom, civil service had been regarded as 'Sovereign's Service'. The Parliament being sovereign, it can make any law that it deems fit regarding the organisation and regulation of matters concerning bureaucracy. In USA, part of the civil service is controlled by Statutes/Acts passed by the Congress and the other part by the President through instructions and orders within the framework of laws.

In India, the bureaucracy derives authority from the Constitution, parliamentary legislations, rules, regulations issued within the framework of statutes. Parliament may create All India Services common to the Union and the States and also regulate the recruitment and conditions of service of members of such services. The Indian Administrative Service (I.A.S.) and the Indian Police Service (I.P.S.) which came into being prior to the commencement of the Constitution were deemed to be services created by Parliament under Article 312. Parliament has enacted the All-India Services Act to regulate the recruitment and other conditions of service of the All-India Services in consultation with the states. There is a large number of rules and regulations concerning the various

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aspects of service conditions of the members of All-India Services, framed in pursuance of the authority given under the State Acts.

So far as the Central Services are concerned, Parliament has not framed any act so far. The conditions of service including recruitment of the Central Service Officers are regulated by a large number of rules as well as regulations made in pursuance of the authority given under Article 309 of the Constitution.

In a parliamentary democratic system where ultimate power belongs to the people and is exercisable through their representatives in the Parliament, pure discretionary and arbitrary rules concerning bureaucracy are not possible and also not encouraged. In such a system, unlike in monarchical and feudal systems of administration, right from recruitment and selection to their retirement, everything is governed by specified rules, executive instructions, orders etc., issued by the executive organs of the government from time to time.

The position of bureaucracy is not exposed to vagaries of individual whims or personal predilections. Patronage, nepotism and other forms of corruptive influences and norm deviations are sought to be reduced. In other words, where the Constitution is supreme and parliamentary legislation is the authority and the rules and regulations exist as governing guidelines for bureaucracy, there is a greater scope for not only positive fairplay but also equitable opportunity is afforded to all members of the society to join the bureaucracy through prescribed procedures. Obviously, the base of bureaucracy becomes not only Constitutionally ordained and legally well-defined, but also gets broad based and representative.

3.4 BUREAUCRACY—REPRESENTATIVE NATURE

Bureaucracies in most of the countries till about the middle of the nineteenth century comprised men drawn from a numerically small upper classes as it was felt they were more capable to occupy administrative positions. But slowly the introduction of merit for appointment to civil services and the growth of representative institutions, emphasised the need for having a representative bureaucracy. This interest derived, in the first instance, in the U.K. from sporadic charges made about the unrepresentative character of the British Civil Service and its domination by the middle class. It was against this background that Kingsley's work on representative bureaucracy (the term representative bureaucracy was first used by Donald Kingsley in 1944) and Kelsall's detailed study of the social composition of the British administrative class (1955) were undertaken.

The social base of bureaucracy, particularly the Administrative Class in Britain, had earlier been highly 'elitist'. The landed aristocracy, the feudal lords, those who studied in Oxford and Cambridge Universities used to be attracted to and formed the central core of the civil service which had high prestige and

status. But with passage of time, there has been broadening of the base, as more and more people from working classes, are now entering the higher civil service through open competition, besides being promoted from subordinate grades. For instance, in Britain in 1966, a significant component of the total membership of the administrative class to the extent of 40% were promoted from lower ranks. With the introduction of 'Method II' examination for recruitment to civil services, people with adequate learning capabilities are entering bureaucracy which is now becoming more representative than before.

In France, Bottomore's researches (1954) into the French higher Civil Service were in part inspired by contemporary accusations against it as an unprogressive, urban middle class monopoly. Likewise, the Warner Groups, in America in their study on 'The American Federal Executive' (1963) intended to find out whether the bureaucrats were representative of the kinds of citizens ordinarily found in America. The social base of the American Civil Service is broader as compared to India or the UK. Paul P. Vanriper attributed the success of American democracy, in part at least, to the representative character of the Federal Civil Service.

The objective of all these studies as discussed above was to find out how representative a higher civil service of the particular country is of the respective regions, occupational groups and classes. It is felt that the more representative the bureaucracy is of the various sections of society, it will be more responsive to their needs.

3.5 BROADENING BASE OF INDIAN BUREAUCRACY

The modern state is an administrative state. As discussed earlier, the functions of the government representing the state have expanded so extensively and comprehensively that even the minutest aspects of citizen's life have been brought under the regulatory control of the state apparatus. The government has become the prime-mover, initiator and promoter in various activities, supplementing and complementing the private endeavours. With the expansion of governmental charter of responsibilities bureaucratic intervention and even penetration has become pronounced. It creates a great demand on the educational system of the country, which has to throw up the requisite number, and kind of 'marketable' bureaucrats of different types and skills. There was a time when, in the context of limited educational opportunities available, the "elites" of the society used to fill the higher civil services of the country. The elitist character of the Indian Civil Service is well known. Now with the frontiers of education expanding phenomenally even the groups traditionally thought to be outside the administrative umbrella, have now been brought within the ambit of bureaucracy. Those belonging to rural areas, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and backward castes are entering the bureaucracy and the base has expanded.

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Let us now discuss the findings of a few research studies undertaken in India on socioeconomic background of the bureaucracy. The focus of these studies has been on higher civil services. The first such study relating to public bureaucracy was conducted by R.K. Trivedi and D.N. Rao in 1960 on "Regular recruits to the IAS", and sought to look into the background of the directly recruited IAS officers with a view to finding out whether (a) any significant patterns or trends have emerged over the last thirteen years in regard to their social background as revealed by their fathers' occupations and their rural/urban affiliations etc., (b) there is any concentration of the direct recruits belonging to any particular economic class and (c) any particular type of education (e.g., public school or foreign universities) or studies in certain regional universities in the country have given any added advantage to the candidates in the open competitive examinations.

This study brought out the fact that in so far as the occupations of the fathers of the regular recruits are concerned, there is predominance of government servants, followed by teachers, advocates, etc. 79 per cent of the total number of recruits were from urban areas while 21 per cent of them were from rural areas. Women accounted for 3.1 per cent of the regular recruits to the I.A.S. Those belonging to the scheduled castes and tribes constituted 2.1 and 1.5 per cent respectively of the total recruits. The study further brought out that about 1/3 of the total number of recruits came from upper income-bracket families. Though the average representation of persons belonging to the lower-income group is only 8.9 per cent, their numbers and percentage have been steadily increasing since 1950 at the expense of those in the middle income group category. About 10.2 per cent and 4.4 per cent of the recruits were those who were educated in public schools and foreign universities respectively. However, since 1956 an upward trend has been noticeable. The universities which contributed the largest number of successful candidates to the I.A.S. were the universities of Madras, Delhi, Allahabad and Punjab.

Another study was conducted by C.P. Bhambri during 1966-67 on the Socio-Economic Background of Higher Civil Service in India. The sample comprised about 309 probationers undergoing training at the National Academy of Administration, Mussoorie. Their educational background revealed that about 75% of them had Master's degree from Indian Universities while 11 % possessed qualifications substantially higher than Master's degree.

The socio-economic background of the recruits showed heterogeneity as there were children of persons holding the highest posts at the union and state levels in the fields of administration, judiciary, army, police as well as children of school teachers, clerks, revenue officials etc. In our country where an overwhelming majority of the population is engaged in agriculture this study

revealed that nearly 17% of the recruits into the higher civil services belonged to farming families. Out of these 17%, most of them with an agricultural background belonged to middle income brackets in the rural society and a small number were from rich landowning class.

The next study that was undertaken in 1971 was by Subramaniam, entitled "Social Background of India's Administrators". This research study revealed that nearly 80 per cent of the entrants to the higher civil services in India were drawn from the urban salaried and professional middle class. Those belonging to the business classes were less represented compared to the civil servants and professionals. Those drawn from a commercial background were mostly the Sons of small-town merchants or the employees of small business houses. The farmers and agricultural labourers forming the bulk of the workforce were grossly under represented in all the services even more than the artisans and the industrial workers.

Within this broad picture of middle class dominance, the social composition has broadened. One obvious reason for this is the recruitment of a quota of candidates from the scheduled castes and tribes. This broadening of the social background, has also been accompanied by features such as a more even distribution of recruits from different states, different language groups, and different educational institutions. Although there has been a simultaneous fall in proportion of first class graduates, still, greater proportion of them come from public schools, better colleges, and enter services due to their good performance in the examination and interview.

These few studies, have, unfortunately, not been updated. There must have been many changes in the socio-economic landscape of this country, which, in their turn, might have created counterpart-impact on the bureaucracy in India, by influencing its social composition, character and representativeness. But on the basis of certain derived secondary information, some impressionistic trends can be inferred.

Civil Service examination conducted by the U.P.S.C. for recruitment of higher non-technical civil servants throws up significant and relevant data about the educational background of the candidates, the spread of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes members (which would give an indication of their social background), universities which contribute the successful candidates (indicating the regional representation of bureaucrats) etc. Let us analyse, these aspects on the basis of data of Civil Services (Main) Examination, 1987 which is presented below. The number of candidates who actually appeared in the examination was 9103, out of which 817 candidates were finally recommended for appointment.

Table 3.1, below indicates the distribution of candidates according to (i) degrees obtained by them *i.e.*, Higher ((Hons.)/Post-Graduate/Doctorat) degrees

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and pass degrees (ii) proportion of first class vis-a-vis others and (iii) performance of those with first class vis-a-vis others with success ratio.

Table 3.1

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	No. of candidates who appeared	1st class	Others	No. of candidates who qualified	1st class	Others
Higher Degrees	6264 (68.81%)	3618 (57.76%)	2646 (42.24%)	616 (75.40%)	451 (73.21%)	165 (26.79%)
Pass Degrees	2839 (31.19%)	1339 (47.16%)	1500 (52.81)	201 (24.60%)	113 (56.22%)	88 (43.78%)

There are about 135 universities spread in different parts of the country, from which the candidates appear for the higher civil services. The top ten universities in relation to the number of candidates appearing in the examination, together with the success ratio, is at Table 3.2 below:

Table 3.2

Name of University	No. appeared	No. qualified	Success ratio
Allahabad University	714	42	1:17:00
Andhra University, Waltair	228	25	1:9:12
Delhi University	1089	154	1:7:07
Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi	227	46	1:4:93
Lucknow University	232	20	1:11:60
Osmania University, Hyderabad	226	20	1:11:30
Panjab University, Chandigarh	279	28	1:9:96
Patna University	365	21	1:17:38
Rajasthan University, Jaipur	708	52	1:13:61
Utkal University	271	14	1:19:36

These ten Universities provided 4337 (47.64%) candidates who appeared, of which 422 (51.65%) qualified. It may be noted that the three universities which accounted for more than 500 candidates (appeared) are Allahabad, Delhi and Rajasthan. Of these three, Delhi's success ratio (1:7:07) is higher than the overall success ratio (1:11:14). It is also noteworthy that the three Presidency Universities i.e., Calcutta, Bombay and Madras do not find any place in the top ten universities which furnish largest number of candidates who appear, although the success ratios of these 3 universities (Calcutta — 1:9:92, Bombay — 1:13:37 and Madras — 1:9:47) are much better than many of these ten universities.

Interestingly, from the success-ratio. Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore had the best record in 1987 examination (1:3:30), followed by Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad (1:3:87), I.I.T., Delhi (1: 4 : 60) and Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi (1 : 4 : 93) etc., though this by itself does not reveal much. But one thing is clear that there is a wide variety of candidates from all kinds of general and technical disciplines, e.g., Humanities, Social Sciences, Linguistics, Pure Sciences, Veterinary Science, Agriculture, Technology, Medicine, Mining etc. Indeed, in 1987 Civil Services Examination, 9103 actually appeared in the Main Examination with as many as 48 optional subjects in fields such as Management, Public Administration, Economics, Political Science, Psychology, Sociology, Statistics, Commerce & Accountancy, History, Law, Anthropology, Zoology, Geology, Philosophy, Literature, Engineering (Civil & Mechanical) etc. History claimed the highest number of successful candidates (263 out of 3403), followed by Sociology (201 out of 2067), Political Science & International Relations (141 out of 1409), Physics (92 out of 865), Anthropology (85 out of 734), Psychology (80 out of 821), Economics (80 out of 792), Public Administration (76 out of 754), in that order. -

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The performance of candidates obtaining first division varied considerably from university to university, but there were at least 55 universities/institutions belonging to Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Assam, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar, Kerala, Jammu & Kashmir, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Rajasthan, Manipur, Orissa, Punjab and Gujarat from which no candidate having first division succeeded in qualifying for appointment. Interestingly, out of 10 candidates holding Doctoral Degrees who appeared, none could qualify.

Age-distribution of the successful candidates also make revealing study. 49% of the general candidates belonged to the age-group of 21-24 years and 51% to 24-26 years. As against this 15% of the SC/ST candidates belonged to 21-24 age-bracket, 27% to 24-26 years, 23% to 26-2t years, and 35% to 28-33 years. Apart from the aspects of age-composition-and-mix in the service cadres, and proportion of direct recruits to promotees, it has significant dimensions, in deciding about the number of chances to be given as also the upper age limits to be allowed for the examinations.

REPRESENTATION OF SCHEDULED CASTES/SCHEDULED TRIBES IN CIVIL SERVICES

During 1984 to 1987, SC/ST candidates have been appointed against the full quota of their reserved vacancies in (i) Civil Services (Main) Examination, (ii) Indian Forest Service Examination, (iii) Combined Medical Services Examination, (iv) Special Class Railway Apprentice Examination, and (v) Asstt. Grade Examination.

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The 'short-fall cadres' are:

- (a) Engineering Service Examination
- (b) Indian Statistical Service Examination
- (c) Geologists' Examination
- (d) Stenographers' Examination.

This would indicate low 'backward class' representation in the various techno-professional cadres of the public services, though things are improving, of late.

The tables below indicating the representational position of SC/ST against their reservation would show that things have improved phenomenally over the years.

Representational Increase of Scheduled Castes

Group	Scheduled Castes		Representational increase with ref. to 1965 figures	
	in 1965	in 1987	Absolute terms	%age
A	318	4752	4434	1394.3
B	564	7857	6993	809.3
C	96114	308119	212005	220.5
D	201073	234743	33670	16.7

Representational Increase of Scheduled Tribes

Group	Scheduled Tribes		Representational increase with ref. to 1965 figures	
	in 1965	in 1987	Absolute terms	%age
A	52	1182	1130	2173.1
B	103	1450	1347	1307.7
C	-	90160	77770	627.7
D	38444	28220	29776	77.5

Alongwith the increase in the representation of SC/ST in the federal civil services, there has also been substantial representation of 'other backward classes' (OBCs) for whom there was no reservation. The figures (compiled in 1979) indicating the SC/ST and OBC proportion of the total employees (all classes/groups together) in the Central Government (including Public Sector Undertakings), as given in the table below, reveal hopeful trends:

	Total Employees	SC/ST	OBC
Ministries/Deptt.	73339	12343 (16.83)	3545 (4.83)
Autonomous Bodies/ All/Sub Offices	90761	163948 (18.06%)	131012 (14.43%)

PSUs	590689	117864 (19.95%)	62650 (10.61)
Total	1571638	294155 (18.72)	19720 (12.55)

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As against 18.72% for SC/ST who enjoyed constitutional safeguards in the form of reservation and many other concessions and privileges the OBC percentage stood at 12.55% which is quite high, when set against the background of their socio-economic and educational backwardness and no guaranteed facilities at the ground as well as recruitment levels. Of course, their percentage in total population is also higher (in fact more than double) than that of SC/ST combined (52% against 22.5%), which limits to a great extent, the representative character of the public bureaucracy.

But certain emerging trends which are noticeable in recent years in India, relating to widening base of bureaucracy are:

- (1) More and more scheduled castes/tribes are entering in large numbers in civil service cadres-not only against reserved quota but also on their merit. During the last many years there has been no SC/ST shortfall in recruitment to higher civil services, except in certain professional cases.
- (2) Other Backward Classes also are following suit in terms of numerical increase in their representation in the civil services-which indicates a good widening of the base of bureaucracy.
- (3) Due to the spread of educational facilities in the country side, the urban hold is declining and more and more candidates with rural background are being inducted in the civil services.
- (4) Civil Service is no longer the monopoly of 'Oxbridge'-type of convent and public school boys & girls. Since there is now a more even spread of other educational institutions which are throwing up greater number of successful candidates in competitive examinations.
- (5) Though 'middle class' still dominates the civil service scenario, along with 'upper', the 'lower' middle class also is making their presence more and more which is breaking the earlier 'economic barrier' of the higher civil services.
- (6) Children of civil servants, academicians, professionals, etc., still preponderate in the civil services, though other classes belonging to 'lower-middle' and 'lower' communities are also sending their wards in increasing number.

Bureaucracy in India especially the higher civil services, of late has no longer been the preserve of the well-to-do class and the social composition of the services is broadening. Efforts in the direction need to be made through greater spread of

education, evolving more scientific methods of recruitment, so that without compromising the principle of merit, more can be drawn within the fold of bureaucracy.

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3.6 TIME MANAGEMENT

Time management refers to a range of skills, tools, and techniques used to manage time when accomplishing specific tasks, projects and goals. This set encompasses a wide scope of activities, and these include planning, allocating, setting goals, delegation, analysis of time spent, monitoring, organizing, scheduling, and prioritizing.

Initially, time management referred to just business or work activities, but eventually the term broadened to include personal activities as well. A time management system is a designed combination of processes, tools, techniques, and methods. Usually time management is a necessity in any project development as it determines the project completion time and scope.

TECHNIQUES FOR SETTING PRIORITIES

There are several ways to set priorities.

ABC Analysis

A technique that has been used in business management for a long time is the categorization of large data into groups. These groups are often marked A, B, and C—hence the name. Activities are ranked upon these general criteria:

- A – Tasks that are perceived as being urgent and important.
- B – Tasks that are important but not urgent.
- C – Tasks that are neither urgent nor important.

Each group is then rank-ordered in priority. To further refine priority, some individuals choose to then force-rank all “B” items as either “A” or “C”. ABC analysis can incorporate more than three groups.

ABC analysis is frequently combined with Pareto analysis.

Pareto Analysis

This is the idea that 80% of tasks can be completed in 20% of the disposable time. The remaining 20% of tasks will take up 80% of the time. This principle is used to sort tasks into two parts. According to this form of Pareto analysis it is recommended that tasks that fall into the first category be assigned a higher priority.

The 80-20-rule can also be applied to increase productivity: it is assumed that 80% of the productivity can be achieved by doing 20% of the tasks. If productivity is the aim of time management, then these tasks should be prioritized higher.

It depends on the method adopted to complete the task. There is always a simpler and easy way to complete the task. If one uses a complex way, it will be time consuming. So, one should always try to find out the alternate ways to complete each task.

POSEC Method

POSEC is an acronym for Prioritize by Organizing, Streamlining, Economizing and Contributing.

The method dictates a template which emphasizes an average individual's immediate sense of emotional and monetary security. It suggests that by attending to one's personal responsibilities first, an individual is better positioned to shoulder collective responsibilities.

Inherent in the acronym is a hierarchy of self-realization which mirrors Abraham Maslow's "Hierarchy of needs".

1. Prioritize - Your time and define your life by goals.
2. Organizing - Things you have to accomplish regularly to be successful. (Family and Finances)
3. Streamlining - Things you may not like to do, but must do. (Work and Chores)
4. Economizing - Things you should do or may even like to do, but they're not pressingly urgent. (Pastimes and Socializing)
5. Contributing - By paying attention to the few remaining things that make a difference. (Social Obligations).

3.7 DISCIPLINE—CONCEPT AND PROBLEMS

In spite of the best efforts of the employer to select good employees and maintain them well, employees may create problems in the work place. Such problems affect their performance as well as the performance of other employees. In effect it would affect the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization. Common problems include absenteeism, frequent quarrels with other employees, refusal to accept work related orders, alcoholism and drug abuse, non compliance with safety measures etc. These problems are viewed seriously. Every organization has rules and standards of accepted work behavior. Most employees exercise self discipline. They are well within the requirements prescribed. Normally, employees do not desire to be isolated. Therefore, they prefer to meet the expectations of the organization.

There are quite a few employees who are not self disciplined. They do not meet the rules and standards of accepted behaviour. Disciplinary action is initiated when employees do not conduct themselves according to these. Usually some punishment is initiated against the employee. The idea is that the disciplinary

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action would condition the employee to correct unaccepted work behaviour. Let us understand some of the important unaccepted behaviours, the fall outs of these behaviour, and also understand how we can manage these employees.

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TYPES OF DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS

There are several problems that arise in the workplace. Not all of these are considered important enough to initiate disciplinary action. We take a look at the most important ones. They are :

- Attendance
- Dishonesty
- On the job behaviours, and
- Undesirable actions outside the organization.

Attendance

It is one of the serious problems that managers face. Attendance is a serious problem as it affects performance. It occurs because employees goals are not aligned to the to that of the organization. If this is done there is probability of reducing its occurrence. Employees also tend to use all of the leave that is available to them. Especially misuse of sick leave that is allowed to the employee is noticed. Employees report sick even if they are not. This because they believe that not using the leave is in effect not enjoying their privileges. In fact they believe that sick leave is time off earned by them. A change in attitude towards employment is also observed. Employees don't appear to take their jobs seriously. They are therefore willing to absent themselves frequently. Moreover, some employees find it difficult to balance home and work life. Therefore, they tend to absent from work. With the introduction of flextime, organizations have been able to tackle some of the issues contributing to absenteeism. In other cases much remains to be done.

Dishonesty

Generally, dishonesty attracts the severest forms of disciplinary action. It usually leads to the dismissal of the employee. Dishonesty takes the form of stealing, lying or falsifying key information. This is because the organization believes that even a single incident of dishonesty may point to the possibility of the person repeating it over again. They are therefore unwilling to give them a chance again. Most organizational cultures do not tolerate dishonesty. It is often believed that dishonesty must be punished.

On the Job Behaviours

Organizations do not tolerate some forms of on the job behaviour. Insubordination, quarrelling, failure to use safety a gears , alcoholism and drug abuse are a few of them. These problems are an indication that the employee is

unwilling to abide by the rules of the organization. As these behaviours are unacceptable, corrective action is initiated. As these problems can be addressed and wiped out through appropriate corrective action, they attract a lesser form of disciplinary action.

Undesirable Actions Outside the Organization

Activities done outside the organization can also affect on the job performance. Sometimes, such behaviour negatively affects the image of the organization. Engaging in criminal actions, revealing business secrets to competitors, accepting grafts for doing jobs, etc. are some examples of bad job behaviours. When the employees off the job behaviour is bad, the organization may find it embarrassing. In such situations, it can take appropriate disciplinary action against the employee. The severity of the problem decides the punishment.

3.8 ESTABLISHING A FAIR AND EQUITABLE DISCIPLINARY PROCESS

Disciplinary action is based on the severity of the problem. Therefore, the organization must first understand the nature of the problem. This will help the organization decide on the disciplinary action. Disciplinary action must be fair and equitable. Let us now understand relevant issues that help the organization decide the disciplinary action. They are:

- Seriousness of the problem
- Frequency of occurrence
- Persistence of the problem
- Employee's work conduct
- Extraneous factors
- Communication of Discipline Related Information
- Organization's Disciplinary Practices
- Outcomes of Disciplinary Action and
- Management Conviction.

As each of these has a wide range of implications for the employee as well as the organization, let us see them in detail.

SERIOUSNESS OF THE PROBLEM

The first step is to assess the severity of the problem. Absenting from the work spot for a few minutes is usually viewed as less bigger disciplinary problem than dishonesty.

Therefore, the latter kind of problem would attract severe disciplinary action as against the former.

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FREQUENCY AND PERSISTENCE OF OCCURRENCE

Is this problem an isolated occurrence? If so then it would call for a very minor disciplinary action. However, if it is a repeated or chronic problem then it would need more attention.

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Nature of the Problem

A minor problem is sometimes related to some other more complex problem. Then, steps must be taken to prevent this minor problem becoming a major one. Besides counseling employees, at times there would be a need to initiate a more severe disciplinary action. Where there is no scope for correction at all, the severest disciplinary action must be taken. If it is left unaddressed, then there is every chance that it could have spill over effects.

EMPLOYEE'S WORK CONDUCT

What does the employee's past performance show? Is he sincere? Is this discipline problem of recent origin? How long has been with the organization? Has he been punished before? Usually, employees who have had a good record are punished less severely. Similarly, the punishment given to a new employee is likely to be different from that given to an employee with a long tenure.

EXTRANEOUS FACTORS

Other environmental factors could have influenced the occurrence of the problem. An employee who is absent because she has to take care of a sick dependant is likely to be treated leniently. On the other hand, the employee who is absent but reports for work in another organization is likely to get a more severe form of disciplinary action.

COMMUNICATION OF DISCIPLINE RELATED INFORMATION

Discipline rules must be formalized and communicated to all employees. Employees do not view informal rules seriously. It is also difficult for the organization to enforce such rules. Unless it is communicated appropriately to all employees, there is a possibility that employees will not be aware and so do not adhere to the rules. Generally, during socialization, employees are informed of the rules and the consequences of violation. The punishment would depend on the knowledge the employee has about the existence of the rules and the consequences of violation.

ORGANIZATION'S DISCIPLINARY PRACTICES

Have the occurrences of similar problems been documented before? What action was taken then? Is there uniformity in occurrences of problems across departments? Is there equity in disciplinary action? Equity means that a similar problem in another department must have attracted similar disciplinary action. Equity is integral to the success of the disciplinary action. Unless there is equity

there is no credibility to the disciplinary action. Employees begin to view actions suspiciously. It affects the image of the organization. As far as possible, the organization must ensure transparency in its disciplinary practices.

OUTCOMES OF DISCIPLINARY ACTION

It is easy to initiate disciplinary action if it affects a single employee. When a number of employees are involved and the union is active it becomes quite difficult to initiate disciplinary action. Yet, if the problem is grave the organization has no other option but initiate action. Such action would help warn other employees. If the action is likely to pit the organization against its employees, there is a lot of thinking that needs to be done. It would be better, if the organization were able to negotiate with employees rather than initiate a disciplinary action that aggravates the problem further.

MANAGEMENT CONVICTION

When the employee challenges the action, the matter usually moves to a court of law. Can the organization substantiate its action? Formal rules help in such situations. Moreover, if the organization is able to maintain records and show that it is practicing equity, it can prove its case. If the employee is able to challenge and prove the organization wrong successively, then the disciplinary practices become questionable. The organization can ensure the effectiveness of the disciplinary action by following the guidelines discussed below.

3.9 DISCIPLINARY GUIDELINES

Disciplinary guidelines are helpful to human resource managers. These guidelines help them to administer the disciplinary action. Let us understand these guidelines. The three most significant points of the guideline are:

- Choose corrective action as against punishment
- Disciplinary Action must be Progressive
- Apply the hot stove when needed

What do these mean? Let us see them in detail.

CHOOSE CORRECTIVE ACTION AS AGAINST PUNISHMENT

The objective of disciplinary action is to change undesirable employee behaviour. Punishment is effective in correcting such behavior. However, it may not be necessary to resort to it at all times. Even if punishment is desirable, it may be better to initiate corrective action. This is because corrective action would help an employee correct himself. Over time learned behaviour becomes a part of his work behavior. The effect lasts long. Punishments can momentarily correct behaviour. The effect is short lived. Moreover, it can have other side effects that are not good for the organization. Therefore, it is not effective always. It is best to resort to punishment only when there is a dire need.

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DISCIPLINARY ACTION MUST BE PROGRESSIVE

The disciplinary action depends on the discipline problem. While administering the disciplinary action, care must be taken to ensure that it is progressive. Disciplinary action must take the form of a continuum. It means that for small problems, the disciplinary action must be mild. For bigger problems it should be severe. The mildest disciplinary action is the oral warning. A written warning, suspension, and dismissal follow it. Dismissal is resorted only in extreme cases.

APPLY THE 'HOT STOVE' WHEN NEEDED

Disciplinary action must be based on the principle of equity. The disciplinary action must be aligned with the disciplinary practice of the organization. There should be no favoritism. The disciplinary action should follow the 'hot stove' rule. This is similar to touching a hot stove. A person touching a hot stove gets a burn immediately. The person knows before hand that touching the stove will cause a burn. Every person touching the hot stove gets the burn. The hot stove does not distinguish between persons. Every time the person touches a hot stove he gets the burn.

The impact of the disciplinary action is reduced when there is a time lag between the problem and the initiation of action. To be effective, the disciplinary action must immediately follow the occurrence of the problem. It also helps the employee relate the problem with the initiation of disciplinary action. However, the urge to act fast must not cloud the need to initiate action.

The disciplinary action must follow a warning. All employees must be aware of the organizations rules and acceptable standards of behaviour. Disciplinary action is fair when the employee is given a clear warning that violations would attract penalty. The kind of penalty for different kinds of violations must also be clearly informed.

There must be consistency in the disciplinary action. Inconsistency in enforcement of rules affects the impact of the disciplinary action. Employees doubt the action of the managers. Employees feel insecure causing high anxiety. Productivity and morale would tend to decline. Such situations are best avoided. At times, due to environmental factors, the manager may act in ways inconsistent with the disciplinary action. It is important to justify the action and communicate it to all employees. This will help to put the matter in the right perspective. It also reinforces faith in the disciplinary action:

All penalties must relate to violations not to persons. It must relate to what the person does rather than what his personality is. The penalty must be the same for all persons who violate the rules. Disciplinary action must be impartial. Impartiality ensures fairness and builds confidence among employees.

By adopting the hot stove the organization is able to ensure that the disciplinary action is effective. However, it is quite difficult for most organizations to adopt it. This is because, hot stoves are often considered to be too harsh on employees. This is especially the case with the first timers. They tend to create a lot of anxiety among employees. The human relations school favors a humanistic approach when dealing with employees. Most bosses therefore do not wish to enforce the hot stove.

Sometimes the organization is able to put in place the hot stove to discipline its employees. However, it may face several enforcement problems. For example, a boss in one department may be willing to use it for disciplining his subordinate. A boss in another department may feel that it is unfair and may not report a discipline problem for fear of having to subject his subordinate to the hot stove. This would be quite unfair to the employees in the other department. It may so happen that when this boss is replaced with someone with a different thinking, problems may be encountered. Each time they have a new boss they may have a different experience. Employees tend to become confused.

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3.10 DISCIPLINARY ACTIONS

Let us now discuss the common disciplinary actions. They are:

- Oral Warning
- Written warning
- Suspension
- Demotion
- Pay cut
- Dismissal

Disciplinary action is progressive. Hence, we shall discuss these according to their severity. The mildest form of disciplinary action will be discussed first.

ORAL WARNING

It is the first step in the disciplinary action. It is the mildest form of discipline. The boss must inform the employee of the rules that he has violated. The outcomes of his action must be discussed. The employee must be given a fair chance to communicate his feelings on it. It gives the employee an opportunity to justify his actions or give reasons for lapses. The boss is then able to see the problem in a better perspective. Once the problem is agreed to, the employee is given tips to help him correct his behaviour. This ensures that such lapses do not occur in future. The employee is also informed about the consequences if the problem persists.

It is a common practice to record the lapse and place it on the employee's file temporarily. All details pertaining to the lapse must be recorded. The report

must contain the nature of the problem, time of occurrence, place of occurrence, and outcome of discussion. Normally, if the lapse is corrected, then the record is removed from his file.

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An effective oral warning avoids the need for further disciplinary action. The employee would correct his behaviour. However, if the employee does not correct himself, then there is a need for a more severe action.

WRITTEN WARNING

It is the second step in the disciplinary action. In effect, it is the first stage of the formal disciplinary action. Prior to giving the written warning, the employee is called for a discussion with the boss. The boss then informs the employee that he has violated the rules. The outcomes of this violation are discussed. The employee is given a chance to defend himself. This discussion provides an opportunity to the employee to justify his actions or provide reasons for lapses. It brings clarity to the problem and identifies a solution to correct it. The consequences of deviant behaviour are also communicated. The boss informs the employee that he will be issued a written warning. Subsequently, the boss writes up a warning. The warning states the problem, the rule that the employee has violated, solution agreed to, and consequences of recurrence of deviant behaviour. The written warning is placed in the employee's file permanently.

A written warning is usually effective. The employee normally is afraid and corrects his behaviour. It may avoid the need for severe disciplinary action. However, when the employee fails to correct himself there is a need to go for the next stage of action.

SUSPENSION

It is the third step in the disciplinary action. It is usually resorted to when the earlier two discipline actions have failed. Sometimes, if the problem is severe, then the suspension may be given without either an oral or written warning. For example, an employee caught in the act of sabotaging a fire safety device may be suspended without notice. By sabotaging the device the employee endangers the lives of others.

A fire mishap is likely to cost the organization heavily both in terms of life and property. The organization would want to send a strict warning to its employees. Therefore, it resorts to the suspension.

A suspension or lay off denies the employee the chance to discharge his normal duties in the organization. The period of suspension may be short just for a day or else for several weeks. The period of suspension depends on the severity of the problem. During the period of suspension, the employee does not draw his salary. This denial can be effective in correcting the employee. It makes the employee aware that the organization will not tolerate such lapses.

Organizations resist using suspension as a disciplinary action. This is because; the suspended employee undergoes a lot of trauma if he sees meaning in it. It becomes difficult for him to come back to work with the same work group. If he does not see reason in his suspension, then he develops a negative attitude to work and the organization. He may even influence his co-workers. The consequences may be worse than what it was prior to the suspension. It may be better in this case if the organization restrains from suspending the employees. Sometimes, the organization may find it difficult to replace a suspended employee. This is because he has a set of key skills that are not normally available with other employees. In such a situation, much as it would like to suspend the employee, it would have to refrain from doing so. This would perhaps be in the wider interest of the organization.

Demotion and pay cuts generally follow suspension. However, they are not as widely used as the other disciplinary actions. However, they are also important for disciplining employees.

DEMOTION

Some times the organization resorts to demotion. A Demotion sends a strong signal to the employee that his behaviour is not acceptable to the organization. Most organizations do not prefer to use this method. This is because it demoralizes the employee as well as other employees. It is a sever form of punishment. The demoted employee is conscious about the demotion at all times. It leaves a lasting mental scar. As a demotion has a very serious motivational consequence on the employees, it is very sparingly used.

What are the situations when the demotion is warranted? It is warranted in the following situations where the organization:

- Wants to punish, but does not wish to dismiss the employee as he is capable of doing a good job.
- Desires to warn the employee and force him to correct himself.
- Cannot legally dismiss an employee from service.
- Feels that dismissing the employee may not be ethical.
- Wants to warn other employees that such behaviour will not be tolerated.

Organizations seldom tolerate unacceptable behaviour. A demotion reminds the employee that he has to abide by the rules. The employee is forced to take steps to correct his behaviour according to the standards set by the organization. It is aimed at bringing about a permanent change in the employee's behaviour.

PAY CUT

Pay cuts may be imposed on the deviant employee. Pay cuts are used as an alternate to dismissal. This form of punishment has a demoralizing effect on the employee.

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When is the pay cut warranted? It is warranted in the following situations where the organization:

- Desires to handover a serious warning to the employee to correct unacceptable behaviour.
- Does not want to lose the employee through a dismissal.
- Wants to save the costs it has to bear on hiring and training a new replacement employee.

The pay cut indicates to the employee that he has to correct himself. He is given a chance to realign his behaviour with the expectations of the organization. Once he accomplishes this, the pay cut is rescinded. Thereafter, he begins to draw his normal pay.

DISMISSAL

Dismissal is the severest form of punishment. It is used only for serious disciplinary problems. There is perhaps no other alternate action available in some cases. The employee's behavior may be so bad that the organization is forced to dismiss him. For example, an employee in a defence research organization engages in disclosing military secrets to the enemies. Can the organization turn a blind eye? Can it allow a similar incident to happen once again? It definitely cannot do so. The employee's action affects the reputation of the organization. More over, it has a cascading effect. It would endanger the life and property of the nation. The organization has the moral responsibility to punish the employee. It has the duty to send a signal down to other employees that such behaviour will not be tolerated. It has no better option than to dismiss the employee.

A dismissal is traumatic to the employee. It can emotionally upset the employee and his co-workers. Moreover, it is usually difficult to find a good replacement for this employee. Added on are the costs attached to the replacement. Considering the constraints, organizations do not resort to dismissal of employees. However, where there is a severe disciplinary problem, the organization is forced to resort to dismissal. All decisions to dismiss an employee are taken only after the *pros* and *cons* are carefully weighed.

3.11 JOINT CONSULTATIVE MACHINERY

The history of the civil service staff relations is characterised by the recognition of the fact that employees at work like to be treated as human beings. The recognition of the human dignity was one of the cardinal factors that lead to the resolutions of the grievances of the employees in a peaceful manner, in democratic method and at regular periods.

The early employer-employee relations in the government service followed the traditional pattern, where the government employees were expected to owe

unquestionable loyalty to the State. Therefore, the conditions of service of the employees were determined unilaterally by the government without consulting the employees.

The labour in the private sector secured benefits in matters of wages and working conditions as a result of effective labour organisation and militant actions. This led to the conviction among government employees' organisations that through joint and united efforts and concerted action only they could ensure improvement in their service conditions. Accordingly, the government employees resorted to strikes and brought pressure on the government to negotiate in good faith with its employees. They demanded the State to be a model employer for promoting sound employer-employee relations.

Modern democratic governments with large-scale administrative organisations committed to the all-round development of the society cannot carry out their policies and programmes without the active cooperation and participation of the employees. Therefore, harmonious staff relations are absolutely necessary for administrative efficiency and it is not possible for the governments to maintain cordial relations without an effective form of consultation and negotiation. For this reason, the civil service staff relations policies and programmes must be consistently based on the principles of democratic government.

Strikes by the government employees, it was realised, cannot be prohibited without providing suitable framework of joint consultation, collective negotiation procedures and methods of dispute settlement by compulsory arbitration.

As such, establishment of a grievance redressal and disputes solving machinery was considered the "essential half-way house" between the unilateral imposition of conditions of service in the public employment by the state as employer on the one hand, and deadlocks and strikes on the other. It was felt that all matters relating to pay, hours of work and conditions of service may be negotiated by the representatives of the employees and the employer. Thus, the discussions in joint consultative bodies generally relate to the exchange of information and consideration of the suggestions for improving safety, security, health and welfare and increase of productive efficiency.

The results of such mutual discussions usually take the shape of recommendations framing the final decision to the government. The emphasis in joint consultation is mainly on informal method and cooperation based on common interests and good faith to improve the working conditions of employees and to increase the efficiency of administration. The simple aim of such relationship is to facilitate and promote peaceful resolution of conflicting interests. The outcome of such a process is influenced by the comparative abilities of the parties involved to reach agreement. It is the power relationship between the employer and the employees. In this unit, we will examine significance of the Joint Consultation in

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civil service staff relation, evolution of Joint Consultative Machinery, functioning of Joint Consultative Councils and Board of Arbitration and also discuss suggestion or the improvement.

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EVOLUTION OF JOINT CONSULTATIVE MACHINERY

It was the introduction of 'Whitleyism' in 1919 in the British Civil Service Staff relations hailed by several countries as the novel method in the area of human relations. The Whitley system which involves formal as well as informal consultations and negotiations leading to agreement or arbitration has been an example followed in a large number of countries of the British Commonwealth with certain modifications.

The staff relations in the British Civil Service are maintained through Whitley councils method. The Civil Service National Whitley Council is responsible for joint consultation on conditions of service affecting civil servants in general irrespective of the department to which they belong. The Departmental Whitley Councils are responsible for staff matters within their departments. Local Whitley Committees discuss matters affecting the local working conditions and day-to-day problems.

The Government of India and the organisations of employees struggled nearly for three decades to have staff relations on the pattern of Whitley Councils in the U.K. The issue was first raised in 1928 and again in 1942. The Royal Commission on Labour in 1931 recommended the establishment of a joint standing machinery for Railways. However, the Home Department did not accept the proposals, in spite of the favourable attitude of the Labour Department.

The government referred the matter to the Central (First) Pay Commission in 1946 to enquire on "The machinery for negotiating and setting the questions relating to conditions of service which may arise out of differences between government and its employees".

The Commission recommended (1947) the establishment of Joint Councils for employees, excluding those in Class I, on the lines of Whitley machinery. The Commission also recommended arbitration in regard to Class II and Class III Services resort to ad hoc tribunals on the lines of Civil Services Arbitration Board in United Kingdom. However, the Railways and the P&T were not included in this Scheme as they were covered by the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947.

Though the government decided to establish a Whitley scheme in 1952, it was only in 1954 that all the Ministries of the Government of India were asked to set up Staff Committees/Staff Councils. However, the scheme was not extended to the Railways, P&T and the Ministry of Defence. The employees of these departments were considered as industrial employees. In these departments, staff relations were evolved independent of others. Permanent Negotiating Machinery (PNM)

was established in Railways in 1952, Monthly Meetings were introduced in P&T in 1949 and Joint Negotiating Machinery was set up in Defence in 1954.

Staff Committees/Councils

As per the directions of the government each Ministry was required to establish two separate Staff Committees one for staff other than Class IV and another for Class IV employees to secure the greatest measure of cooperation between the government and its employees. The Staff Committees were advisory bodies.

The Staff Committee in respect of other than Class IV employees consist of:

- (a) A Chairman, who was Secretary or Joint Secretary of the Ministry, nominated by the Ministry.
- (b) Government representative were nominated by the Ministry from its officers not below the rank of Under Secretary.
- (c) The staff were represented by one member each for every 20 members employed in the Ministry in the grade of Section Officer, Assistant, Stenographer and Clerk, elected from amongst the members of that grade for a period of one year.
- (d) The Chairman in consultation with the representatives of the staff, nominated one of them as Secretary of the Committee.

With regard to the Staff Committee of Class IV employees.

- (a) A Deputy Secretary of the Ministry was nominated to act as the Chairman of the Committee.
- (b) The Ministry nominates its representatives on the Committee not below the rank of an Assistant.
- (c) The members of the staff were represented by one representative each for every 20 members from the groups consisting of Record Sorters, Jamadars, Peons, Farrashers, Chowkidars and Sweepers. They were elected for a period of one year from amongst the members of grades in each group employed in the Ministry.
- (d) The Secretary was nominated by the Chairman from amongst the Staff representatives for a period of one year.

Both the Committees were to meet at least once in three months. The quorum for a meeting was one-third of the representatives of the members of the staff. Discussions were held in the meetings on agenda circulated in advance. The decisions were recorded and sent to the concerned Ministry for necessary action.

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Objectives and Functions

The objectives of the Staff Committees were:

- (a) To consider suggestions for providing the standards of work,
- (b) To provide a machinery to the staff for making their points of view known to the Government on matters affecting their conditions of service, and
- (c) To provide means on personal contacts between officers and staff in order to develop cordial relations between them and to encourage them to take keen interest in their work.

The functions of the Committees were to discuss matters relating to the conditions under which the staff were required to work, general principles regulating conditions of service, the welfare of the staff and improvement of efficiency and standards of work. Discussions on individual cases were not permitted.

The working of the Staff Committees proved to be unsatisfactory. The problems faced by many Ministries were that in the majority of the cases, decisions could not be arrived within the Ministries and the recommendations of the Committees very often had to be referred to the Ministries of Home Affairs, Finance, Works, Housing and Supply for their clarification and clearance.

Functioning of Staff Councils

In 1957, the Cabinet appointed a Sub-committee to review the functioning of Staff Committees. On the recommendations of the Sub-committee, some instructions were given to all the Ministries to:

- (a) Re-name the Staff Committees as Staff Councils.
- (b) Dispose quickly the references emanating from the Staff Councils by the House Keeping Ministries.
- (c) Refer unresolved matters to a Coordinating Committee consisting of representatives of Ministries of Home Affairs, Finance, Works, Housing and Supply.
- (d) Explore the possibilities of delegating more powers to the administrative Ministries to avoid delay in making references to house-keeping agencies.
- (e) Appoint a Chief Welfare Officer in the Home Ministry and a Welfare Officer in each Ministry.

As per the decisions of the Cabinet sub-committee the Staff Committees were renamed as Staff Councils without any change in their constitution, objects and the rules of procedure. A Coordinating Committee consisting of representatives of the Ministry of Home Affairs, Finance, Works, Housing and Supply and the concerned ministry was constituted to decide matters which remained unresolved

in the Staff Councils. The Ministry administratively concerned with Staff Councils decide what matters should be brought before the Coordinating Committee.

The Staff Councils during their existence (1954–59) made many recommendations. Most of them were accepted and implemented by different Ministries. But they were unimportant items like water coolers, transport facilities, grant of leave, office uniforms, canteen facilities, dispensaries and first aid boxes etc. Neither the machinery of administration was improved nor the important grievances of the employees were redressed. The Second Pay Commission report observed “due to lack of will on the part of the Government to accept the principles of joint consultation failed as an effective instrument for prevention of the disputes.”

Therefore, the Second Pay Commission proposed that “the situation required the ‘establishment of machinery which fully in spirit and largely in form followed the Whitley Machinery in the United Kingdom”. Thus, the Staff Committees and Councils had “little in common with the Whitley Machinery” and failed to square up with the real Whitley spirit.

In India, the government civil employees have not shown any remarkable preference for a joint consultative machinery. On the other, the government did not consult the organisations of the employees when it introduced the Staff Committees and Councils. It was a unilateral attempt for a bilateral purpose. The Whitley cause also could not be served in the absence of arbitration machinery for resolving the disputed matters. Further, due to their advisory nature the scope of the Staff Committees/Councils and their activities were much restricted and the way in which they were handled by the officers further limited their utility. There was no Central Joint Staff Council like the National Whitley Council to consider issues of common and general application to all the employees of the Ministries. As the Civil Service Unions/Associations were not involved, the organised sections of employees declared no faith, rejected the Councils and considered them as “merely eye-wash”. The officials at the top level were responsible for the ineffective functioning of Staff Councils for want of Whitley thinking. The staff representatives on the Committees/Councils lacked the necessary leadership to represent their views effectively. In actual practice, they merely acted as forums for the staff to ventilate their grievances and put forward them to the nominees of the government in the Staff Councils.

3.12 EMERGENCE OF JOINT CONSULTATIVE MACHINERY (J.C.M.) AND COMPULSORY ARBITRATION SCHEME

As already stated, the Second Pay Commission recommended (1957), a Whitley type machinery for the whole body of Central Government employees,

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both-industrial and non-industrial to negotiate disputes. A special Committee of the Central Joint Council dealt with matters peculiar to the industrial employees. The Commission also recommended, compulsory arbitration, as a necessary compliment to the joint machinery for negotiation in matters of pay and allowances, weekly hours of work and leave.

In 1960, the Central Government employees went on strike for five days from July 11-16. One of their demands was the establishment of joint consultative machinery (J.C.M.). Immediately, the Government decided to set up the J.C.M. and proposed a scheme. Accordingly, three-tier machinery with joint consultation at the Central, the Departmental and regional/local levels as supplementary to existing arrangements was proposed. The scheme covered all the civil employees of the Central Government including the P&T Department, Civil Aviation Department and the Ministry of Defence.

The Scheme proposed an arbitration tribunal with a limited compulsory arbitration provision. The government during 1960-61 proposed to bring two bills before the Parliament to give statutory effect to the proposed J.C.M. and ban strikes by government employees. The employees' organisations protected against the proposals of the government and refused to give up right to strike and disassociate outsiders from their organisations.

After discussions between the government and the employees organisations the Government of India decided in 1963 to introduce a scheme for joint consultative machinery and compulsory arbitration. On many aspects of the scheme the employees organisations expressed doubts and opposed certain proposals of the government. The government wanted to bring all the employees (including industrial employees) under one umbrella. Therefore, there were discussions on many occasions at all levels for three years and all the doubts were clarified and there was a general consensus that a fair trial be given to the scheme. Thus, the Joint Consultative Machinery and Compulsory Arbitration Scheme for Central Government Employees was inaugurated on October 28, 1966.

The inauguration of the Scheme of J.C.M. was considered "opening of a new chapter" and hoped that the relationship of Governments with its employees would enter a new era of more fruitful cooperation.

3.13 THE SALIENT FEATURES OF J.C.M. SCHEME

The Scheme was designed "with the object of promoting harmonious relations and securing the greatest measure of cooperation between the government and its employees in matters of common concern, and with the further object of increasing the efficiency of the public service combined with the well-being of those employed".

The Scheme is a voluntary one. The government and the employees unions and associations who participate in the scheme are required to subscribe to a Declaration of Joint Intent. Accordingly, both the sides (the government and the staff associations and unions) agreed to a full and frank discussions on all matters in the Joint Councils to reach agreements.

The unique feature of the Scheme is its coverage of both industrial and non-industrial of the government. In this regard it differs from the Whitley System which is concerned with only non-industrial civil service. Another difference is that the J.C.M. Scheme does not cover "the class I, class II services, employees of industrial establishment and the union territories and police personnel".

Yet another difference is that the fundamental objective of Whitley System viz., to provide machinery for dealing with grievances and to bring together experience and points of view of representatives of different classes and grades of civil service is not stated in the J.C.M. Scheme.

The J.C.M. provides for a three-tier structure and Joint Councils at the National, Departmental, Regional/Office levels. The J.C.M. Scheme is a bi-partite body consisting of the representatives of the government (official side) and the representations of the recognised employees organisations (staff side). The official side is nominated by the government and the staff side seats allocated to different associations/unions/federations recognised by the government.

The Scheme broadly covers about 3 million regular class III and IV civil employees of the Central Government including industrial employees working in the departmentally run undertakings like the Railways and workshops and production units of various ministries.

Though the Indian J.C.M. Scheme was modelled after the Whitley System in U.K., the Indian Scheme could not inculcate in its scheme, the spirit and the long experience of the Whitley system. It is more a joint consultative machinery than a bi-partite participative agency.

3.14 THE FUNCTIONS OF COUNCILS

The Joint Councils deal with all matters concerning the conditions of work, standards of work, efficiency and staff welfare. However, in matters of recruitment, promotion and discipline, consultation is limited only to matters of general principles and individual cases are not considered.

The Councils may appoint Committees to study and report on any matter falling within their scope. All the agreements reached between the official and staff sides of a council will become operative subject to the final authority of the Cabinet. If the matter is arbitrable and a final disagreement were to be recorded it may be referred to arbitration, if either side desires so. However, compulsory arbitration is not available at regional/office council level.

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NATIONAL COUNCIL

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The National Council is the apex body. It is one of the largest joint councils consisting of 85 members. The official side with a maximum membership of 25 is nominated by the government.

The staff side is nominated by the recognised federations/unions/associations of the employees. The seats are distributed between the federations/unions/associations by the Chairman of the council. The distribution of seats is based on the numerical strength of staff employed in each Ministry/Department.

The Cabinet Secretary is the Chairman of the Council. He is the leader of the official side and is connecting link between the government and the employees.

The staff side elects one of its members as a leader by simple majority for a term of one year. The official and staff sides appoint Secretaries from amongst their representatives. There is a permanent secretariat of the council, which functions under the control of the Chairman.

The National Council deals with matters generally affecting Central Government Employees, such as minimum remuneration, dearness allowance, and pay of certain common categories like the office clerks, peons, and the lower grade of workshops and matters relating to categories of staff common to two or more departments but not grouped into one departmental council. The National Council would not deal with matters pertaining to a single department.

The National Council ordinarily may meet as often as necessary but not less than once in four months. A special meeting may be convened by the Chairman on his own or at the request of either official or staff side. The quorum for a meeting is one-third of the individual strength of the official and staff side.

The National Council may constitute two Standing Committees one for the industrial employees and the other for the non-industrial staff to deal with their respective matters. The Council may delegate any of its powers to the Standing Committees for the quick disposal of its business. The Council and the Committees may also appoint Sub-committees from amongst their members to study and report on any matters falling within its jurisdiction.

A matter once disposed of by the council cannot be brought to the agenda during the following 12 months, unless the Chairman permits it for any special reason. All matters should be decided by the council without reserving them for a later decision by the government.

The success or failure of the J.C.M. Schemes mainly depends upon the success or failure of the functioning of the National Council. For, the National Council is expected to function as a machinery to redress grievances at the national level dealing with matters affecting all the employees of the Central Government.

Since its inception in 1966 it had held 25 meetings till the end of 1988. Over a period of 22 years of its existence could withstand all the problems though it had some failures. In the initial years, the council could not reach certain agreements and the employees went on a day's token strike in September 1968 protesting against unhelpful attitude of the government. Due to the strike many of the employees organisations were derecognised for a couple of years. Therefore, the National Council could not meet with full strength. However, the council and its Committees were very active during 1974-76 to consider the recommendations of the Third Pay Commission.

Though the National Council could not succeed in achieving all its objectives, it acted effectively as a machinery for dealing with the grievances of the employees and reduce the amount of conflict with the government. However, the National Council has come to stay and has taken roots to provide a system of joint consultation and cooperation.

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DEPARTMENTAL COUNCILS

Under the J.C.M. Scheme there is one Departmental Council for each Department, The scope and functions of these councils include all matters relating to the conditions of service and work, welfare of the employees, improvement of efficiency and standard of work. However, in regard to recruitment, promotion and discipline, consultation is limited to the matters of general principles only individual cases are not considered. The Councils deal with the problems of employees working in a Ministry/Department and the subordinate and attached offices of the department.

According to the J.C.M. Scheme 21 Departmental Councils are to be constituted in various departments. Till 1974, only 14 Departmental Councils were constituted. In the initial period it became difficult to constitute the Departmental Councils for want of recognised unions/associations.

The Secretary of the Ministry represents the official side and is the Chairman of the Departmental Council. The official side is nominated by the government or the Head of the Department. The strength of the official side is Ten. The Chairman may invite temporary members and experts to the meetings for their advice.

The Associations/Unions recognised by the Department nominate their representatives for a term of three years on the staff side. The staff side elects one of its members as its leader for a period of one year. There is a permanent secretariat of the council under the control of the Chairman.

The membership of the staff side varies from Twenty to Thirty depending on the total strength of the employees and the number of grades and services in the department.

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The Departmental Councils ordinarily meet as often as necessary and not less than once in three or four months. The quorum is one-third of each of the strength of the official and staff sides. The Councils may appoint Committees on *ad hoc* basis.

REGIONAL/OFFICE COUNCILS

The J.C.M. Scheme permits the departments for the setting up of Regional/office Councils, where it is possible. The Councils deal with only regional or local matters. The strength of a regional/office council is determined by the size of the staff in a region or office. The Head of the region or office is the Chairman of the Council. The J.C.M. Scheme is silent about the constitution and the number of councils. Much progress is not recorded in the establishment of the councils, as there are some doubts in the minds of the Departmental authorities.

The matters to be discussed are limited to subjects within the competence of Joint Secretary (Administration) of a Ministry/Department such as revision of duty hours, distribution of work, accommodation, amenities, holiday duties, etc.

The Office Council consists of not more than five members on the official side and eight members on the staff side. The Joint Secretary (Administration) is the Chairman of the Council and the Under-Secretary (Welfare) is the Secretary of the official side.

The staff side is nominated by the recognised associations of the staff. The staff side elects its leader for a period of one year and appoints a Secretary from amongst its members.

The office council meets at least once in two months. The quorum is 1/3 of the members of each side. It may appoint committees to study and report.

If the council cannot arrive at an agreement on any issue it may be brought before the Departmental Council concerned. Arbitration is not available at office council level in case of disagreement between two sides.

To realise the full objectives of J.C.M. Scheme, setting up of regional/office councils is very important. For, they are the training fields to the representatives of the staff and official sides and provide grassroots to the J.C.M. Scheme. However, much progress is not achieved in establishing these councils for want of organisation of employees and positive attitude of officials at the local levels.

3.15 BOARD OF ARBITRATION

Compulsory arbitration is a part of the scheme for Joint Consultation Machinery and Compulsory Arbitration for Central Government Employees.

The government is required to appoint a Board of Arbitration under clause 19 of the scheme. The Board consists of three members, one is drawn from a panel of five names submitted by the official side, second from a similar panel

submitted by the staff side of the National Council, and the third a Chairman, who is an independent. The Chairman and the members are selected by the Ministry of Labour. The first Board of Arbitration was established in July 1968.

The jurisdiction of the arbitration matters is limited to : (a) pay and allowance (b) weekly hours of work and (c) leave of 'a class or grade of employees'. Individual cases are not subject to compulsory arbitration.

Guidelines are laid down for the Board of Arbitration to arrive at decisions and its jurisdiction in certain matters is barred. Further, matters determined by the government in accordance with the recommendations of a commission are not arbitrable for a period of five years from the date of the recommendations and orders issued by the Government in pursuance of the recommendations of the Board of Arbitration remain in operation for three years.

The recommendations of the Board of Arbitration are binding on both the sides but the Parliament may modify or reject them on grounds of national economy or social justice.

In the very first and second meetings of the National Council the government rejected to refer to the compulsory arbitration the major demands of the staff side like the 'need' based minimum wage, and merger of D. A. with basic pay. On this issue the employees went on a day's token strike on 16th September 1968 much against the Declaration of Joint Intent.

During 1968-88, a total number of about 200 references were made to the Board of Arbitration and it gave 175 awards. In more than 150 cases the staff side either fully or partially benefited. The number of employees benefited due to the awards of the Board of Arbitration runs into millions. Most of the cases referred were pertained to pay scales and allowances. The arbitration awards clearly favoured the claims of the staff side. In a way, compulsory, arbitration in India contributed to development of harmonious staff relations in the Government of India.

3.16 ADMINISTRATIVE ETHICS – CONCEPT AND ELEMENTS

There is a need to develop both human and modern technology to improve efficiency. However, priority should be given to human development. These are two aspects to development technical and human. Organisations had usually been more sensitive to possibilities offered to them by the achievements of modern technology than to the refinements of human behaviour as revealed by the sciences of sociology and psychology. On the other hand, lessons drawn from experience showed that technical innovations deriving from the engineering sciences encountered considerable resistance unless supported by corresponding changes in human attitudes and behaviour. In an era of rapid change, the

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improvement of management in its human aspect had become a critical issue. It is important to make full use of the findings of social sciences which endeavoured to be instrumental in giving guidance in the behaviour of individuals and groups in varying circumstances.

Organisations, should, therefore, be conceived as complex socio-technical systems whose management requires both technical skills and insight into the motives of human behaviour.

It is widely agreed that manipulation and lack of ethics produce strong negative side effects and reduce organisational effectiveness. With this important value commitment, the organisations may shift their styles and climate from direction, control and surveillance to providing help, support and instruction. Mutuality and collaboration between the leaders and the led, self-control and mutual support an essential for creating an organic organisation. Let the newcomers strive to set up organised society with social democracy and high human values setting up ideal societal or public management institutions and if such timely warnings are not accented, social upsurges are bound to develop in a mild or a violent form.

In spite of the enactment of laws, rules and regulations to ensure impartiality, honesty and devotion among the civil service, there still remains a vast area of administrative discretion which cannot be controlled by formal laws, procedures and methods. In such areas "no supervision from above" says Otto Kircheeimer, "can be as effective as an automatic control on the minds of those possessing it and creating standards of efficiency as well as honesty. Any deviation from the common standards under such circumstances is likely to be discovered sooner or later and rooted out." In the words of McCanny, in all such areas "they must answer to their own conscience, to their own senses of dignity and pride, to the opinions of their fellow-men and above all, to their devotion, to their own honest effort to define the total welfare and to serve it. The group of civil servants must be imbued with the ideal of service. It was rightly mentioned by Garner that "No society can reach heights of greatness unless in all fields critical to its growth and creativity these is an ample supply of dedicated men and women". The ideals of ethics enshrined in the various religious scriptures must be imbibed by one and all in the administration.

The basic principle that "in helping others, one is helping one's oneself", should be ingrained in the character. Then alone, the system would reflect it. On the public administrations, managers and political leaders depend, to a great extent, the work atmosphere. Only when human beings are treated as human beings, only when, none in the system feels that helshe is being exploited then only he/she can give his/her best to the organisation.

ESSENTIALS TO ENSURE THE PRACTICE OF ADMINISTRATIVE ETHICS

Conduct and Discipline

The following are the essentials to ensure the practice of administrative ethics.

(i) Faith, Determination Towards Pursuit of Excellence of Service in Their Professional Activities

The most important factor for the success of any organisation is its leadership— political and administrative. Public services must develop ethical standards which help them in their best performance. Standards are contagious. They spread throughout an organisation, a group, or a society. If an organisation or group cherishes high standards, the behaviour of the individual who enters it is inevitably influenced. They should not develop an excessive sense of self-importance or arrogance. Senator Paul Douglas's remarks quoted below should be imbibed by the public services:

"It is fortunate that there are in government large number of men and women who lead devoted lives of public service. They work extremely hard for far less pay than they could get in private industry. They never sell out the public interest but instead, defend it with great difficulties. They do all this, moreover, without receiving appreciable praise. They are generally either little known or actually ignored by the public. Sometimes, they are bitterly attacked by interests which are seeking to obtain unfair privileges or which are swayed by unfounded prejudices. These men and women are indeed unsung heroes, who deserve far more recognition than they receive."

The future of the public services is in the hands of its members who must strive for creativity, academic excellence, and the pursuit of excellence of service in their professional activities. In this way, it would be possible to create a climate of creativity and optimum performance. Such a situation would have a chain effect.

An attitude of dedication to the set goals of an organisations should be an indispensable trait of the top leaders. This is their primary source of self-confidence to operate and function effectively and efficiently and in turn transfer the same to the public. It is not just performing development-linked administrative duties; it is taking action and encouraging people to take action required to bring about structural changes and growth in the economy. This needs to be supplemented by their belief in the organisational goals.

In the words of Jawaharlal Nehru:

"No administrator can really do first class work without a sense of function. Without some measures of a crusading spirit. I am doing this,

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I have to achieve this as a part of a great movement in a big cause. That gives a sense of function, not the sense of the individual, narrow approach of doing a job in an office for a salary as wage, something connected with your life's outlook or anything, perhaps being interested, as people inevitable are on one's personal preferment in the particular work."

(ii) Infusion of Ethics into Politics

Infusion of ethics into politics so that the political elite can demonstrate integrity and instill faith among subordinates about their fairness and impartiality:

Most of the problems in public administration emanate from political corruption and interference. The credibility gap between the political and administrative leadership is on the increase. Most of the commissions, committees and the daily press have been emphasising the gravity of the situation. No organisation can progress until and unless its political leaders are above board. One of the founding fathers of the Indian Constitution, Mr. H.V. Kamath, regretted that the total devaluation of moral values and ethical ideals in public life and administration today has given rise to the present day rat race for position, power and pelf by any means more by crook than by hook.

The political elite must demonstrate integrity and instill faith among their subordinates about their fairness and impartiality. Faith is a contagious disease and once it is developed, it would bend the various levels of the administration into a cohesive structure. All the decisions in such an organisation are affected by the whims of political elite rather than the needs of the organisation. Thus, there is a need to train the political elite to encourage them to pursue ethical ways so that they fulfil the pledges made to the people to lead a good, clean life. Words, written or spoken, are of no use unless put into action. The emphasis should be more on performance than on paper planning. The future of this budding developing democracy depends upon the attitude of its political and administrative elite.

(iii) Relations between Citizens and Personnel to Create Favourable Opinion towards Public Services

Many well-intentioned and technically sound programmes aimed at solving problems have been frustrated by lack of popular acceptance and community participation.

Public relations is the establishment of a climate of understanding. It means interpreting the programme of an organisation to the public and vice versa. The purpose of public relations is not only to supply information, but also to encourage an understanding and co-operation between the citizens and the public servants. It is the duty of every member of the organisation to maintain public relations.

There is a great deal of alienation between the people and the organisation. This has undermined the legitimacy, effectiveness and credibility of the public administration in our country. We need to promote harmony and mutual trust among the people and public administration. The objectives of public relations should be to increase prestige and good-will and protect the life of the organisation by safeguarding it against unwarranted attacks as well as to remove the genuine complaints and grievances of the people.

To improve understanding between the citizens and the personnel, public relations need to be developed in an effective manner to create favourable community opinion towards public services. This would create confidence in the minds of the people towards the competence, fairness, honesty, impartiality and sincerity of the public services.

(iv) Need for Character Building

Administrative morality is a part and parcel of the general morality of the community. Finer said, "The ethics of every profession will be found, on close analysis, to be not much higher and not much lower than the general decency of the nation as a whole. Their nature, at the best, is powerfully moulded by the level of surrounding and prevailing civilisations".

The success of any government depends upon the effective collaboration of its citizens. All the books of civics would emphasise civic consciousness for the progress of the country. This is possible only if our educational system and mass media are reoriented to character-building among the people. People's character is the ultimate source which can supply kinetic energy for modernisation and development.

There is a great need to infuse civic consciousness, patriotism and discipline among the citizens through education, adult education and functional literacy. The members of all the Communities would then cooperate with the personnel in the public services. And the personnel in the public services would work hard to bring about all round development of the people. The former President Sanjiva Reddy while inaugurating the Silver Jubilee Celebration of Kurukshetra University on January 11, 1980, rightly said the "India is in need of a new educational system which will look upon the child as a bud that opens up petal by petal and which needs the sunlight of the ideals of truth, beauty and goodness. Only such citizens would be able to contribute to national prosperity in whatever field they may be engaged."

(v) Impartiality

The prestige and reputation of the civil service depends to a great extent upon the ethos, attitudes and perception of its member.

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In this context, the foremost characteristics required among the civil servants are impartiality and consistency in the transaction of public business. Civil servants are required to be completely impartial to avoid corruption and favouritism; civil servants must maintain the dignity and authority of the public office. They must meticulously implement the policies and programmes as laid down in laws, regulations and rules.

An allied requirement of promoting impartiality is the necessity of developing and maintaining a national outlook. It involves on the part of the civil service, willingness to understand and be tolerant of different points of view, different cultural patterns, and different work habits. It also means willingness to work without prejudice or bias with persons of all regions, religions and cultures. It involves conduct of the highest type and exercise of judgement and restraint in all expressions of view whether public or private. Any expression which could be construed as biased or intolerant, particularly in respect of regional interests or political issues with which the organisation is confronted, must be avoided.

(vi) Political Neutrality

Political neutrality is an essential ingredient of civil service in a democratic setup for the integrity the efficiency of administration. It means that the civil service should give free and frank advice to the government impartially and without any political consideration. It also means the implementation of the decisions of the government by the civil service faithfully whether such decisions were in consonance with their advice or not; P.C. Sethi in his article, "New Challenges in Administration" in the Indian Journal of Public Administration (April-June, 1975) has rightly said that the concept of neutrality should be emphasised to generate:

- (a) public confidence in the administrators against political influences;
- (b) trust among the ministers that their orders would be faithfully carried out irrespective of their ideology; and
- (c) keeping of an atmosphere of appraisals and promotions in the civil service which would be free from political influence.

To maintain the discipline, integrity and political neutrality of the services, the Civil Services Conduct Rules framed by the Government of India lay down the code of conduct to be observed by the government servants. The service rules for ensuring neutrality of the service in politics provide that:

- (a) No member of the service shall be a member of, or be otherwise associated with any political party or any organisation, which takes part in politics nor shall he/she take part in, subscribe in aid of, or assist in any other manner, any

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- (b) It shall be the duty of every member of the service to endeavour to prevent any member of the family from taking part in, subscribing in aid of, or assisting in any other manner, any movement or activity which is, or tends directly to be, subversive of the government as by law established and where a member of the service fails to prevent a member of his/ her family from indulging in any of the aforesaid actions, he/she shall make a report to this effect to the government.
- (c) No member of the service shall canvass or otherwise interfere or use his/ her influence in connection with or take any part in, any election to any legislature or local authority.
- (d) A member of the service qualified to vote in elections may exercise his/ her right to vote but where he/she does so, he/she shall give no indication of the manner in which he/she proposes to vote or has voted.
- (e) No member of the service shall, in any radio broadcast or in any document published anonymously or in his/ her own name, or in the name of any other person, or in any communication to the press or in any public utterance make any statement of fact or opinion, (i) which has the effect of any adverse criticism of any current or recent policy or action of the Central Government or a State Government or, (ii) which is capable of embarrassing the relations between the Central Government and the Government of any State or, (iii) which is capable of embarrassing the relations between the Central Government of any foreign state.

A survey of these rules indicate that these are too strict. We must not forget that the civil service in India constitutes one of the biggest well-informed groups of our population on public affairs. The government should liberalise its policy on political rights of civil servants and allow the civil services as advised by the Central Pay Commission to breathe in an atmosphere of freedom and self-confidence.

The Committee on petitions (Rajya Sabha) considered the political rights of civil servants in its fifty-first report presented to the Rajya Sabha in June 1977. Rajya Sabha did not favour the granting of political rights of civil servants as this would have an adverse effect on the objective and non-partisan approach expected of a government servant.

The problem is how to make the civil servant sensitive to national programmes and keep him/her away from partisan political activity. N. Rajagopalan in his article, "Political Mentality of the Public Service : A Perspective Study" in the Indian Journal of Public Administration (January-March, 1977) has rightly concluded that —

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“As a human being no public servant can be psychologically neutral on issues and problems which confront him. No public servant can possibly take a neutral position between welfare and stagnation, between service and apathy, and between action and inaction. A commitment to the goals and objectives of the state is inescapable, neutrality cannot be allowed to degenerate into unconcern, political sterilization, ought not become political desensitization. There is a crying need, more than ever before, for developing sense of responsiveness and positive concern in the public administration to the goals and programmes of the state in democratic governments, if public administrative is to deliver the goods and take its rightful place in the national polity.”

3.17 SUMMARY

- In India, the bureaucracy derives authority from the Constitution, parliamentary legislations, rules, regulations issued within the framework of statutes. Parliament may create All India Services common to the Union and the States and also regulate the recruitment and conditions of service of members of such services. The Indian Administrative Service (I.A.S.) and the Indian Police Service (I.P.S.) which came into being prior to the commencement of the Constitution were deemed to be services created by Parliament under Article 312.
- Time management refers to a range of skills, tools, and techniques used to manage time when accomplishing specific tasks, projects and goals. This set encompasses a wide scope of activities, and these include planning, allocating, setting goals, delegation, analysis of time spent, monitoring, organizing, scheduling, and prioritizing.
- Disciplinary action is based on the severity of the problem. Therefore, the organization must first understand the nature of the problem. This will help the organization decide on the disciplinary action. Disciplinary action must be fair and equitable.
- It was the introduction of 'Whitleyism' in 1919 in the British Civil Service Staff relations hailed by several countries as the novel method in the area of human relations. The Whitley system which involves formal as well as informal consultations and negotiations leading to agreement or arbitration has been an example followed in a large number of countries of the British Commonwealth with certain modifications.

3.18 REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Write a short essay on the composition of civil services in India.
2. What is the nature of representative bureaucracy in India?
3. What are the possible disciplinary action taken against misconduct?
4. What do you understand by "Whitely Council"?
5. What are the essential elements of administrative ethics?

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CHAPTER — 4

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PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION : ISSUES

STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Learning Objectives
- 4.2 Introduction
- 4.3 Integrity in Administration
- 4.4 Corruption in Civil Services
- 4.5 Causes for Decline of Integrity in Civil Services
- 4.6 Legal Framework to Check Corruption
- 4.7 Suggestions for Improvement of Integrity in Civil Services
- 4.8 Generalist and Specialist
- 4.9 Controversy Between the Generalists and Specialists in India
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- 4.11 Rights of Civil Servants
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- 4.13 Reasons for the Growth of Administrative Tribunals
- 4.14 Types of Administrative Tribunals
- 4.15 Advantages of Administrative Tribunals
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- 4.17 Safegaurds in the Working of Administrative Tribunals
- 4.18 Administrative Reforms
- 4.19 Types of Administrative Reforms
- 4.20 Administrative Reforms in India Since Independence
- 4.21 Summary
- 4.22 Review Questions
- 4.23 Further Readings

4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- understand the nature and importance of integrity in administration;
- state the concept of generalist and specialist besides the relationship between political and permanent executives;
- explain the rights of civil servants;
- discuss the establishment and functions of civil service tribunals;
- describe the concept and need of administrative reforms.

4.2 INTRODUCTION

Corruption, ethics and integrity have become more important issues in the practice and theory of politics, public administration, law, economics and society. Integrity denotes the quality of acting in accordance with the accepted moral values, norms and rules.

Integrity is a concept of consistency of actions, values, methods, measures, principles, expectations, and outcomes. In ethics, integrity is regarded as the quality of having an intuitive sense of honesty and truthfulness in regard to the motivations for one's actions. Integrity can be regarded as the opposite of hypocrisy, in that it regards internal consistency as a virtue, and suggests that parties holding apparently conflicting values should account for the discrepancy or alter their beliefs.

The word "integrity" stems from the Latin adjective *integer* (whole, complete). In this context, integrity is the inner sense of "wholeness" deriving from qualities such as honesty and consistency of character. As such, one may judge that others "have integrity" to the extent that one judges whether they behave according to the values, beliefs and principles they claim to hold.

A value system's abstraction depth and range of applicable interaction may also function as significant factors in identifying integrity due to their congruence or lack of congruence with empirical observation. Such a value system may evolve over time while retaining integrity if those who espouse the values account for and resolve inconsistencies.

4.3 INTEGRITY IN ADMINISTRATION

The dictionary defines integrity as 'soundness of moral principles; the character of uncorrupted virtues; uprightness; honesty; sincerity, Integrity is, indeed, the most essential attribute of a welfare state. The first five year plan rightly emphasised : "Integrity in public affairs and administration is essential and there must, therefore, be an insistence on it in every branch by public activity. The influence of corruption is insidious. It undermines the structure of administration and the confidence of the public in the administration. There must, therefore, be a continuous war against every species of corruption within the administration."

Vitaly important though integrity of personnel is, it is, today, a largely forsaken virtue, and faces a serious threat of being driven out of existence from the public administration, indeed, from most sectors of life of this country. Instances of individuals lacking integrity are legion. Or, as Nirad C. Chaudhuri writes, "There is hardly any one from a petty clerk to a minister who is not

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manageable with a proportionate amount of gratification". This statement may probably hold good for all walks of life in India of today.

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4.4 CORRUPTION IN CIVIL SERVICES

Deviation from normal standards of lack of integrity takes various shapes in the form of corruption, patronage (based on communalism, sectarianism, nepotism and favouritism) and undue influence. Bribery, nepotism, misuse of power or influence, black marketing profiteering and similar other practices are not all that is meant by corruption. In fact, anyone wasting public money, lacks integrity.

In general terms, corruption may be defined as the deliberate and intentional/exploitation of one's position, status or resources directly or indirectly, for personal aggrandizement whether it be in terms of material gain or enhancement of power, prestige or influence beyond what is legitimate or sanctioned by commonly accepted norms to the detriment of the interests of other persons or the community as a whole.

Section 161 of the Indian Penal Code defines 'corruption' in legal terms, as under:

"Whoever being or expecting to be public servant accepts, or obtains, or agrees to accept, or attempts to obtain from any person for himself/herself or for any other person any gratification whatever other than legal remuneration as a motive or reward for doing or forbearing to do any official act, or for showing, or to show, in the exercise for his/her official function, favour or disfavour to any person, or for rendering or attempting to render any service or disservice to any person, with the Central or any State Government or Parliament or Legislature of any State or with any public servant as such, shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to three years, or with fine, or with both."

Another species of corruption not generally recognised as corruption is extravagant expenditure of public money. Extravagant expenditure of public money amounts to inflicting an undue charge on the general public by spending public funds on purposes that are not essential or spending more than necessary on essential purposes.

4.5 CAUSES FOR DECLINE OF INTEGRITY IN CIVIL SERVICES

There are various causes of corruption which result in lack of integrity. These can be discussed under the following headings.

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(i) Historical Causes

In India, corruption has its roots in the colonial rule of the past. British administration was not interested in the overall development of the country. All higher posts were given to Britishers and they were paid handsomely. Lower posts were offered to Indians. Salaries to these posts were very low. So they indulged in corrupt practices.

After World War II, scarcities led to many types of controls. It gave added opportunities to these low paid employees to resort to corrupt practices. Then it became habitual. It was during World War II that corruption reached the highest mark in India. The climate for integrity which had been rendered unhealthy by wartime controls and scarcities was further aggravated by the post-war flush of money and the consequent inflation.

(ii) Environmental Causes

The second important cause of corruption in public service is fast urbanisation and industrialisation where material possessions, position and economic power determine the status and prestige of a in the society. Since salaries are low and inflation is unabated, poor civil servants fall easy prey to corrupt practices in order to maintain status in the society.

(iii) Economic Causes

Inadequate remuneration of salary scales and rising cost of living is probably one of the important causes of corruption. In recent years, the fast rising cost of living has brought down the real income of various sections of the community, particularly the salaried classes. The urge to appear prestigious by material possessions has encouraged those who had the opportunities to succumb to temptations.

(iv) Lack of Strong Public Opinion Against the Evil of Corruption

People do not report to government against corrupt officials. Instead they offer bribes to get their illegitimate claims accepted. People must fight against corruption and build a strong public opinion against corruption.

(v) Complicated and Cumbersome Procedures and Working of Government Offices

It is alleged that the working of certain government departments, e.g., the Customs and Central Excise, Imports and Exports, Railways, Supplies and Disposals, Police, Income Tax, etc, is complicated, cumbersome and dilatory. This has encouraged the growth of dishonest practices like the system of 'speedy money'.

(vi) Inadequate Laws to Deal with Corruption

Indian Penal Code and other laws which deal with corruption cases are outmoded and provide insufficient penalties. It takes too much time to get a

corrupt officials punished under the laws. Summary trials and stricter punishments should be awarded to end corruption. Therefore, the laws will have to be changed accordingly.

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(vii) Undue Protection given to the Public Services in India

Article 31 1 of the Indian Constitution which provides protection to civil servants, as interpreted by our courts, made it difficult to deal effectively with corrupt public servants. Reluctance of higher officials to take disciplinary action against corrupt officials due to their collusion with them has further aggravated the situation.

(viii) Collusion of Commercial and Industrial Magnates and Others to Serve their Individual Interests

Big businessmen, dishonest merchants, suppliers and contractors, bribe the civil servants in order to get undue favours from them. Sometimes they share a portion of their illearned profit with the government servants.

(ix) Pressure Groups

Pressure Groups like Indian Chamber of Commerce, 'Trade Associations, State Chambers of Commerce, are said to help in breeding corruption through their activities of getting favours for their communities. They influence ruling elite through dinners, parties, luncheons. etc.

4.6 LEGAL FRAMEWORK TO CHECK CORRUPTION

After going through the various causes for dealing of integrity in civil services, it is essential to look into the legal framework which intends to check corruption. It was way back in 1947 that prevention of corruption Act was passed. There are various conduct rules dealing with the civil servants. There has been appointed committee to review the existing instruments for combating corruption like the Santhanam Committee. And vigilance commissions have been set up at the central and the state level. Moreover, there is the central bureau of investigation and the institutions of Lok Pal and Lok Ayukta which are all there for prevention of corruption. Here, all these are discussed in detail.

(i) Prevention of Corruption Act, 1947

The Prevention of Corruption Act, 1947, defines the scope of corruption in regard to public servants as follows:

A public servant is said to commit the offence of criminal misconduct in the discharge of his duty:

- (1) If he habitually accepts or obtains or agrees to accept for himself or attempts to obtain from any person for himself or for any other person, any gratification (other than legal remuneration) as a motive or reward as mentioned in Section 161 of the Indian Penal Code.

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- (2) If he habitually accepts or obtains or agrees to accept or attempts to obtain for himself or for any other person, any valuable thing without consideration or for a consideration which he knows to be inadequate from any person whom he knows to have been, or to be likely to or about to be transacted by him, or having connection with the official functions of himself or of any public servant to whom he is subordinate, or from any person whom he knows to be interested in or related to the person concerned.
- (3) If he dishonestly or fraudulently misappropriates, or, otherwise, abuses his position as a public servant, obtains for himself or for any other person any valuable thing or pecuniary advantage.

(ii) Civil Servants Conduct Rules

Different categories of government servants are governed by separate but substantially similar, sets of conduct rules. The following sets of rules are in force:

- (1) All India Services (Conduct) Rules, 1954
- (2) Central Civil Services (Conduct) Rules, 1955
- (3) Railway Services (Conduct) Rules, 1956

The Government has also made rules or issued instructions from time to time in dealing with particular situations regarding public servants.

- (i) Lending and borrowing by gazetted officers, in 1860 and by non-gazetted employees in 1869;
- (ii) Accepting gifts in 1876;
- (iii) Buying and selling houses and other valuable property in 1881;
- (iv) Entering into any pecuniary arrangement for resignation by one of them of any office under government for the benefit of others in 1883;
- (v) Making investment other than those in immovable property and speculating, in 1885;
- (vi) Promoting and managing companies, engaging in private trade and employment in 1885;
- (vii) Raising subscriptions by public servants in 1885;
- (viii) Being habitually indebted or insolvent, 1885;
- (ix) Accepting commercial employment after retirement in 1920.

These rules invariably suffer from numerous loopholes with the consequence that the temptation to corrupt and be corrupted is too strong to be kept under check by them.

(iii) Santhanam Committee on Prevention of Corruption

The Santhanam Committee, which was appointed in June 1962 to review existing instruments for combating corruption and to advise on practical measures

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to make anti-corruption measures more effective, submitted its report in March 1964. Some of the important recommendations of this Committee were the Art. 311 of the Constitution should be amended so as to make the judicial process in corruption easy and speedy, that there should be Central and State Vigilance Commissions with autonomous powers to combat corruption at (central and state levels respectively).

(iv) Central Vigilance Commission (C.V.C.)

The Central Vigilance Commission has jurisdiction and powers in respect of matters to which the executive powers of the Central Government extend. Its jurisdiction thus, extends to all employees of the Central Government and the employees in public undertakings, corporate bodies and other organisations dealing with any matter falling within the executive powers of the Central Government. Also, the Delhi Metropolitan Council and the New Delhi Municipal Committee fall within the purview of the commission. To begin with, the Commission has decided to include only gazetted officers and officers of equivalent status within its orbit.

Functions

- (1) It undertakes an inquiry into transaction in which a public servant is suspected or alleged to have acted for an improper purpose or in a corrupt manner.
- (2) It causes an inquiry or investigation to be made into any complaint that a public servant had exercised or refrained from exercising his/her powers for improper or corrupted purposes, and any complaints of corruption, misconduct, lack of integrity of other kinds of malpractices or misdemeanour on the part of a public servant.
- (3) It calls for reports from agencies so as to enable it to exercise general check and supervision over the vigilance and anti-corruption work in them.
- (4) It can take over under its direct control complaints for further action which may be either (i) to ask the Central Bureau of Investigation to register a regular case and investigate it, or (ii) to entrust it for inquiry to the Central Bureau of Investigation or to the agency concerned.
- (5) It may initiate review of procedures and practices of administration insofar as they relate to maintenance of integrity in administration.

The Commission submits an annual report to the Ministry of Home Affairs about its activities drawing particular attention to any recommendation made by it which had not been accepted or acted upon. The Ministry of Home Affairs places this report before each House of Parliament.

The Commission has at present a staff of 155 employees including those in Class IV. It is headed by the Central Vigilance Commissioner who is appointed

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by the President by warrant under his/her hand and seal. He/She holds office for a term of six years or till he/she attains the age of 65, whichever is earlier. He/She cannot be removed or suspended from office except in the manner provided for the removal or suspension of the Chairman or a member of the Union Public Service Commission. After retirement, he/she cannot accept any further employment under the Central Government or the State Government.

In addition to him/her, the Commission consists of one Secretary, one Officer on Special Duty, one Chief Technical Commissioner, Seven Commissioners for Departmental Enquiries, two under Secretaries and nine Technical Commissioners. The Chief Technical Commissioners' Organisation has been transferred to the Central Vigilance Commissioner.

The Central Vigilance Commission owes its existence to the executive resolution. *It is not a statutory body. Its functions are advisory, but 'advisory' in the same sense as those of the 'public service commission'. "The independent and autonomous status of the commission, its extensive and jurisdiction, and the fact that it indicates in its annual report in which the Administrative Authorities have not accepted its advice, make the commission an effective instrument that all complaints of corruption or lack of integrity on the part of public servant are given adequate and due attention."*

Procedure

The Commission receives complaints from individual persons. It also gathers information about corruption and malpractices or misconduct from various sources, such as, press reports, information given by the members of parliament in their speeches made in Parliament, audit objections, information or comments appearing in the reports of parliamentary committees, Audit Reports and information coming to its knowledge through Central Bureau of Investigation. It welcomes the assistance of voluntary organisations like Sadachar Samiti and responsible citizens and the press.

The Commission often receives complaints pertaining to matters falling within the scope of the State Governments. Where considered suitable, such complaints are brought to the notice of state vigilance commissioners concerned for necessary action. Similarly, complaints received by the State Vigilance Commission in regard to matters falling within the jurisdiction of the Central Government are forwarded by them to the Central Vigilance Commission for appropriate action.

The Central Vigilance Commission has the following alternatives to deal with these complaints:

- (a) It may entrust the matter for inquiry to the administrative Ministry/ Department concerned.

(b) It may ask the Central Bureau of Investigation (C.B.I.) to make an enquiry.

(c) It may ask the Director of the C.B.I. to register a case and investigate it.

(v) State Vigilance Commission

The Santhanam Committee on prevention of corruption made detailed recommendations in 1964 for strengthening of the Vigilance Organisation in each Ministry/Department to make it more effective. While the primary responsibility for the maintenance of purity, integrity and efficiency in each organisation continues to vest in the Secretary of the Ministry or the Head of the Department, an officer in each Ministry/Department has been designated as Chief Vigilance Officer and entrusted with vigilance work. While acting as Special Assistant to the Secretary or the Head of the Department in all matters pertaining to vigilance, he provides a link between the Central Vigilance Commission and the Ministries/Departments.

Similarly, an officer in each attached and subordinate office, and in all public sector undertakings has been designated as Vigilance Officer. The Chief Vigilance Officer is responsible for coordinating and guiding of the activities of other Vigilance Officers in the attached and subordinate offices and other organisations with which his/her Ministry/Department is concerned. Some of the Chief Vigilance Officers/Vigilance Officers, particularly in larger ministries and departments are whole-time officers while others are part-time, depending upon the volume of vigilance work arising in an organisation.

Every Chief Vigilance Officer is to be appointed in consultation with the Central Vigilance Commission, and the Vigilance Officers in the attached and subordinate offices in consultation with the Chief Vigilance Officer of the respective Ministry/Department. The Chief Vigilance Officers are generally of the rank of a Deputy Secretary and Vigilance Officers of the rank of an Under Secretary. In public undertakings the Vigilance Officers are of such rank as may be decided by the head of the undertaking in consultation with the Central Vigilance Commission.

The Central Vigilance Commission has been given the power to assess the work of the Chief Vigilance Officers and the assessment is recorded in the character rolls of the officers.

The Chief Vigilance Officers undertake review of the existing arrangements in the organisation under their charge including the public undertakings with a view to taking suitable steps or forstrengthening the existing set up, wherever necessary. All proposals for reorganisation or strengthening the vigilance organisation are first required to be referred to the Central Vigilance Commission for scrutiny.

(vi) Central Bureau of Investigation

Apart from vigilance organisation in every ministry and department, the

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centralised agency for anti-corruption work *viz.*, the Central Bureau of Investigation, which functions administratively under the Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms. The latter formulates all policy matters pertaining to vigilance and discipline among public servants. It also coordinates the activities of various heads of departments and functions as the nodal authority in the matter of administrative vigilance. It also deals with (i) vigilance cases against the officers belonging to the Indian Administrative Service and the Central Secretariat Service (Grade-I and above of the service); and administrative matters connected with the Central Bureau of Investigation and the Central Vigilance Commission as also with the policy matters relating to powers and functions of the Commission.

The Special Police Establishment is a specialised agency for making inquiries and investigations into certain specified offences and it is one of the Divisions of the Central Bureau of Investigation. It is supplementary to the State Police Force. It enjoins with the respective State Police Force, concurrent powers of investigation and prosecution in respect of offences under the Delhi Police Establishment Act, 1946. To avoid duplication of effort, an administrative arrangement has been made between the Central Government and the State Governments about the type of cases to be taken by the Special Police Establishment.

The role of the Central Bureau of Investigation may be shortly described as follows:

- (1) It can take up investigations against the higher levels and in complex cases.
- (2) It is resourceful and can get material from various sources which may not be available to normal departmental machinery.
- (3) Even if its cases in the early year proved to be weak, it is now encouraging to see that the Central Bureau of Investigation takes up only those cases for prosecution which are sound and strong.

The most important need in the interest of efficiency and progress is to fix a time schedule for a case to demarcate clear fields of responsibility between the Central Bureau of Investigation and the Central Vigilance Commission.

(vii) Institutions of Lok Pal and Lok Ayukta

The Administrative Reform Commission, recommended in 1966 to the Central Government, the setting up of the Institutions of Lok Pal and Lok Ayukta which are analogous to the parliamentary commissioner in England and Newzealand, for redress of public grievances.

(a) Lok Pal

He/She is appointed by the President on the advice of Prime Minister who is to consult the Chief Justice of India and the leader of the opposition in Lok Sabha. Lok Pal commands the same status as that of the Chief Justice of India.

He/She free to choose his/her own staff though their conditions of service fall under the control of parliament.

Jurisdiction

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He/She has the power to investigate an administrative act done by or with the approval of a minister or a Secretary to the state or central government, if the complaint is made against such an act by a person who is affected by it and who claims to have suffered an injustice on that account. Such a complaint may be lodged by an individual or by a corporation. He/She is also authorised to investigate any administrative act brought to his/her notice by any body else other than the directly affected person.

But, no person can be forced by Lok Pal to give any evidence or produce which he/she could not be compelled to give or produce before a court.

No proceedings of Lok Pal can be challenged in any court of law except on ground of jurisdiction. No legal proceedings can lie against Lok Pal for anything done under the Act in good faith.

(b) Lok Ayukta

The President of India is empowered to appoint one or more than one Lok Ayukta in consultation with the Lok Pal.

The Lok Ayukta is under the administrative control of the Lok Pal who can issue directions regarding convenient disposal of investigation. However, the Lok Pal is not authorised to question any finding, conclusion or recommendation of the Lok Ayukta. The latter is supposed to have jurisdiction over actions of public servants other than those within the purview of Lok Pal. The conditions of appointment, tenure of office, removal, scope of functions, manner of making complaint, manner of functioning, recommendation, reports, secrecy of information, contempt and protection in respect of Lok Ayukta are analogous of those in respect of Lok Pal.

Lok Ayukta in States

While attempts are going on in Parliament to put the Lok Pal Bill into effect, the office of Lok Ayukta has been set up in some states. These states are Orissa, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh. The office of Lok Ayukta in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka is of recent origin.

Appointment

The Lok Ayukta shall be appointed by the Governor in consultation with the Chief Justice of the High Court and leader of the Opposition in Assembly. The Upa Lok Ayukta may be appointed by the governor in consultation with Lok Ayukta. He/She shall hold office for five years. He/She shall be removed subject to the of Article 311 of the consultation and an inquiry to be conducted by way of proceeding before any tribunal or court of law.

Jurisdiction

The Lok Ayukta or Upa Lok Ayukta may investigate any action taken by (a) Chief Minister or Secretary, (b) Any public servant including public servant notified for this purpose by the State Government, (c) He/She will conduct an investigation only on the complaint to be filed by an aggrieved person accompanied by an affidavit (d) any person making a false complaint wilfully and maliciously to Lok Ayukta are liable for punishment, (e) The State Government may exclude any complaints, involving a grievance or an allegation against a public servant, from the jurisdiction of Lok Ayukta.

The Lok Ayukta and Upa Lok Ayukta shall present annually a consolidated report on the performance of their functions under the Act to the Government.

Organisation

It includes investigation (Police) wing, and technical wing, the enquiry wing and administrative wing. Beside these, district grievance cell and Lok Ayukta police stations are already operating in the district without any coordination. This is nothing but creation of three-tier structure of Ombudsman at the Centre, State and district levels.

The important prerequisite for independent and impartial functioning of Lok Ayukta is his/her being independent of the State Executive and Legislative.

4.7 SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF INTEGRITY IN CIVIL SERVICES

Some suggestions may be given to improve integrity in the civil services.

(i) Making Conditions of Service Attractive

Government officials, particularly at lower level, are forced by poverty to regard office holding as a source of income which they would seek to maximise. Public services are rendered in exchange for extra money, services, which tend to be bad and slow if no bribe is given. Raising of pay, consequently, is a basic means to wipe out the widespread bribery in the civil services. It is good that Government has enforced the Sixth National Pay Commission to raise the salary structure of federal employees.

(ii) Simplification of Working of Government Machinery

The root cause to proliferation of corruption seems to be the complicated procedures of Government offices. These procedures need to be evaluated and simplified. Delays must be prevented and officials made fully responsive to the needs of all the people.

(iii) Creation of Healthy Public Opinion against the Effects of Corruption

Corruption will flourish till the general mass of people resist it with determination and strength. Most of all, the elimination of corruption requires a

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widespread and steadfast opposition to it, coupled with the courage to act against it. There can be no doubt that the people of India can get rid of corruption.

(iv) Ensuring High Standards of Conduct among the Top Personnel

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High Officials having considerable discretionary powers must be thoroughly disciplined to refuse gifts, invitations and other favours.

In this context, it is pertinent to note the efforts made by the government to carry the quest for integrity at the divisional and district levels. At the divisional level, there is a Divisional Vigilance Board which consists of the Divisional Committees, Deputy Inspector General of Police and a Divisional Vigilance Commissioner. At the district level, there is a District Vigilance Officer who is appointed by the District Collector, Deputy Commissioner from among his/her gazetted assistants in consultation with the Divisional Vigilance Board.

There has, thus, emerged a web of vigilance agencies in the country. To streamline this quest for integrity, the Vigilance Commissioners of all States hold an annual conference which is presided over by the Chief Vigilance Commissioner. This annual gathering serves useful purpose, it provides a forum for the discussion of mutual problems and exchange of experiences, and gives publicity to vigilance efforts of the Government at both the Central and State levels, thus inspiring people's confidence in the Government's sincerity of purposes.

However, this does not imply that corruption in public administration has been eliminated or is under control. Far from it, corruption has entered every nook and corner of India's public life, and the country's public administration is ridden with it. This has happened largely because there is no political will to remove it.

4.8 GENERALIST AND SPECIALIST

The generalists and specialists are two broad functional categories in the government. They play a very important role in rendering advice to the political executives, policy making and in implementation of policies. The present day administration has become more specialised in nature and hence requires different types of personnel with necessary skills, knowledge and qualities to discharge its functions. The controversy between these two groups of functionaries, both of whom are necessary in modern organisations, is however age old, and still one of the fiercely fought-out issues of Public Administration. As early as in 1958, James Fesler recorded the revival of the controversy in England. After a decade, in 1968, the Fulton Report on Civil Services opened the issue afresh and provoked debate. In India, following the tradition of the of Indian Civil Service (ICS) from the days of British, the supremacy of the generalists was more or less accepted initially and not very seriously challenged. The Indian Administrative Service (IAS), the successor of the ICS, gained in importance with its personnel generally occupying

the top posts both in the central as well as the state governments besides the positions of heads of various departments. But this predominance of the generalists in administration led to discontent which has gained momentum in recent years.

GENERALIST — MEANING

Before we discuss the role of generalists in administration, let us first know the meaning of the term 'generalist'. According to Leonard White "general administration is understood to mean those duties which are concerned with the formulation of policy; with the coordination and improvement of government machinery and with general management and control of the departments". Thus a generalist administrator is concerned with all types of administrative process indicated by the word POSDCORB *i.e.*, planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting.

The generalists secure their entry in administration on the basis of their having obtained a university degree, irrespective of the subjects in it. Their having attained a certain level of education indicates the essential minimum extent of intellectual and mental development. Also the posting of a generalist civil servant in any department of the government has nothing to do with his/her education or any administrative experience. For example, a generalist entrant with commerce background can be posted in irrigation department.

In a purely negative sense, a generalist is a person who is not an expert or a scientist. But in a positive sense, the notion of a generalist is applicable to a person who is called a professional administrator, if administration is to be regarded as a field and a profession, as that of law, engineering or medicine. In his/her professional capacity a generalist possesses the skills and techniques of a manager and a kind of politician. As a manager, generalist is entrusted with the responsibility of getting things done; and as a "politician", he/she is responsible for interpreting the public opinion in the context of the complex social, economic and even political problems of the state.

There are various meanings attached to the term 'generalist'. In one strand of thought, particularly the British, generalist means an amateur administrator who has had education in linguistics or classics with a "liberal education augmented by certain personal qualities of character, poise and leadership, good intuitive judgment, right feelings, and a broad background rather than narrowly specialised knowledge and skills".

The second usage, very close to what the Second Hoover Commission of USA meant by a Senior Civil Service, identifies generalist as a "rank-in-man corps" of highly experienced administrative specialists or career executives who are available for flexible assignments and capable of furnishing essential administrative advice and necessary policy support.

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There is yet another school of thought which considers a person as a generalist who is known by the proportion of administrative work actually performed compared with his/her specialist duties. According to this school, a specialist can turn out to be a generalist, when he/she performs managerial or administrative duties, either in the higher hierarchies of his/her own functional field or outside his/her specific discipline.

A related and fourth usage refers to a person as a generalist who combines both high competence in professional or administrative skills with training in the area he/she administers. These are considered to be 'super bureaucrats' who can take a large and longrange view and are not limited by a narrow picture of their substantive specialisation.

A generalist, has, however, been traditionally defined as one who possesses no specialist or technical qualification the sense of having earlier gone through a specific vocational or professional course. But lately, even persons belonging to techno-professional disciplines such as engineering, medicine, agriculture etc., are gaining entry to the generalist fold, the assumption being that there need to be no correlation between the substance of their specific knowledge and the discharge of their generalist duties, howsoever specialised some of these assignments may be. In an organisation, be it a government department or a public enterprise or any other administrative institution, as one moves up in the hierarchy, the functions become more and more generalist in nature. The generalist functions of policy making and direction assume importance. These functions more or less remain the same even in technical departments like irrigation, health, agriculture etc. Hence what seems significantly important to be a generalist, is a mind, a mental discipline, a way of thought and an angle of vision, which he/she acquires apart from the liberal education, and through movement from post to post with wide-ranging, diversified experiences. This helps the generalist in adopting a comprehensive yet integrative approach to a variety of problems, uncontaminated by too much knowledge about any one of them. Having known who a generalist is, now let us discuss his/her role in administration.

ROLE OF GENERALISTS

The ancestry of the generalist dominating the administrative machinery at the top can be traced to the administrative philosophy of England in nineteenth century where generalism was made an absolute principle of administration. The two authorities that helped in the build-up of a generalist image by lending their solid support towards the recognition of generalist supremacy were the Northcote Trevelyan Report on the Organisation of Permanent Civil Service (1854) and the Macaulay Report on the Indian Civil Service (1854). The emphasis was on young graduates, who with no specific education or technical background, should

form the elitist part of the administration. In India also, as in England, this administrative arrangement came as the logical extension of the same philosophy. The Indian Civil Service during the British period dominated the administrative scene with its members deployed on various positions in government. The experts and specialists during those days were fewer in number and the Indian Civil Service was groomed into an elite service.

If it is assumed that generalists are equipped with a vibrant mind and a perceptive understanding of the entire field of administration, it is but natural that they would be given the role of overseeing the top rung of the administrative management. Thus, generalists have a supreme role in the formulation of policy *i.e.*, in assisting the political executives to evolve it – with all the requisite data and advice as to the strong and weak points of a projected policy. It is the generalist, who functioning generally as Secretary or Head of Department, does the coordinating job and takes the necessary measures, even in specialised matters, before they are put up to the ministers who often are not specialists in those fields.

The role of generalists in such cases is one of the conveyor belt which funnels right kind of data and advice in such a manner that it can be used by top policy makers for action. The 'balancing' role *i.e.*, performing reconciliatory function between conflicting viewpoints, is also played by the generalists. This is possible because of their capacity to view things in an overall perspective, generated on account of their non-specialist background and exposure to wider fields of experience and administrative reality.

The generalists also play a dominant role in problem-solving spheres. Since most important techno-professional work in the governmental organisations has become inter-disciplinary, one arbiter in the form of a generalist administrator is needed to articulate a rational, cost-effective, most beneficial alternative solution. Moreover, in the implementation of decisions, apart from policy formulation, the generalists role is well accepted and recognised.

The generalist has to function as a synthesiser, integrator and coordinator of knowledge as well as of action. He/she is a person who is supposed to be competent enough to handle any situation or job pertaining to law and order, emergency, public relations, planning, social change etc. The field experience the generalist has is assumed to generate in him/her certain qualities like prompt and sound decision-making, tact, imagination, objectivity, organisational leadership etc. A special position is assigned to the generalists in administration, as the political executives, who are usually lay people with exposure to only peoples' problems and not to technical expertise depend on the 'administrator' *i.e.*, generalist, with whom they have identity of approach, ideas and ideals.

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SPECIALIST — MEANING

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A specialist is one who has special knowledge in some particular field. Specialists in government, are therefore, those who are recruited to posts for which professional, scientific, technical or other specialist qualifications are essential and includes engineers, scientists, doctors, lawyers, statisticians, economists and other technical people. To qualify as a specialist, the basic requirement should be an 'institutional' speciality, that is to say, one must have a pre-employment spell of either techno-professional academic education and/or pre-entry vocational or occupational training. The hallmark of a specialist is, thus, said to be devotion to the discipline, continued commitment to his/her professional cause and practice and pursuit of a speciality. Pro-generalists generally view specialists as narrow, undisciplinary professionals who treat all issues from a very limited angle or vision. Also they are incapable of comprehending in a holistic manner the complexities of live administrative and management problems and hence are unfit to hold top policy posts.

ROLE OF SPECIALISTS

There is no doubt that present day administration has become technical, professional and specialised. The concept of 'development' viewed as a dynamic process, directed towards transformation of the entire society including socio-political and economic aspects, has a major impact on the functions of bureaucracy. If the state has to be accepted, in the process of modernisation, as regulator, mediator, provider of services, economic and social diagnostician, the bureaucracy has to offer the basic support to the states playing such a role. For doing so, the bureaucracy must be professionally equipped. Whether it is an administration dominated by generalists or specialists the fact remains that every one must be professional in the role, as without professionalism the chances of success are limited.

The assumption that the technical element in the administration is a minor factor or experts do not have holistic, comprehensive approach cannot be totally correct. One of the important factors responsible for the narrow outlook of the specialists is the system of their education and training. It may not similarly be correct that generalist has all the necessary specialised elements or can fully comprehend and judge between conflicting expert advice. Hence, the services of both are required in administration.

The specialist inputs are required in tackling the complex and technical problems of modern administration which have become quite technical. Also the various areas in the administration call for varied skills, expertise and experience. In programme planning in the scientific and technical fields, and in execution of such projects, the specialists' inputs are vitally necessary. All the

policy making and decision-making functions in the specialist jurisdiction of the government must be the responsibility of the specialists.

Administration is taking charge of managing vast changes following the assumption of all developmental functions by the government in the social and economic life of the people. Administration in future is going to be characterised by new developments in the fields of science and technology, social and behavioural sciences, decision-making, human relations in management etc. Each of these areas require professionalistic intervention. For example, the introduction of the computer has made a significant impact on the nature of administration. It helps not only in information storage, retrieval and communication, but also in decision-making.

Apart from these, even in the traditional areas of administration there is increasing recognition of the role of specialists. For instance, a District Collector, as head of the administration at district level, in the discharge of regular functions, requires the expert advice of other specialists working in the district like the engineers, District Health Officers etc.

4.9 CONTROVERSY BETWEEN THE GENERALISTS AND SPECIALISTS IN INDIA

The genesis of the 'generalist and specialist' controversy in India can largely be traced to the concept of 'nearness' or 'remoteness' from the area of top policy making. It is more post-centred rather than person-oriented, and the tussle between the two is in reality for holding certain positions. The real debate should be around formulating a satisfactory and adequate staffing policy or better still, evolving a progressive, constructive and objective-oriented, egalitarian personnel philosophy. Let us now discuss the reasons responsible for the controversy between the generalists and specialists.

Certain historical reasons are responsible for establishing the supremacy of the generalist in Indian administration, which also accentuated the dichotomy between these two categories of personnel. Public service in India during the British period was more or less a closed system with no lateral entry. It comprised young persons who on the basis of a competitive examination gained entry to it. It was a hierarchical career pattern from the district to the central level with majority of the posts reserved for members of the Indian Civil Service. The 'intelligent amateur theory' reigned supreme in the constitution of the generalist services. As you all are aware, this continued even after Independence as it was felt that the old frame of public services was quite useful to provide stability to the government, in tackling the problems of law and order, integration of princely states etc. Hence, the concept of All-India Services was evolved with the Indian Administrative Service replacing the earlier Indian Civil Service. Hence, the

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supremacy of the generalist civil service established in India, was the result of certain historical circumstances. This led to resentment in the technical and functional services which also wanted to be entrusted with policy making functions.

The suitability of the generalist for all policy making positions is questioned by specialists on the ground that the change in the functions of government in present times calls for certain professionalism which is not possessed to such an extent by the generalists. Also by reserving all senior managerial positions to the generalists especially to the IAS, the government is deprived of the expert advice and specialised knowledge of the specialists.

However, it is generally argued by the pro-generalists that the field experience gained by them at the district and state levels in the initial years of their career helps them in the task of decision-making. But the specialists feel that this field experience is not sufficient to discharge the multi-varied tasks of the government which requires special or expert knowledge. And also, this sort of field experience is not just the prerogative of the generalists as it can be secured by the specialists. For example, a doctor working in a Primary Health Centre is exposed to all sorts of field problems as can be experienced by a District Collector. This makes him/her acquire certain administrative skills in addition to his/her technical competence.

Another point of contention between the generalists and specialists comes from their being organised into separate hierarchies. This leads to situations where the expert advice rendered by the specialist is submitted to the generalist for his/her approval. This is justified on the ground that since specialists tend to have a biased outlook tilted towards their speciality and since policy making needs to consider matters in totality, the generalist is best suited to take the final decision. This is due to specialists being denied access to senior administrative positions.

Yet another aspect of the controversy relates to the privileged position enjoyed by the Indian Administrative Service due to high salary, better career prospects and also its monopoly of top administrative positions as posts of secretaries in the government departments; in fact even the positions of heads of most executive departments are reserved for the generalists. Career wise too, a member of the Indian Administrative Service after serving for about ten years or so in a state administration, moves to the Central Secretariat and at times becomes even the Secretary of a department or ministry. The specialists feel that their position and status in the administrative hierarchy is not commensurate with the contribution they make to the technological advancement of the country. Their being denied access to the policy making powers is attributed to their being overshadowed by the generalists.

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The generalists often move from one department to the other and at times to a public enterprise or even a semi-government institution. But the mobility of the specialists is restricted in the sense that they are transferred or promoted in the same department. The specialists view the frequent movement of the generalists as a hindrance in the way of acquiring adequate and indepth knowledge in any one aspect of the department's work. This, the specialists feel may have a negative impact on proper policy-making.

The superficiality of this much spoken polarisation between a generalist bureaucrat and a specialist technocrat is being gradually realised and accepted in many quarters. It is being felt that the 'intelligent amateur' theory prevalent in Britain during the nineteenth century does not hold good now. With the growth of science and technology the administration has become very complex in nature. Hence, the present day administration requires the services of both generalists and specialists and there is need for encouraging cooperation between the two.

India's Second Five Year Plan mentions that 'distinction between administrators and technical personnel exercising administrative functions, and/or between officials in different grades and cadres which are sometimes drawn, are already out of place'. The Fourth Five Year Plan is even more forthright in making a commitment for altering the structure of administration so that specialists, technicians and experts may be enabled to make their contribution in a reasonable manner at all levels of administration.

It is important for us to discuss the recommendations of the Administrative Reforms Commission (1969) on this issue. The Commission took note of the fact that the nature of the functions of the government has undergone a significant change. With emergence of new areas of administration it needs a diversity of skills to administer various programmes of development. It felt that still a great relevance is placed on the 'generalist'. Due to growing technological sophistication, the Commission observed that many of the posts in the specialised and technical areas can be filled adequately by experts who have the knowledge of the relevant discipline. It is only due to their lack of opportunity and proper career development that the specialists have not acquired necessary skills for holding the higher administrative positions in the Secretariat. The Commission recommended (a) a rational system of filling policy advisory positions with men possessing the required qualifications and competence, (b) senior management posts to be filled by both generalists and specialists, (c) adoption of a rational pay structure so as to reflect the actual responsibilities of each job, (d) to enable talent in the lower ranks to move up to higher positions in the civil service on the basis of competence and performance.

The Fulton Committee (1968) in its report on the re-organisation of the British Civil Service also commented that "our aim is not to replace specialists by

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administrators, or vice-versa. They should be complementary to one another. It is rather, that the administrator, trained and experienced in his subject matter, should enjoy a more fruitful relationship with the specialist than in the past, and the service should harness the best contribution from each.

There is no denying the fact that in their own functional situations both generalists and specialists have important contributions to make. It is neither feasible nor desirable to replace one category by the other. Indeed it is not as though something tremendous is going to be achieved if all generalists were to be replaced by specialists. Similarly, jobs of pure specialists cannot also be taken over by generalists, as for example, the functions of the Chief of Army Staff cannot be taken over by a Secretary to a Government department. Thus, while, co-existence among the specialists and generalists has to be accepted as a fundamental fact of administrative life, the real issue is in what fashion or in what structure or role the relationship should exist.

4.10 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POLITICIANS AND CIVIL SERVANTS

The working of government rests on two pillars—political and permanent executive. The smooth working of this system depends on the harmonious relationship between the two.

In recent years, however, the administrative and political environment has changed which has produced tensions in the mutual relationship of the two groups. So, let us first understand the meaning and role of bureaucracy and then analyse the relationship between the political executive and bureaucracy and finally identify the recommendations of Administrative Reforms Commission for streamlining the relationship between the minister and the civil servants and reflect upon the present scenario in India in this respect.

The term 'Bureaucracy' lacks a definition that is universally accepted. Bureaucracy is sometimes used in a disparaging manner to mean unimaginative, rigid and inefficient government administrators. It is associated with red-tapism, delay and wastefulness. Many social scientists however, describe bureaucracy in a neutral way to mean a specific form of social organisation involved in administrative efforts. It is a machine, which is needed to run the government of the day. It is the only tool available to any modern government to administer. We no longer live in simple Greek city-states or tiny Indian republics. Society has become more complex today. Accordingly, the government has become a huge complicated machinery which can be serviced and run only by a distinct group of officials known as bureaucracy. Some scholars have even given bureaucracy the status of "the fourth organ of the government". Therefore, bureaucracy cannot be wished away.

Max Weber, the German social scientist who was the first to make a systematic study of bureaucracy, described it as rational and the most efficient form of organisation. He described an ideal-type of bureaucracy as one characterized by :

1. Officials organised in fixed jurisdictional areas,
2. A hierarchical arrangement of offices (organised in a pyramid like structure with each lower office under the control of a higher one),
3. Written documents (files) that contain rules to be applied in every case,
4. Anonymity,
5. Impersonality in applying rules uniformly,
6. Political neutrality.

Bureaucracy with such formal characteristics is considered essential for running any large organisation. To quote Max Weber "the decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organisation has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organisation...precision, speed, unambiguity, reduction of friction and of material and personal costs - these are raised to the optimum level in the structurally bureaucratic administration".

ROLE OF BUREAUCRACY IN DEVELOPMENT

Bureaucracy has become a universal phenomenon. It is a prerequisite of modernization of every society. Most developing countries are engaged in the process of nation building and bringing about rapid socio-economic development, *i.e.*, providing social services such as health, education, infrastructure like roads, electricity, productive activities in agriculture, industry etc. The complex of such formidable activities connected with the development enterprise is essentially government's responsibility. Here, public administration becomes the key agency of development. Bureaucracy can immensely contribute to development by serving as an adviser, as an inventor, and a decision-maker. It can vitalize administration by building up a social environment emphasizing responsibility by creating incentives, by encouraging healthy competition and self-development, by organizing institutional management under competent and progressive leadership and by delegating authority to lower levels for maximizing development.

Bureaucracy constitutes the apparatus and mechanism through which the state realizes its purposes. It has been rightly said that a country's life is largely shaped by the quality of administration. A plan can succeed only if its administrative implications have been worked out in detail. Hence, a high degree of bureaucratic competence is essential to push through speedy development measures. In most developing countries, the problem is not the inability of the

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governments to devise rational programmes for development, but their incapacity to carry them out.

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POLITICS/ADMINISTRATION DICHOTOMY

The conventional view of public administration is based upon the dichotomy of politics and administration *i.e.*, administration and politics should be kept separate. Politics or policy making is the proper activity of the legislative bodies and administration is the proper activity of administrators who carry out policies. It is opposed to any political role of the civil servants. It visualizes the relationship between the administrator and the politician in terms of a neat division of labour – the politician formulates the policy and the administrator executes it. The bureaucrat acts as pure adviser to his political master, presents facts of the case, suggests lines of action and implications of alternative policies. It is the prerogative of the political master to decide the policy. The bureaucrat is expected to implement the policy faithfully, whatever the decision. He is to be anonymous and neutral in the discharge of his duty. He is expected to render impartial advice without fear or favour. The doctrine of neutrality and anonymity has been one of the fundamental tenets of the Weberian model of bureaucracy. It insulates the bureaucrat from any politicization and makes him professional in his outlook.

The planners in India too subscribed to the Weberian ideal of neutral civil service. In our country, the Civil Service Conduct Rules prohibit the government employees from active participation in political activities. Except for the limited right of voting in secret, a government employee cannot participate in any way in any political movement or activity including election campaigns. He cannot join a political party even as an inactive member or contribute financially to its funds; he cannot express any opinion on political issues; and he cannot stand for election to any legislature.

An impersonal, strictly rule-bound, neutral bureaucracy was expected not only to provide the necessary administrative objectivity but also enhance the democratic principle of equality and provide protection from arbitrary rule.

DECLINE OF NEUTRALITY CONCEPT

The traditional concept of neutrality, however, has been challenged on many grounds. The earlier concept of separation of politics and administration in watertight compartments is considered no more valid. The role of the Civil Service has been changing from being a mere agent of the political executive to that of collaboration with it. The involvement of bureaucracy in political arena is now widely prevalent.

The breakdown of the theory of neutrality has come about because of a number of reasons. Firstly, the processes of policy making are no longer confined

to the political executive. The truth is that the bureaucrats play an important role in policy formulation, perceived to be the exclusive preserve of elected politicians. This has happened because the statutes passed by the parliament are not clear enough. The legislative behaviour follows no consistent pattern. Whereas, some measures are too detailed, some only identify the problem. The minister is rarely an expert in the work of his department or the techniques of public administration. He merely has general ideas in line with the political ideology of his party, but he often is not sure what is the best solution to a particular problem. He is therefore, forced to rely on his permanent staff for facts and advice. In effect then, it is the administrator who has a major role in framing the policy.

Secondly, the decline of neutrality can be attributed to the demands and pressures of coalition politics. In coalition governments, ministers are busy in the power game and maneuvering for their survival, and have neither time nor inclination to guide, direct and control their department or bureaucracy. Also at times, the legislative process is so stormy and full of diverse views that a statute passed incorporates a number of a contradictory policy guidelines. The necessity of reaching a compromise solution to hold the coalition together leads the legislators to use vague language and the administrator has to use his own judgement to interpret the policy. Therefore, bureaucracy has clearly made inroads in policy making and *despite the regulations governing the civil servants they have been politicized considerably.*

Thirdly, according to some political commentators, the classical theory of civil service neutrality presupposes agreement on principles fundamental to democracy. *In other words, neutral, value-free bureaucracy is possible only in a society where consensus exists on values; but in transitional societies like India, where dissent and conflict exist, it is too much to expect anyone to be neutral.*

For a developing country like India where speedy socio-economic development has to be steadily pushed through, the nature and character of bureaucracy assume special significance. The involvement of civil servants in numerous decisions be it the location of a steel plant or a school building in a village, makes them partners in development along with the politicians. Their value preferences get inextricably mixed up with technical advice.

In the context of large-scale welfare programmes therefore, neutrality is not possible. In fact a certain commitment to the goals and objectives of the state on the part of bureaucracy is inescapable. Neutrality cannot be allowed to degenerate into disinterestedness. The successful carrying out of developmental tasks requires on the part of administrators not only qualities of initiative and leadership but also a sense of emotional integration with the policies and programmes and identification with the interests of the common man. The idea

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of bureaucracy as a neutral instrument in the conduct of public affairs thus stands refuted.

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COMMITTED BUREAUCRACY

Weber's model of bureaucracy was found inappropriate to effect the social transformation in many developing countries. In India, it received a good amount of criticism for its failure to meet the growing demands of social legislation. After two decades of independence, Mrs. Indira Gandhi, the then Prime Minister, advocated the concept of committed bureaucracy. Not only did she express her dissatisfaction with the performance of bureaucracy, she expressed doubt about the relevance of the basic assumptions underlying the Indian bureaucracy that of neutrality, impartiality, anonymity etc. and she alleged that the bureaucrats lacked commitment. She disgustingly referred to the administrative machinery as 'the stumbling block in the country's progress' and reiterated the necessity of creating an administrative cadre committed to national objectives and responsive to Indian social needs. She found in 'committed bureaucracy' the answer to the ills of neutrality that crippled the development process in India. She had an earnest belief that only a committed bureaucracy can bring about the desired change.

The concept of 'committed bureaucracy' was much contested in the political and administrative circles. It was alleged that it would permanently damage the fabric of the services. It would create a breed of pliable civil servants who would always say "Yes Minister" and would be ready to crawl when asked to bend by their political masters. It was also alleged that in the name of commitment the ruling party was seeking bureaucracy's alignment with the party's ideology in order to perpetuate its rule. However, it was later clarified by the government that commitment did not mean attachment to the ideology of the party in power, but a commitment to the development of the country and personal involvement of bureaucracy in the tasks as opposed to ostrich like withdrawal and isolation from politics.

Thus, if committed bureaucracy stands for a non-partisan, socially sensitive civil service, which can empathize with the politician who is genuinely interested in progress and development of the country, then a committed civil service is more appropriate for a developing nation than having an insensitive neutral one.

SOURCES OF STRESS

In practice however commitment has assumed the perverted form of politicization and sycophancy. Commitment to social objectives is one thing and dancing to the tune of a political party is another. Very often it is seen that bureaucracy simply acts according to the dictates of the political executive without any independent examination of issues. This trend can be attributed to the

ever-growing political interference in the affairs of administration. Political interference and impartial administration cannot co-exist.

While the administrators do not perceive their role in policy making as subservient to the political leaders because of their knowledge and expertise, yet they have to conform to the prerequisites of representative politics. The political leaders claim to be the true representatives of the people and know what is good for them and because of their superior position succeed in dictating the terms to the bureaucrats. The bureaucrats who are not obliging enough soon find themselves in trouble. The political masters have many means of coercion – both overt and covert. Political interference in all matters including those where the statutory power is vested in the civil servants is a constant phenomenon. There are numerous instances of use of transfer, promotion, supercession and compulsory retirement from service by elected politicians as tools to silence the voice of dissent and expression of difference of opinion.

Well, politicization works the other way round also. Many administrators use political influence or forge alliance with the politician to brighten their own career prospects. They take advantage of the amateur politician; exploit his weakness particularly in times of a fluid political situation and turn out to be autonomous and irresponsible. This is an equally grim scenario.

What emerges out of the analysis is that whether there is collision or collusion between the political executive and the bureaucracy, in both cases it leads to organizational imbalance and ultimately the governance suffers.

IMPROVING THE SYSTEM : ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS COMMISSION'S VIEWS

Expressing concern over the deteriorating administrative standards, the government appointed the Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) in 1966 to conduct a comprehensive study of the administrative system and suggest remedies. The two most important areas touched upon by the ARC in its reports were : (a) Minister – Civil Servants relationship, wherein the ARC emphasized the need for the de-politicization of the services, and (b) the creation of a climate and culture of administration that would help assert the growth of unhealthy personal relationship between Civil Servants and Minister.

The ARC took cognizance of the fact that proper relationship between the political executive and bureaucracy is a matter of highest importance to the administrative performance of government. It observed that the existing pattern of relationship was different from what was envisaged. More and more cases of deviation were coming to notice. For instance the extent of bureaucratic involvement in politics was exceptionally high, there was frequent use of transfers and postings to manipulate bureaucracy, there was unholy nexus between politicians and bureaucracy etc. which was taking its toll on administrative

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efficiency. Therefore, corrective measures were required to restore the health of the system.

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The ARC stressed the urgency to prevent bureaucracy's aggressive role in politics and also a need to check arbitrary interference of politicians in administrative affairs. It believed that both Minister and Civil Servants must appreciate rather than belittle each other's work and attempt maximum accommodation of one another's views. On the part of the political executive there should be, in the words of the ARC,

- (a) a proper understanding of the administrative functions and recognition of its professional nature.
- (b) as little interference as possible in service matters, e.g., postings, transfers, promotions etc.
- (c) no requests for departures from declared and approved policies to suit individual cases.

Similarly, on the part of the civil service it asserts :

- (a) there must be a sincere and honest attempt to find out what the political head wants and make the necessary adjustment in policies and procedures to suit his wishes.
- (b) readiness to fall in line with his political chief in all matters, unless strong grounds indicate a different course.

In other words, it means an emotional and mental acceptance by the bureaucracy of the ideology of the government policy to be executed by it.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

In spite of the valuable recommendations made by the ARC to streamline the relationship between the minister and the civil servants, nothing much seems to have changed because of political and administrative apathy. Making the matters worse is the growth in recent times of a nexus between the politicians, criminals, police and the civil servants rooted in the considerations of "mutuality of benefit". An increasing use of money and muscle power by political parties in winning elections is common knowledge. Since the muscle power is mostly provided by the mafia and the criminals, a close nexus has come to prevail between the politicians and the criminals resulting in "criminalization of politics". This has been the main conclusion of the Vohra Committee Report of 1993 submitted by the then Home Secretary, Mr. N.N. Vohra which was set up to look into the criminalization of politics. The report observed that the mafia and the criminals enjoyed the patronage of politicians and the protection of government functionaries. It pointed out how the nexus was virtually running a parallel government, pushing the state apparatus into irrelevance. Here the two elites –

political and administrative, join hands and become not only thick friends but also grand thieves. Such a nexus is detrimental to public interest.

Therefore, it was felt that corrective steps must be taken to ensure that this evil nexus is curbed. With this objective in mind, the Prime Minister inaugurated a Conference of Chief Secretaries in November, 1996 on 'An Agenda for an Effective and Responsive Administration. The Conference emphasized the need for bringing about transformation in public services so as to make them more effective, clean, accountable and citizen friendly.

The Conference also highlighted the necessity of adopting the code of ethics for public services which not only regulates the role of the civil servants but also specifies the relationship between the employees in public services and politicians, so that the basic commitment of the civil servants towards the welfare of the public and the principles enshrined in the Constitution is reiterated. We only hope that the implementation of the proposed Action Plan will be effective.

To conclude, a developing nation cannot afford contradictory ethos between the political executive and bureaucracy because it strikes at the root of a progressive administrative culture. The roles of political and administrative elite are complimentary and in the interest of public welfare they must work in harmony with each other.

4.11 RIGHTS OF CIVIL SERVANTS

The constitutions of different countries guarantee certain fundamental rights to all the citizens irrespective of birth, caste, creed, colour or sex. The public servants are the citizens of the country, constitutions empower the states to regulate their rights and impose obligations on the public servants.

In regard to various rights of public servants, different countries have evolved different systems of rights over a period of time depending upon the genius of their peoples, their historical background, the stage of their economic development and their political and administrative structure.

The public servants are first citizens and then employees. But they have a special duty to maintain the structure of the states' Law and Order. There is a special status of double status applicable to the employees as citizens and as Public Servants. Their position is closely related to the conception of democratic government which expects employees to render faithful service to all the people, without the thought of their own interests. There are also arguments that public employees must be granted the role of the normal citizen even though they are public employees and they cannot be treated as second class citizens.

In this section, we will study the fundamental and other rights guaranteed to the citizens and the public servants, restrictions imposed by the government

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in exercise of the rights by Public Servants and highlight the service rights of the government employees.

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FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS GUARANTEED TO THE CITIZENS

The citizens are guaranteed certain fundamental rights by the Constitution. The rights may be classified as under:

- (a) Right to Equality
- (b) Right to Freedom
- (c) Rights against Exploitation
- (d) Right to Freedom of Religion
- (e) Cultural and Educational Rights
- (f) Right to Constitutional Remedies

Some of these rights may not be available to persons serving in the armed services. Moreover fundamental rights except protection against conviction and protection of life and personal liberty may be suspended. Freedoms guaranteed automatically get suspended during emergency. Restrictions are imposed or reservations are made on certain rights with regard to public employment and public services.

CLASSIFICATION OF FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS AND OTHER RIGHTS

The rights guaranteed to the citizen by the Constitution may be classified into following:

1. Personal Rights
2. Civil Rights
3. Political Rights
4. Trade Union Rights
5. Service Rights

Personal Rights

Some of the personal rights are:

- (a) **Right to life and liberty:** The private life of an individual is considered a matter of his conscience; freedom of which is guaranteed by all the states. The Constitution of India (Article 21) provides protection of life and liberty to all persons. It includes also the freedom of movement.
- (b) **Equality before law and equal protection of law (Article 14):** It means that the state cannot discriminate the citizens on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex, or place of birth. However, Article 15 provides protective discrimination and reservations for women, children, backward castes,

scheduled castes and scheduled tribes as "Socially and Educationally Backward Classes of Citizens" in the matters of education and employment.

- (c) **Right to freedom of Religion (Articles 25-28):** Under this right, all persons have the freedom of conscience and the right to profess, practise and propagate religion under certain regulations.
- (d) **Right to private property:** Under this right all the persons may acquire, hold and dispose property.
- (e) **Right to practise any profession or to carry out any occupation, trade or business.**

The Constitution guarantees all these rights to the citizens, but in regard to the public servants, the state regulates their personal conduct and private relationships which tend to affect their integrity, reputation, confidence and the dignity of the public office. Therefore, the governments through Civil Servants Conduct Rules and Codes prescribed and regulated the required behaviour from the public employees. The relationship between the government and the civil servants rests on contractual basis. Any breach of the code, conduct rules and the contract leads to different types of punishment, dismissal from service. However, the imposition of these restrictions is not an abrogation of their fundamental rights or an invasion of fundamental rights.

Civil Rights

Right to Private Trade and Employment

The civil liberties of the government employees are outlined clearly. With regard to civil servants, civil life, the state regulates their conduct and private relationship in so far as they tend to affect their integrity and reputation. In view of this, certain restrictions are placed on an official's right to take part in private business. In most cases, it is positively forbidden for an official to have any business dealings in the fields with which he/she comes into contact in the ordinary course of his/her duties. The temptations which might arise could place an unreasonable strain on one's integrity, particularly if his official duties require him to control certain branches of business.

Therefore, certain restrictions, limitations are imposed by the Civil Service Regulations. Except with the previous permission of the government, no civil servant can engage in trade or business or in support of the business owned or managed by any members of the family.

American government restricts the personal right of civil servants in the sense that they cannot coach anybody either individually or in group in order to prepare him/her for taking the competitive examinations for entry into government service. It is improper for any government servant to be associated with any such programme either by way of tuition or in any other manner. The

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government servants cannot accept the membership of such societies, institutions or clubs which oblige their members to go on strike in pursuance of their objectives. But with the framework of the rules the federal employees have the right to petition to the Congress either individually or collectively.

In France the civil servants enjoy civic rights more than any other country. They may join any political party. They have the right to strike. These rights have wide and far-reaching consequences. The government servants in India, U.K. and U.S.A. do not have such rights.

Right to Contract

Freedom of contract is a fundamental right of the citizens. In view of the integrity and impartiality, for the civil service this right to contract is restricted. Such as they are not allowed to:

- engage in any speculative investment,
- permit trade by any member of their family,
- lend money to any person living in the locality of their authority,
- borrow money from, any other person with whom they are likely to have official dealings.

Further, they are required to take prior permission of the government for purchase and disposal of their properties exceeding certain limits.

Right to Vindication of his Acts or Character

In parliamentary democracy where the civil servants are expected to be in the background and where they are supposed to be neutral, the minister holds responsibility for the commissions and omissions of the civil servants. As such, in India, the civil servants are precluded from taking recourse to a law court or to the press for the vindication of any of their official acts which has been subject matter of adverse criticism or attack of defamatory character. However, in France, the civil servants have the right to file suits in the courts against such administrative decisions which have an adverse impact on the collective interests of the civil service and in the event of violation of rules and norms of personnel administration.

The government employees are also required to so manage their personal affairs as to avoid habitual indebtedness or insolvency as it affects their own reputation as well as the government.

Subscriptions and Gifts

Civil servants are not allowed to ask for or accept any contributions or associating themselves with the raising of any fund in pursuance of any object. It was declared that in the interest of maintaining the efficiency and integrity of

government employees, it is essential to prevent them from soliciting or receiving funds for any purpose unconnected with his office.

Public employees also cannot accept any gifts. Even their family members are also not permitted to accept any such gifts. They have to report to the government when they accept any gifts and seek permission of the government to accept them.

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FREEDOM OF SPEECH AND EXPRESSION

In the Commonwealth countries of Australia, Canada, England and India, the Civil servants have to seek prior permission of the competent authorities for publishing a book or article or for speaking to general audiences. However, Australia takes a somewhat more lenient attitude towards the violation of these norms by its civil servants than Canada, India or England.

In the United States of America the Hatch Act of 1939 allowed its federal employees to express their views on political subjects, rather than only to express them privately. However, at the same time, it proclaimed that the Act was intended to prohibit the same activities that the Civil Service Commission considered legitimate under 1907 Regulations, which allowed only private expression. The second Hatch Act of 1940 extended these regulations to positions in state employment and allowed public employees to express their opinion on 'candidates' as well as on political subjects.

A French official outside his office can criticise the government and express views contrary to the general policy of government. But he cannot express personal criticism directed towards the work of the particular service to which he belongs. Similarly in Germany, outside the service a public servant can express his personal opinions on political questions also. He cannot adopt a standpoint which is in opposition to the government. But he must have a certain regard for his position. The law of 1953 obliges him to exercise that moderation and discretion with regard to political activities which incumbent upon him in his position as servant of the community.

In India, the Civil Servants cannot express against any policy or action of the government. They cannot also express on any matter pertaining to politics of parties and matters of public controversy.

Criticism of Government Policy

According to the Civil Service (Conduct) Rules in India, government servants are not permitted to communicate anything to the press, make any public utterance, make any statement of fact or opinion which has the effect of an adverse criticism of any policy of the government or which leads to embarrassing relations between the internal governmental agencies and the governments of foreign states.

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The employees are also forbidden from giving any evidence without prior permission to any inquiry which is not duly authorised.

The purpose of this restriction is to maintain the political neutrality of the civil services and to keep them away from public controversies and to enable the civil servants to serve the government of the day with all the loyalty.

In Britain, the civil servants have freedom to express their opinions on non-political matters of public importance provided they do not direct their activities towards any party politics.

In U.S.A. the government may restrict the exercise by its employees of their right to criticise government policy. The employees may be disciplined : (a) if their criticism is false and is made with actual malice, (b) if criticism involves disclosure of information which is confidential, (c) if the criticism is made outside the channels prescribed by, or is in violation of a statute, Executive order or regulation, and (d) if the criticism adversely affects job performances, discipline, work relationships or the goals of the organisation.

Speech and Expression on Political Matters

In India the civil servants are prohibited from participating in any political activity and movement. They cannot make any public expression of their views other than those of purely literary, scientific or artistic nature. They are restricted from participating in any way in the editing, managing any publication. Thus, they are completely deprived of the freedom of press.

In Britain, the civil servants those who involve in the formulation and execution of public policy (executive group) have no freedom of expression on political matters. However, the Minor and Manipulative Groups, whose duties are of only routine character have freedom to political expression as well as activity.

Unauthorised Communication of Official Information

In U.S.A. under the Hatch Act 1939, no employee of the government can use his official authority or influence for the political purposes. Any person violating the provisions of this Act shall be removed from the position held by him.

In India, as per the Conduct Rules, no government servant shall communicate directly or indirectly any official document or information, except in the form prescribed, to any government or person to whom he is not authorised to communicate. The official Secrets Act 1923 also lays down service restrictions on unauthorised communication of official information. The restrictions and severe punishments are necessitated to prevent the employees from communicating such information to the enemy countries or to unsocial elements or to use such information to serve the personal ends of the employees. Therefore, the civil servants are put under special obligation to use and protect official information with the utmost care.

POLITICAL RIGHTS

Right to Political Activity

The right of political activities of the public servants in a democratic government is determined by the constitutional theory of government. Political neutrality of civil servants has been regarded as one of the cardinal conditions for the success of a democratic government. The parliamentary form of government demands from civil service not only neutrality and unimpeachable but also integrity and impartiality to conduct.

The question of rights to engage in political activities in U.K. was referred by the government to Masterman Committee in 1948. As per the recommendations of the committee and in consultation with the employees a set of regulations were issued in 1953. While the concept of political neutrality has been kept intact, particularly of the higher civil service, a distinction has been drawn between national and local political activities. The civil servants has been classified into (a) the politically free group (b) the politically restricted group and (c) those who are allowed to participate in national political activity, subject to permission.

In regard to local political activities, barring those civil servants who are required to obtain permission for participation, all others allowed to take part in those activities. A civil servant in the politically free group who is contesting for parliament is obliged to submit his resignation before nomination. He is entitled to be reinstated in the post whether he is elected to parliament or not.

All staff in the intermediate and restricted groups who have not been given permission to engage in any of the political activities are expected at all times to maintain a reserve in political matters and not to put themselves forward prominently on one side or the other.

In U.S.A. regulations are laid down on the political activities of public employees. They prohibited the following activities:

- (1) serving as a candidate or alternate to a political party convention,
- (2) soliciting or handling political contributions,
- (3) engaging in electioneering,
- (4) being a candidate for elective political office,
- (5) leading or speaking to partisan political meetings or rallies.

In India, the government servants, under the conduct Rules are not free to indicate the manner in which they propose to vote or have voted. They are forbidden to canvass or use their influence in an election to any legislature or local authority. The government servants are not expected to attend election

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meetings organised by any political party except in the official capacity. They cannot stand for election to the parliament or to state legislature. They are required to resign in order to contest elections. Thus, in India, the civil servants are debarred from taking part in politics. They cannot be members of any political party nor even subscribe or assist any political movement or activity.

In many democratic countries with certain exceptions, right to political activities of the civil servants are restricted in one way or the other. They can exercise only the right to vote. The restrictions imposed on the rights of political activities will only show the nature of the democratic government and the expected role of the public employees in the government. It is a part of the evolutionary process of the government.

Right to Contest Elections

France has the most liberal electoral laws. Irrespective of the levels all French Civil Servants are allowed to run for any representative office in the country. During their tenure in the representative assembly they continue to be on the public service rolls and enjoy their seniority and pension rights. Germany and Australia have a great deal of liberalism in this respect. In Germany and Australia public servants have to resign their positions in public service after their election. However, if they lose in the election or else intend to return to public service after the expiry of their term in the legislature they enjoy the privilege of re-instatement to a position equivalent to their previous positions in the public service.

England follows different methods as per the recommendations of Masterman Committee. The entire public service has been divided into three categories. Of the total employees in the state service, 62 per cent including Industrial Staff and most of the Non-Industrial Staff have no restrictions on their political activities; clerical staff, typists and some minor technical staff representing 22 per cent may with the approval of their departmental authorities, take part in all political activities, except contesting for election to parliament. The executive and higher staff representing 16 per cent are debarred from any political activity, but may be granted permission to engage in local political activity.

The electoral rights of civil servants in Canada are relatively more liberal than U.K. The federal public servant in Canada may apply to the Public Service Commission for a leave of absence without pay for seeking political nomination of federal, provincial or territorial legislature. If a civil servant elected, he ceases to be a public employee.

In the United States of America the Hatch Act of 1939 and 1940 regulates the political activities of the federal and to a limited extent those of provincial and local civil servants. However, they are allowed to run in the local elections so long as their participation in local politics does not affect their efficiency.

In Italy and Spain, the public servant if elected to Parliament is granted indefinite leave of absence and if he ceases to be a member of Parliament, he is entitled either to return to his post or if he is too old he can retire from service. In Denmark, Sweden and Austria the civil servants can remain in office and also can sit in parliament. In these countries precaution is taken that no civil servant contests in the area of where he had worked last.

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TRADE UNION RIGHTS

Right to Association

The public servants in Australia and France enjoy the right to association with trade unions. In Canada, India, Germany and England certain restrictions are imposed upon public servants' right to association. In Germany its Civil Servants may join or form only those associations whose objectives are in keeping the objectives of existing constitutional order only. In Canada and England the public servants are not allowed to associate with outside unions. In India the right to association has been guaranteed to every citizen. Public Servants, therefore, are free to form associations or join associations already in existence, but the government would consult or negotiate with only those associations which have been recognised by it. In United States the public employees are legally free to form associations and unions and to associate themselves with outside associations or organisations.

Right to Strike

Whether the civil servant's right to strike is granted or not, this right is exercised widely in India, France, Canada, Australia, America and in England.

In England the public servants are not denied the right to strike under the law. In France they have the right to strike. In Germany, however, public servants right to strike does not exist under the law. The penalties for violating the law include loss of one's job. In India all non-industrial public servants are denied the right to strike the law. The public employees in America do not have right to strike, under the provisions of the Act of 1947 strikes by the Government Servants had been declared illegal. In all the countries, wherever the employees go on illegal strikes, penalties or punishments are awarded as per the disciplinary or Conduct Rules.

SERVICE RIGHTS

Civil Service has a special relationship with its government when compared to the relationship between employer and employee in private employment. The civil service enjoys good prospects of public employment like the security of tenure, career, service facilities, superannuity benefits. On the other it maintains relations with the public in whom the state sovereignty lies. As such the civil

service occupies a key position in the government. Therefore, the state provides certain service rights to the employees to enable them to discharge their rightful job in the right manner.

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Appointment

Today, the public employer in democratic countries guarantees equal protection of the laws to all citizens seeking public employment. However, under the constitutional provisions or executive orders certain 'reservations' are made to the minorities and backward communities and socially weak. The judiciary has viewed such representative public services as desirable. However, the principle of equality of opportunity cannot be denied by the process of selection. But, discriminatory law in respect of residential qualifications, age, language, etc., may be enacted by the state. Thus, in India, reservations are provided in public employment of SCs and STs. The state is empowered to require every able-bodied person within its jurisdiction to work for a reasonable period for "public purposes" such as Defence services, Home guards, social services etc. Public employees are expected to serve anywhere under any conditions prescribed by the government.

Life Tenure

Public employment is more attractive due to its life tenure and prestige attached to it. However, the sovereign employer enjoys the pleasure to terminate, dismiss the services of any employee, without assigning any reasons for such kind of action. The principle of 'during the pleasure of the government' has now been converted in practice into 'during the good behaviour'. Therefore, only in cases of 'misconduct', gross negligence or incompetence this provision is exercised. Otherwise the civil service in general, remain in service, irrespective of change of the governments. Thus, the continuity of service under the different rules of the government is ensured. The civil servants are also entitled to certain privileges, facilities, allowances, advancements and promotions under the rules prescribed from time to time. The government cannot alter the conditions of their service to the disadvantage of the employees except by changing the existing Laws and Rules.

Rights and Privileges

Although the service tenure of all government employees is at the pleasure of the government, normally, they hold office during the good behaviour and their terms of service are regulated by Executive Rules and Administrative orders. Such of the Rules and Orders are issued subject to the provisions of the constitution. Sometimes the government is required to consult the public service commission for their opinion. Therefore, the governments cannot make rules and change rules without constitutional authority, The government is further required to place these rules and regulations on the Table of the Legislature for

their approval. Thus, the civil servants enjoy privileges and rights guaranteed by the constitution. The civil servants are not at the mercy of the executive government without changing the existing rules.

Procedural Safeguards in the Event of Removal or Dismissal

The constitution and the rules framed under the provisions of the constitution provides certain important procedural safeguards to prevent any injustice. Any punishment can be imported on the civil servant only according to prescribed procedure, which is laid down in India under Classification, Control and Appeal Rules (CCA Rules). As per the Rules no civil servant can be removed or dismissed by an authority subordinate to the one who appointed him. No one can be removed or dismissed until the civil servant has been given a reasonable opportunity of showing cause against the action proposed to be taken. Compulsory retirement before the age of superannuation is not considered removal or dismissal as there is no substantial loss of accrued service benefits like pension, etc.

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4.12 ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNALS

In pursuance of administrative law, there can arise disputes. These disputes require adjudication. There are administrative agencies other than the courts to adjudicate such issues arising in the course of day to day administration.

Administrative adjudication is the resolution of quasi-judicial matters by administrative agencies or commissions established for the purpose. A number of technical issues and disputes emerge in the day-to-day administration. The ordinary courts do not have the technical expertise and it becomes quite dilatory and costly to dispense with cases of administrative nature. It is only the administrative agencies, which are capable of looking into the matters of administrative exigencies. These administrative agencies with the power to adjudicate the disputes arising out of administrative action or inaction are called administrative tribunals.

According to Servai, 'the development of administrative law in a welfare state has made administrative tribunals a necessity'. In India, and in many other countries, there has been a steady proliferation of administrative tribunals of various kinds. They have, indeed, become a permanent part of the law adjudication machinery of the country. As a system of adjudication they have come to stay, and their number is constantly on the increase.

Administrative tribunals are authorities outside the ordinary court system, which interpret and apply the laws when acts of public administration are questioned in formal suits by the courts or by other established methods. In

other words, they are agencies created by specific enactments to adjudicate upon disputes that may arise in the course of implementation of the provisions of relevant enactments.

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They are not a court nor are they an executive body. Rather they are a mixture of both. They are judicial in the sense that the tribunals have to decide facts and apply them impartially, without considering executive policy. They are administrative because the reasons for preferring them to the ordinary courts of law are administrative reasons.

They are established by the executive in accordance with statutory provisions. They are required to act judicially and perform quasi-judicial functions. The proceedings are deemed to be judicial proceedings and in certain procedural matters they have powers of a civil court.

They are not bound by the elaborate rules of evidence or procedures governing the ordinary courts. They are independent bodies and are only required to follow the procedure prescribed by the relevant law and observe the principles of 'Natural Justice'. They do not follow the technicalities of rules of procedure and evidence prescribed by the Civil Procedure Code (CPC) and Evidence Act respectively. The administrative tribunals may be more appropriately defined as specially constituted authorities established by law to settle the disputes between the citizen and administration.

The administrative tribunals are the instruments for the application of administrative law. They have distinct advantage over the ordinary courts because they ensure cheapness, accessibility, freedom from technicality, expedition and expert knowledge of the particular subject. The involvement of experts in administration in regulating administrative actions is necessary to provide justice to the citizens, without sacrificing the institutional needs. What is involved is basically the relative position of two values, that is, the protection of the individual and his legitimate interests and the effective attainment of public purpose.

4.13 REASONS FOR THE GROWTH OF ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNALS

There are many reasons for the growth of administrative tribunals. Some of these are:

Firstly, the administrative tribunals, rendering administrative justice, is a by-product of the Welfare State. In the 18th and 19th centuries when 'laissez faire' theory held sway, the law courts emerged as the custodians of the rights and liberties of the individual citizens. Sometimes they protected the rights of all citizens at the cost of state authority. With the emergence of Welfare State, social interest began to be given precedence over the individual rights. With the development of collective control over the conditions of employment, manner of

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living and the elementary necessities of the people, there has arisen the need for a technique of adjudication better fitted to respond to the social requirements of the time than the elaborate and costly system of decision-making provided by the courts of law. In brief, 'judicialisation of administration' proved a potential instrument for enforcing social policy and legislation.

Secondly, in view of the rapid growth and expansion of industry, trade and commerce, ordinary law courts are not in a position to cope up with the workload. With the result, enormous delay in deciding cases either way, takes place. Therefore, a number of administrative tribunals have been established in the country, which can do the work more rapidly, more cheaply and more efficiently than the ordinary courts.

Thirdly, law courts, on account of their elaborate procedures, legalistic forms and attitudes can hardly render justice to the parties concerned, in technical cases. Ordinary judges, brought up in the traditions of law and jurisprudence, are not capable enough to understand technical problems, which crop up in the wake of modern complex economic and social processes. Only administrators having expert knowledge can tackle such problems judiciously. To meet this requirement, a number of administrative tribunals have come into existence.

Fourthly, a good number of situations are such that they require quick and firm action. Otherwise the interests of the people may be jeopardized. For instance, ensuring of safety measures in local mines, prevention of illegal transactions in foreign exchange and unfair business practices necessitate prompt action. Such cases, if are to be dealt with in the ordinary courts of law, would cause immense loss to the state exchequer and undermine national interest. However, the administrative courts presided over by the experts would ensure prompt and fair action.

4.14 TYPES OF ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNALS

There are different types of administrative tribunals, which are governed by the statutes, rules, and regulations of the Central Government as well as State Governments. We will discuss the various types of administrative tribunals now.

Central Administrative Tribunal (CAT)

The enactment of Administrative Tribunals Act in '1985 opened a new chapter in administering justice to the aggrieved government servants. It owes its origin to Article 323A of the Constitution which empowers the Central Government to set up by an Act of Parliament, the Administrative Tribunals for adjudication of disputes and complains with respective recruitment and conditions of service of persons appointed to the public services and posts in connection with the Union and the States.

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The Tribunals enjoy the powers of the High Court in respect of service matters of the employees covered by the Act. They are not bound by the technicalities of the Code of Civil Procedure, but have to abide by the Principles of Natural Justice. They are distinguished from the ordinary courts with regard to their jurisdiction and procedures. This makes them free from the shackles of the ordinary courts and enables them to provide speedy and inexpensive justice.

The Act provides for the establishment of Central Administrative Tribunal and State Administrative Tribunals. The CAT was established in 1985. The Tribunal consists of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and Members. These Members are drawn from the judicial as well as the administrative streams. The appeal against the decisions of the CAT lies with the Supreme Court of India.

Customs and Excise Revenue Appellate Tribunal (CERAT)

The Parliament passed the CERAT Act in 1986. The Tribunal adjudicate disputes, complaints or offences with regard to customs and excise revenue. Appeals from the orders of the CERAT lies with the Supreme Court.

Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Commission (MRTPC)

In 1969, the Parliament enacted the MRTP Act by which the Monopolies Commission was set up and given powers to entertain complaints regarding monopolistic and restrictive trade practices and later unfair trade practices by the Amendment Act in 1984. With the introduction of new Industrial Policy (1991), a substantial programme of deregulation has been launched. Industrial licensing has been abolished for all items except for a short list of six industries related to security, strategic or environmental concerns. The MRTP Act has since been amended in order to eliminate the need to seek prior approval of government for expansion of the present industrial units and establishment of new industries by large companies.

A significant number of industries had earlier been reserved for the public sector. Now the ones reserved for the public sector are : (a) arms and ammunition and official items of defence equipment, defence aircraft and warships; (b) atomic energy; (c) subjects specified in the schedule to the notification of the Government of India in the Department of Atomic Energy; (d) Railway Transport. Private sector participation can be invited on discriminatory basis even in some of these areas. Under the amended MRTP Act, a three-tier system for settling consumer complaints has been provided. This operates as District Level Forum at the district level, State Commissions at the state levels and National Consumers Disputes Redressal Commission at the national level. The National Commission has power to hear the appeals against State Commissions and also has revisional powers. Appeal from the National Commission lies to the Supreme Court.

Election Commission (EC)

The Election Commission is a tribunal for adjudication of matters pertaining to the allotment of election symbols to parties and similar other problems. The decision of the commission can be challenged in the Supreme Court.

Foreign Exchange Regulation Appellate Board (FERAB)

The Board has been set up under the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act, 1973. A person who is aggrieved by an order of adjudication for causing breach or committing offences under the Act can file an appeal before the FERAB.

Income Tax Appellate Tribunal

This tribunal has been constituted under the Income Tax Act, 1961. The Tribunal has its benches in various cities and appeals can be filed before it by an aggrieved person/s against the order passed by the Deputy Commissioner or Commissioner or Chief Commissioner or Director of Income Tax. An appeal against the order of the Tribunal lies to the High Court. An appeal also lies to the Supreme Court if the High Court deems fit.

Railway Rates Tribunal

This Tribunal was set up under the Indian Railways Act, 1989. It adjudicates matters pertaining to the complaints against the railway administration. These may be related to the discriminatory or unreasonable rates, unfair charges or preferential treatment meted out by the railway administration. The appeal against the order of the Tribunal lies with the Supreme Court.

Industrial Tribunal

This Tribunal has been set up under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947. It can be constituted by both the Central as well as State governments. The Tribunal looks into the dispute between the employers and the workers in matters relating to wages, the period and mode of payment, compensation and other allowances, hours of work, gratuity, retrenchment and closure of the establishment. The appeals against the decision of the Tribunal lie with the Supreme Court.

4.15 ADVANTAGES OF ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNALS

Administrative adjudication is a dynamic system of administration, which serves, more adequately than any other method, the varied and complex needs of the modern society.

The main advantages of the administrative tribunals are:

(1) Flexibility

Administrative adjudication has brought about flexibility and adaptability in the judicial as well as administrative tribunals. For instance, the courts of law exhibit a good deal of conservatism and inelasticity of outlook and approach. The

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justice they administer may become out of harmony with the rapidly changing social conditions. Administrative adjudication, not restrained by rigid rules of procedure and canons of evidence, can remain in tune with the varying phases of social and economic life.

(2) Adequate Justice

In the fast changing world of today, administrative tribunals are not only the most appropriate means of administrative action, but also the most effective means of giving fair justice to the individuals. Lawyers, who are more concerned about aspects of law, find it difficult to adequately assess the needs of the modern welfare society and to locate the individuals place in it.

(3) Less Expensive

Administrative justice ensures cheap and quick justice. As against this, procedure in the law courts is long and cumbersome and litigation is costly. It involves payment of huge court fees, engagement of lawyers and meeting of other incidental charges. Administrative adjudication, in most cases, requires no stamp fees. Its procedures are simple and can be easily understood by a layman.

(4) Relief to Courts

The system also gives the much-needed relief to ordinary courts of law, which are already overburdened with ordinary suits.

(5) Experimentation

Experimentation is possible in this field and not in the realm of judicial trials. The practical experience gained in the working of any particular authority can be more easily utilised by amendments of laws, rules and regulations. Amendment of law relating to courts is quite arduous.

In sum, flexibility, accessibility and low cost are the important merits of administrative tribunals. In the words of W.A. Robson, the advantages of administrative tribunals are "cheapness and speed with which they usually work, the technical knowledge and experience which they make available for the discharge of judicial functions in special fields, the assistance which they lend to the efficient conduct of public administration, and the ability they possess to lay down new standards and to promote a policy of social improvement". Now we will discuss some of the disadvantages of the administrative tribunals.

4.16 DISADVANTAGES OF ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNALS

Even though administrative adjudication is essential and useful in modern day administration, we should not be blind to the defects from which it suffers or the dangers it poses to a democratic polity. Some of the main drawbacks are described as follows.

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In the first place, administrative adjudication is a negation of Rule of Law. Rule of Law ensures equality before law for everybody and the supremacy of ordinary law and due procedure of law over governmental arbitrariness. But administrative tribunals, with their separate laws and procedures often made by themselves, put a serious limitation upon the celebrated principles of Rule of Law.

Secondly, administrative tribunals have in most cases, no set procedures and sometimes they violate even the principles of natural justice.

Thirdly, administrative tribunals often hold summary trials and they do not follow any precedents. As such it is not possible to predict the course of future decisions.

Fourthly, the civil and criminal courts have a uniform pattern of administering justice and centuries of experience in the administration of civil and criminal laws have borne testimony to the advantages of uniform procedure. A uniform code of procedure in administrative adjudication is not there.

Lastly, administrative tribunals are manned by administrators and technical heads who may not have the background of law or training of judicial work. Some of them may not possess the independent outlook of a judge.

However, there exist certain safeguards, which can go to mitigate or lessen these disadvantages. We will be discussing some of the safeguards to be observed in the working of administrative tribunals.

4.17 SAFEGUARDS IN THE WORKING OF ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNALS

Administrative adjudication suffers from many shortcomings that cannot perhaps be denied. But, like delegated legislation, it is an inescapable necessity in a modern complex society. Therefore, to overcome the shortcomings, few safeguards are suggested to make administrative adjudication impartial and certain. These safeguards include:

- (1) Administrative tribunals should be manned by persons possessing legal training and experience. To inspire public confidence, the appointment of members should be made in consultation with the Supreme Court.
- (2) A code of judicial procedure for administrative tribunals should be devised and enforced. This is important in view of the prevalence of varying procedures of administrative adjudication in India.
- (3) Reasons should invariably accompany decisions by the tribunals. "Good Laws", observed Jeremy Bentham, "are such laws for which good reasons can be given". A reasoned decision goes towards convincing those, who are affected by it, about its innate fairness and is a check against misuse of power.

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- (4) The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court (as well as the High Courts) should not be curtailed. In other words, the right to judicial review on points of law must remain unimpaired. Some of the administrative tribunals permit appeal to the court of law. Some, however, seek to ban judicial review altogether by making decisions final. According to M.C. Setalvad, former Attorney General of India, the need for judicial review is greater in a nascent democracy like India.

4.18 ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS

When India achieved independence, it inherited a colonial legacy in administration, which was suited to the needs of revenue collection and maintenance of law and order. During the years following independence, the Indian government was mostly pre-occupied with the problems of administrative integration of the princely states and the rehabilitation of the rehgees and the displaced.

With India becoming republic the objectives for the development of the country was spelt out. The focus shifted to the social and economic development of the country. Attention was directed to people-oriented administration. Administration had to be responsive to the development needs of the people. Thus, there was a need to reform the administration to suit the needs of independent India.

The Government of India undertook various measures for bringing in reforms in administration. It constituted various committees and commissions and organised conferences to suggest reforms in administration. We will be discussing them in the ensuing sections.

We will first discuss the meaning, needs, and types of administrative reforms, which will be followed by the reform steps and measures undertaken in the country since independence.

MEANING

Administrative reforms have been variously defined. There are many names given to this phenomenon of reforms such as administrative change, administrative transformation, administration restructuring, administrative reengineering, renewal, realignment etc. The idea is that administration is in need of re-alignment and readjustment and it must evolve to a new form and format through a planned, systematised and well-directed process.

Administrative reforms can, in short, be defined as artificial inducement of administrative transformation against resistance. This definition highlights three distinct elements, namely:

- Administrative reform is artificially stimulated;
- It is a transformatory process; and
- There is existence of resistance to change process.

Obviously, reforms do not take place by themselves. They are pre-meditated, well studied and planned programmes with definite objectives in view. Reform is an induced and manipulated change, for it involves persuasion, collaboration and generation of conviction for betterment.

Reform is more than a series of incremental changes or marginal adjustments, though it may result from the cumulation of small changes, which periodically creates requirement for comprehensive and systematic efforts.

Administrative reform paves the way for new order. It refers to the formal, mechanistic and meditated process of structured change.

NEED FOR ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS

The distinguishing characteristic of modernised social system is its ability to deal with continuous systematic transformation. Society has to change in order to free itself from the shackles of traditionalism, cope with the changes in environment, adopt fresh innovative culture, adopt new knowledge and technology and crave for a new order through elimination of the old structures and system.

Administrative reform is but a part of the universality of this change, for administration is nothing but a sub-culture, a social sub-system reflecting the values of the wider society. Administration must also correspondingly change to be in step with the outer modernisation process. Or else, disequilibrium would set in, resulting in imbalances, dysfunctionalities, maladjustments and goal displacement.

According to Fred W. Riggs administrative reform is a "problem of dynamic balancing." Since public administration functions within a political context, its basic character, content and style of functioning is greatly influenced by the political environment, its institutional dynamics and process, in not merely setting national goals, priorities, or deciding between competing values, and allocating resources but also in devising the most effective instrument for translating these policies into successful programme realities. Added to this, the advances in Information and Communication Technology (ICT), and the state's pervasive role in managing national assets and resources, controlling the entire economy through regulation and development, ensuring a just and equitable economic order, correcting age old social imbalances through newer forms of institution-making, and ushering in an egalitarian social system, has thrown up new tasks for administration. This requires fundamental and foundational improvement in the administrative capabilities. The latter, in turn, requires proper planning,

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educational re-arrangement, skill-generation, attitude-formation and a host of other structural-functional reorganisation. This being the ecology of administrative reform, the success of administrative reform programmes postulates an interdisciplinary and multidimensional approach.

With the nineties came the market reforms, and there was an emphasis on structural adjustment. Good governance is the stress of the governments of the day, with focus on accountability, efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and decentralisation. With focus on good governance today, there has been a greater change in the conventional role of the State, the government and the bureaucracy. Today, there is shift from responsiveness to partnership and collaboration. The importance is given to people's participation in governance and the involvement of the multiple actors. With citizen's participation and collaboration taking centre stage, the government have to act as partners with the citizens. Administration cannot fulfil the newer roles with the traditional organisation and methods. It has to be people friendly and work on public trust. Hence, the bureaucracy has to change to adapt to the new role. This need for change in turn necessitate reforms.

4.19 TYPES OF ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS

Administrative reforms, according to Gerald E. Caiden, can be of four types.

- Reforms imposed through political changes,
- Reforms introduced to remedy organisational rigidity,
- Reforms through the legal system, and
- Reforms through changes in attitude.

Reforms Imposed Through Political Changes

Administration is shaped and influenced by political forces. The change in political scene also affects administration. Structure and working of administration is affected by political changes.

Reforms Introduced to Remedy Organisational Rigidity

Bureaucratic structures have to change to be flexible. The rigidity in the structure of administration has to be removed. The changes can take place in the form of restructuring, reinvention, realignment, rethinking and reengineering.

Reforms Through the Legal System

Laws pertaining to administrative reform can lead to significant changes in administration. Legislation is normally preceded by consultations and deliberation in several forums such as committees, commissions, press etc.

Reforms Through Changes in Attitude

Human beings are an important part of any organisation. Change in their attitude will help in bringing reforms. No legal, structural and political change

can lead to desired reform unless and until these are appreciated and accepted by the people working in the organisation.

4.20 ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS IN INDIA SINCE INDEPENDENCE

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The Context for Reforms

When India became independent in 1947, it faced problems of partition, refugees, migration, retirement of a great number of administrative personnel, problem of integration of the princely States, etc. The new government adopted the ideology of welfare of the people through socio-economic development, which led to a greater proliferation of tasks and functions. To take up the welfare programmes and challenges, the administrative machinery, which was inherited from the colonial regime and rendered weak by erosive circumstances and stressful situations accompanying Independence, had to be revamped and reinforced.

Administration, as the instrument for designing and implementing all the developmental programmes had to be restructured, reformed and renewed. Various measures were taken up by the GOI in administrative reforms. We will discuss these measures now.

Secretariate Reorganisation Committee, 1947

The Government of India set up the Secretariat Reorganisation Committee in 1947, which was headed by Girija Shankar Bajpai. The Committee enquired into the matters of personnel shortages, better utilization of the available manpower and improvement of methods of work in the Central Secretariat.

Shri N. Gopaldaswamy Ayyangar Report, 1950

Shri N. Gopaldaswamy Ayyangar conducted a comprehensive review of the working of the machinery of the Central Government, which was presented in his report on 'Reorganisation of the Machinery of Central Government'.

A.D. Gorwala Committee, 1951

In July 1951, a Committee, headed by Shri A.D. Gorwala in its Report on Public Administration underlined the need for having a clean, efficient and impartial administration.

Paul. H. Appleby Reports, 1953 & 1956

In continuation of these efforts, the Government of India invited an American expert, Mr. Paul. H. Appleby to suggest reforms in Indian administration. Appleby submitted two reports. His first report namely 'Public Administration in India: Report of a Survey', 1953, dealt with administrative reorganisation and practices. His second report namely, 'Re-examination of India's Administrative System with special reference to Administration of Government's

Industrial and Commercial Enterprises', 1956, dealt with matters pertaining to streamlining organisation, work procedures, recruitment, training in these enterprises.

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Among the twelve recommendations made, the Government of India accepted two of his recommendations. First, related to the establishment of a professional training institute, namely the Indian Institute of Public Administration for promoting research in public administration. The second related to the setting up of a central office to provide leadership in respect to organisation, management and procedures. As a result, an Organisation and Methods (O & M) Division was set up in March 1954, in the Cabinet Secretariat for improving the speed and quality of the government business and streamlining its procedures. O & M units and work-study units were set up in the Ministries/Departments. The focus was on improving the paper work management and methods. A Manual of Office Procedure was prepared for all Ministries and Departments.

Committee on Plan Projects, 1956

In 1956, the Planning Commission set up a 'Committee on Plan Projects' to evolve organisation norms, work methods and techniques, with a view to achieve economy and efficiency in the implementation of the plan projects. In 1964, a Management and Development Administration Division was also established as a part of this Committee to promote the use of modern tools of management. It also undertook studies on problems related to development administration at the district level.

Committee on Prevention of Corruption, 1962

The Committee was set up under the chairmanship of K Santhanam to study the causes of corruption, to review the existing set up for checking corruption and to suggest measures for improvement. The Committee stressed on the need for streamlining the procedures relating to prevention of corruption and recommended the setting up of Central Vigilance Commission(CVC).

Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC), 1966

The Administrative Reforms Commission was set up in January 1966 under the chairmanship of K. Hanumanthaiya. Its terms of reference was the widest as it covered the entire gamut of public administration at the Centre as well in the States.

The Commission submitted 20 reports containing more than 500 recommendations. These led to major and minor changes in administration as well as paved the way for further thinking, which led to more reforms. The major recommendations of the ARC are mentioned below:

- (1) It spelt out the tasks for the Department of Administrative Reforms. The Commission suggested that the Department should concentrate on:

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- Undertaking studies on administrative reforms that are of a foundational nature;
 - Creating O & M expertise in the ministries and departments and providing training to the staff in their O & M units in modern managerial techniques; and
 - Providing guidance to the O & M units in implementing the improvements and reforms.
- (2) It recommended the reactivating of the O & M units in different ministries and departments.
 - (3) It called for setting up of a special cell in the central reforms agency to give effect to the reports of ARC; and
 - (4) It stated that the central reforms agency should be research based in matters dealing with the methods of work, staffing pattern and organisational structure.

Kothari Committee, 1976

The Committee on recruitment and selection methods under the chairmanship of Shri Kothari was set up in 1976 by the UPSC to examine and report on the system of recruitment to All India Services and Central Group A and B Services. The committee in its report recommended for single examination for the AIS and Central Group A non-technical services.

National Police Commission, 1977

The Commission was set up under the chairmanship of Shri Dharam Vira to examine the role and functions of police with special reference to control of crime and maintenance of public order, the method of magisterial supervision, the system of investigation and prosecution and maintenance of crime records.

The Commission made over five hundred recommendations extending to a wide area of interest relating to police administration.

Economic Reforms Commission, 1981

The Commission was set up with L.K. Jha as the chairman. The main functions assigned to the Commission related to the study of the important areas of economic administration with a view to suggest reforms. The Commission submitted a number of reports to the Government of India, which advocated the rationalisation and modernisation of the economic administrative system to pave way for a new economic order.

Commission on Centre-State Relations, 1983

Mr. R. S. Sarkaria, was the chairman of this Commission. Its term of reference was to examine and review the working of the existing arrangements

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between the union and states with regard to powers, functions and responsibilities in all spheres and make recommendations as to the changes and measures needed.

The Sarkaria Commission on Centre-State relations was constituted in 1983 under the Chairmanship of Justice R. S. Sarkaria, a retired judge of the Supreme Court. It was to examine and suggest reforms for an equitable distribution of powers between the Centre and the State. The report was submitted in 1988 and it made 247 recommendations in this regard, suggesting 12 amendments to the Constitution and 20 new legislations. Though it did not recommend any drastic structural changes, it desired streamlining the provisions of the Centre-State relations.

It suggested the Centre's financial hold over the state to be diluted and autonomy be given in this regard.

The major recommendations include:

- (i) The Governor of a state to be a non-political person appointed with the concurrence of the Chief Minister.
- (ii) Articles 256, 257 and 265 of the Constitution and provisions designed to secure co-ordination between the union and the states for effective implementation of Union laws. Nonetheless, a directive under Article 256 and 257 and application of the sanction under Article 365 in the event of its non-compliance, is to be used as a last resort. Before issue of directions to a state and application of section under Article 365, utmost caution should be exercised and all possibilities explored for setting points of conflict by all other available means.
- (iii) The representative state to be consulted before deployment of union armed and other forces in that State.
- (iv) Sharing of the corporate taxes between the centre and state to be made mandatory.
- (v) The transfer of High Court judges should not be against their will.
- (vi) The state should have more control over the matters in the concurrent list and the Centre's hold over the union list should be loosened.
- (vii) To foster co-operative federalism in inter-governmental relations, the commission recommended the setting up of Inter-State Council under Article 263.

Though the Commission provided a comprehensive review of Central-State relations, few recommendations were accepted. This include:

- (a) The President's Proclamation, while imposing emergency in a state, should include the 'reasons' as to why the state cannot be run as per the normal provisions of the Constitution.

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- (b) As far as possible the centre should issue a warning to the state government before resorting to the use of Article 356.
- (c) The Inter-State Council under Article 263 as recommended by the Commission has been set up termed as 'Inter Governmental Council'.
- (d) Sharing of corporate taxes between the centre and states has been made mandatory.

Venkatachaliah Commission

The latest high power body constituted to examine the working of the constitution is the National Commission to Review the Working of the Indian Constitution which was notified on January 27, 2000, with Chief Justice Venkatachaliah as Chairman. The terms of reference of the Commission were as under:

"The Commission shall examine, in the light of last fifty years, as how far the existing provisions of the constitution are capable of responding to the needs of efficient, smooth and effective system of governance and socio-economic development of modern India and to recommend changes, if any, that are required to be made in the Constitution within the framework of Parliamentary Democracy without interfering with the basic structure of features of the constitutions."

The Commission functioned with the aid of 10 expert teams after having identified the major fields for incisive review:

- (1) Examine ways to strengthen democratic institutions and their accountability;
- (2) Review Electoral Reforms;
- (3) Review the pace of Socio-economic change and development and eradication of poverty;
- (4) Promote Literacy and Employment, besides ensuring Social Security;
- (5) Review Centre-state relations, including Art. 356, appointment of Governors, financial relations and sharing of revenues;
- (6) Strengthen Panchayati Raj Institutions;
- (7) Enlarge the Fundamental Rights and improve the Rights of the Minorities and Weaker Sections;
- (8) Effectuate Fundamental Duties;
- (9) Enforce the Directive Principles of State Policy;
- (10) Legal Control of Fiscal and Monetary Policies.

It appears that the Commission, born out of a controversy about the scope of enquiry, delimited its area of inquiry in such a way that 'parliamentary democracy' and the 'basic structure' were out of bounds for them.

The Commission made as many as 248 recommendations touching on these ten areas of intensive inquiry. Out of these, only 58 involve amendment of the

Constitution, 86 pertain to legislative measures and the rest require executive action.

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Unfortunately, this Commission Report proved to be a damp squib. There was hardly any national debate on the issue raised; nor is there any interest among parties - ruling or otherwise - to pursue the issues seriously.

4.21 SUMMARY

- The dictionary defines integrity as 'soundness of moral principles; the character of uncorrupted virtues; uprightness; honesty; sincerity, Integrity is, indeed, the most essential attribute of a welfare state.
- The Central Vigilance Commission has jurisdiction and powers in respect of matters to which the executive powers of the Central Government extend. Its jurisdiction thus, extends to all employees of the Central Government and the employees in public undertakings, corporate bodies and other organisations dealing with any matter falling within the executive powers of the Central Government.
- The generalists and specialists are two broad functional categories in the government. They play a very important role in rendering advice to the political executives, policy making and in implementation of policies. The present day administration has become more specialised in nature and hence requires different types of personnel with necessary skills, knowledge and qualities to discharge its functions.
- The working of government rests on two pillars – political and permanent executive. The smooth working of this system depends on the harmonious relationship between the two.
- The constitutions of different countries guarantee certain fundamental rights to all the citizens irrespective of birth, caste, creed, colour or sex. The public servants are the citizens of the country, constitutions empower the states to regulate their rights and impose obligations on the public servants.
- In pursuance of administrative law, there can arise disputes. These disputes require adjudication. There are administrative agencies other than the courts to adjudicate such issues arising in the course of day to day administration.

4.22 REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is the importance of integrity in administration?
2. What are the causes of declination of integrity in civil services?

3. Distinguish between generalist and specialist.
4. Discuss the aspects of relationship of politicians and administrators.
5. What are the essential rights of civil servants?
6. What are the advantages and disadvantages of administrative tribunals?

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