Principles of Public Administration

(With Special Reference to India)

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Unit I Foundation of Public Administration

Learning Objectives:

By the end of this unit, learners will be able to:

- Understand the need and significance of the discipline of Public Administration
- Elucidate clearly the definition and meaning of Public Administration
- Describe the nature and scope of Public Administration
- Identify the various features or characteristics of Public Administration
- Trace the evolution of Public Administration as a discipline
- Explain the difference between Public and Private Administration
- Analyse the new conceptions of Public Administration

Structure:

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Definition, Nature and Scope of Public Administration

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

In the modern global age, public sector faces many unprecedented challenges. The delivery of essential public services and accomplishing collective goals of society is no small task. The government is nowadays involved in myriad functions related to a number of dimensions of citizen's welfare. In undertaking these activities, the government needs an elaborate executive to implement and enforce the various policies, programmes, orders, directives, and regulations that are passed by the law-making bodies from time to time. The administrative structure thus is very significant in ensuring the smooth and effective functioning of the executive branch of the government. The administrative machinery is responsible for the management of public affairs. Public Administration, thus, lies at the heart of the modern welfare state. Most nations in the world cannot function without an efficient administrative system. It is the public administrative system that sustains the civilization and plays a pivotal role in the socioeconomic development of a nation.

1.2 DEFINITION, NATURE AND SCOPE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The field and study of Public Administration is not new. Administration has been a part of all systems of governments' right from kinship rule to the modern capitalist state. While everyone has heard about the field and discipline of public administration, not many know what it means and what it entails. The pervasiveness of the field in our day-to day interactions with the public system

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defines the nature and scope of Public Administration. To understand the subject in greater depth, we need to start by delving into the meaning of the term 'Public Administration.'

1.2.1 The Meaning of 'Administration'

The word 'administration' is obtained from the Latin term '*administere*' which denotes 'to care for' or 'to look after' or 'to manage' affairs. Thus, administration refers to that activity which involves the management and caring of certain affairs. In formal sense, Administration can be explained as **"group activity which covers cooperation and coordination for the purpose of achieving desired goals or objectives"**. There are four ways in which the term can be understood.

1. **As a Discipline:** This refers to the type of intellectual inquiry or branch of study which is read and taught in colleges and universities.
2. **As a Career:** This refers to the kind of job or work or occupation that involves public sector management.
3. **As a Process:** This refers to the cumulative procedures or courses of action which when combined together lead to the successful implementation of government policies.
4. **As an Alternative expression for 'word' Executive or Government:** This refers to the structure of government or group of persons who are in charge of the running of the government such as Kennedy Administration, Modi Administration, Bush Administration etc.

A number of prominent administrative thinkers have given their own definitions of the word – Administration.

Felix A. Nigro: *"Administration is the organization and use of men and materials to accomplish a purpose".*

J.M. Pfiffner and R. Presthus: *"Administration is the organization and direction of human and material resources to achieve desired ends".*

L.D. White: *"The art of administration is the direction, co-ordination and control of many persons to achieve some purpose or objective".*

Luther Gulick: *"Administration has to do with getting things done, with the accomplishment of defined objectives".*

1.2.2 The Public Aspect of Public Administration

The study of public administration assumes relevance and significance due to the public role or public aspect inherent in it. The activities termed as administration acquire a special meaning and character when they relate to the government sector or the public sector. The word 'public' here denotes the government. In other words, public administration means what the government does or what the administrative machinery of the government does for the welfare of the citizens. It specifically refers to the government in operation, i.e. the

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implementation of formulations made by government organs. It connotes the public bureaucracy wherein the bureaucratic structure and the political structure come together to serve the citizens. The focus on the 'public' aspect of administration thus gives the discipline of public administration weightage and credence with respect to its importance in nation building and socioeconomic development. The public role also crafts the enquiry of public administration very useful and meaningful for the betterment of society as the goal of public administration is to fulfill whatever is in the interest of the larger public.

As part of state-controlled management of public affairs, public administration affects all the individuals. The mandate of administration thus extends from the state and reaches the citizens through the elaborate system of public administration. Public administration also signifies the action-oriented aspect of administration which is responsible for the delivery of public goods such as public education, healthcare, infrastructure, public transit, law enforcement, regulation of activities and enterprises etc. In line with the organization of the structure of government from national to local levels, the public administration also has many levels of administrative structures. While the political executive is akin to change owing to the change in the government at regular intervals, the public administrative structure remains the same and lends permanency and stability to the governance of policies and programmes.

As a sphere of inquiry and as an academic discipline, public administration has a fundamental goal to press forward the management and implementation of policies so that the government can function. It also constantly adds to the canon of knowledge about various theories and principles that can help governments run better. The knowledge is very helpful in accelerating the development process through administrative machinery and the administrative personnel in a planned and orderly manner. The spotlight on the government or the public lends the study of public administration a high level of significance as an instrument of social change. New ways of administering and managing the will of the government makes the public administration dynamic and vibrant.

1.2.3 The Various Definitions of Public Administration

Woodrow Wilson: *The application of law in a precise and systematic manner is known as public administration. Every act of administration is a specific application of the law.*

L.D. White: *"All operations with the goal of implementing or enforcing public policy are classified as public administration." This definition, according to White, encompasses a wide range of specific operations in a variety of fields, including the delivery of a letter, the sale of public land, the negotiation of a treaty, the award of compensation to an injured worker, the quarantine of a sick child, the removal of litter from a park, the manufacture of uranium 235, and licencing the use of atomic energy. It encompasses both military and civil affairs, much of the work of tribunals, and all of the government's special spheres of operation, such as police, education, health, public works building, conservation, social security, and*

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many more. In mature civilizations, the administration of public affairs necessitates the use of nearly every profession and skill-engineering, law, medicine, and education; crafts, technical specialties, office skills, and many others.

Percy McQueen: *The operations of government, whether local or national, are referred to as public administration.*

Luther Gulick: *Public administration is the branch of administration that deals with government; it is largely concerned with the executive branch, which is where the government's work is done, though there are certainly issues with the legislative and judicial branches as well.*

J.M. Pfiffner: *Administration is the process of getting government work done by organising people's efforts so that they can work together to complete their assigned jobs.*

H.A. Simon, D.W. Smithburg and V.A. Thompson: *In general usage, the term "public administration" refers to the activities of the executive branches of national, state, and local governments, government businesses, and certain other specialised agencies. Government judicial and legislative agencies, as well as non-governmental administration, are specifically excluded.*

Dwight Waldo: *The art and science of management as applied to government activities is known as public administration.*

M.E. Dimock: *The 'what' and 'how' of government are the focus of public administration. The 'what' is the subject matter, which is the technical knowledge of a field that allows the administrator to carry out his responsibilities. The 'how' is the management approach, the principles by which cooperative programmes are carried out to completion. Each is necessary, and when combined, they constitute the synthesis known as administration.*

Nicholas Henry: *The purpose of public administration is to promote a superior understanding of government and its relationship with the society it governs, as well as to encourage public policies that are more responsive to social needs and to institute managerial practises that are attuned to effectiveness, efficiency, and the citizenry's deeper human requisites.*

F.A. Nigro and L.G. Nigro: *Public administration is a collaborative group effort in a public setting that encompasses all three branches of government and their interrelationships; plays an important role in the formulation of public policy and thus is a part of the political process; differs from private administration in significant ways; and is closely associated with numerous private groups and individuals in providing services to the community.*

1.2.4 Nature and Scope of Public Administration

A close scrutiny of the field of public administration reveals that public administration has a definite nature and scope.

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Nature

There are two perspectives when it comes to the character of public administration. The integral view and the managerial view. The integral view states that the nature of public administration is the sum total of all the activities that are carried out in the organization - from manual clerical jobs to managerial tasks as they all are contributing towards the realization of the aims and goals of the administrative agency. The entire activities of the government officials thus constitute the nature of public administration. The level and the kind of work performed does not matter. Contrary to this, the managerial view of public administration says that only those activities that are managerial in nature define the character of public administration. Public administration, according to this view, is considered as getting things done rather than doing things. The field of public administration thus relates more to the larger perspective and planning, commanding and controlling of the activities of the government.

Scope

As an activity, public administration has a scope which is no less than the scope of the state. The public administration is charged with eradicating economic inequalities, extending education, eliminating social ill practices, safeguarding equality of status and rights of women and other marginalized sections of society, effectual holistic economic and industrial development. Public administration makes available a host of development services and overall well-being and assistance and safety to the people. It manages and regulates the economy.

With regard to the extent and reach of public administration as a branch of learning, the views of the traditionalist thinkers and the managerial approach thinkers differs. Broadly there are three main viewpoints when it comes to the extent of the subject.

1. Narrow or POSDCoRB perspective
2. Broad or Subject-Matter perspective
3. Prevailing View

Narrow or POSDCoRB perspective

Luther Gulick is the main proponent of this view. As per this view, the scope of public administration is limited. It is narrow in its approach and extent of working. The view supports the fact that public administration relates only to those aspects of the administration that has some relation to the policy implementing organ and the seven kinds of administrative roles .

These seven kinds of scope and role highlight the extent and importance of public administration. They are as follows:

- **P denotes Planning:** Planning is the initial start in the administration in general. It refers to the overview of the concerns and requirements that needs to be looked into. The overview of the way in which the work is to be carried out.

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- **O denotes Organization:** It means installation of the proper forms and edifice of work and authority by way of which the whole design is to be further desegregated and laid out for proper alignment with the set aims and goals.
- **S denotes Staffing:** It refers to the hiring and imparting constant on the job learning to the workers and making sure of the conducive environment for them.
- **D denotes Directing:** It refers to the uninterrupted job of crafting decisions and representing them in precise and common guidelines and commands, and therefore managing the organization.
- **C denotes Coordinating:** This means interconnecting the numerous portions of organization for example the divisions, allotments, segments of labor and removal of coinciding.
- **R denotes Reporting:** It means putting in the picture to the person in power to whom the decision-making is answerable in respect of any affair.
- **B denotes Budgeting:** It means bookkeeping, economic financial preparation and forecasting.

This POSDCoRB viewpoint is restricted and limited in scope when it comes to public administration. It emphasised the tools of government management. This does not imply that this is the essence of administration. It is a perspective that is based on use of methods and not what the subject entails.

Broad or Subject-Matter View

The prominent proponents of this viewpoint are Woodrow Wilson and L D White. These researchers used a broad lens to examine the scope of public administration as a profession.

According to this viewpoint, public administration encompasses all of the government's major organs. Thus, the legislative, executive and the judiciary as well as the interrelationships between them is included. Legislative branch makes the laws, the Executive branch puts into operation the laws, and the judicial organ interprets the laws. They are interdependent in their working and thus public administration has all dimensions. The scope of public administration is viewed as a collection of people who work together. From the first-class officer to the fourth-class officer, it includes and covers everyone. Public administration is often regarded as an important component of the political process. It plays a very important role in the formulation of policies in the government at all levels from national to the grassroots. It is tightly associated with an assortment of non-public associations and people in delivering amenities to the public. It has been prejudiced by the individual collaborations theory in the recent years and thus incorporates the non-mechanical and human behaviour related aspects also.

The subject matter view is concerned with the substantive matters of administrative system and includes both general and specialized techniques in the field of law, welfare, social justice, health, education and other public goods etc. It

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covers all the content areas and issues in any policy and programme as well as the attitudes, leadership styles and the behaviour of the public administrators. In other words, public administration has a very wide scope and includes the myriad different ways in which policies are formulated, implemented and monitored.

Some scholars have adopted a more integrated view combining both the narrow and broad scope of public administration:

M.E. Dimock: *"Administration is concerned with 'what' and 'how' of the government. The 'what' is the subject matter, the technical knowledge of a field, which enables the administrator to perform his tasks. The 'how' is the technique of management, the principles according to which the cooperative programmes are carried to success. Each is indispensable. Together they form the synthesis called administration"*

Lewis Meriam: *"Public administration is an instrument with two blades like a pair of scissors. One blade may be knowledge of the field covered by POSDCoRB, the other blade is knowledge of the subject matter in which these techniques are applied. Both blades must be good to make an effective tool".*

Prevailing View

Prevailing view distributes the scope of public administration in two parts: 1) administrative theory, 2) applied administration

Administrative Theory

It incorporates the undermentioned aspects:

- **Organization model** – the assembly, arrangement, affairs and ways of all styles of public influence occupied in administration be it national, regional, parochial or policymaking.
- **Behaviour** – the purposes of administrative establishments and the innumerable techniques suitable to diverse kinds of roles. The numerous methods of power of administration.
- **Public Personnel Administration** – the glitches regarding workers for instance the staffing, training, upgrade, superannuation etc. and the difficulties engaging to designing, investigation, news and open dealings.

Applied Administration

It embraces the undermentioned aspects:

- **Political Functions:** the policy making and implementation connection, managerial actions of the ministers and regular authorized officers.
- **Legislative Function:** entrusted rule and the introductory work completed by the bureaucrats in association with the sketching of bills.
- **Financial Functions:** entire fiscal management from the groundwork of the financial plan to the implementation, bookkeeping and inspection.
- **Defence:** purposes associated with military management.
- **Education:** purposes associated with learning management.

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- **Social Welfare Administration:** the actions of the branches associated with various aspects of social and developmental welfare and well-being.
- **Economic Administration:** the manufacture of industrial products and farming and agricultural science.
- **Foreign Administration:** the behavior of external affairs, mediation negotiation, global support etc.
- **Local Administration:** the actions of the regional self-determining independent organizations.

Check Your Progress

1. What is the meaning of the word 'Administration'?
2. What are the two views regarding the nature of Public Administration?
3. What is the meaning of POSDCoRB?

1.3 IMPORTANCE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRIVATE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The role functions and specific differences between public and private administration are extremely important in today's modern state, particularly in emerging nations, to get a thorough understanding of the issue.

1.3.1 Role and Importance of Public Administration

1. It is the basis for government.
2. It acts as a catalyst for social transformation.
3. It plays an important part in people's lives.
4. It is a system for carrying out the state's laws, policies, and programmes.
5. Because it maintains continuity, it is a societal source of stability.
6. It is a medium for national unification in rising countries.

As the basis of government

One can say that it is likely for a nation to subsist without a parliament and judiciary; however not even the most retrograde state can do short of managerial apparatus. The contemporary state is complicated in increasingly multifaceted interests and amenities for the varying wants of the society. It has to deliver amenities to all sections of the society and also improve the services in agreement with the altering requirements of the people or the appearance of new-fangled issues and new-fangled groups in the society who demand the assistance of the state to make advancement. Resident wellbeing is the foundation of public administration and public administration is the foundation of the government.

As the instrument of change in society

Public administration is observed as the ways by the means of which government carries out its activities to bring about lasting change in the society.

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Social change is a very wide area. It covers all the myriad aspects related to the lives of people which has a bearing on the social milieu of the nation. Every nation wishes to evolve into a socially inclusive and socially stable and peaceful nation. The burden of operating social life in a planned and disciplined manner falls on a state's public administration. The achievement of Indian equality and the wellbeing of the people will be dependent not only on the legislature's foresight, but also on the administration's skill, intelligence, and fortitude.

People's lives are dependent on it.

State bureaucracy now influences every aspect of human life. Several government agencies, including state assistance, nutrition, shelter, agricultural, medical, sanitation, transportation, and communication, are overseen by the several bureaus. In fact, public administration touches the lives of the people from cradle to death. It steels the people against any violation of their rights and liberties as well as their claim to lead a healthy, stable, and peaceful life.

As a stabilizing force in the society

Public administration is carried out by executives who are the permanent part of the system of executive governance of the country. They lend steadiness and permanency to the system of government. The political leaders and the legislative organs may change their personnel but the bureaucracies and the administrative personnel remain the same. They are the permanent executives who are recruited till retirement. Systems of government may also change; political executives will come and go but the administration stays and works and operates in same way and same officials till they retire. Hence, public administration is a significant stability providing system in the society. It is a conserver of the social order and its values.

As an instrument of national integration

There is hardly any doubt that the effectiveness of any government rests upon an efficient administrative system The future of civilization and a civilized form of government depends on the skills of the people to grow advance a provision and thinking and an exercise of administration that is proficient to accomplish the public functions of a sophisticated society. The nations need to be kept together and there needs to be a universalization in the delivery of services that will instil the feelings of belonging to a single nation. Public administration also helps in fostering the spirit of nationhood in the administrative personnel as well as in the common citizenry. Integrity in service and non-discrimination is the hallmark of public administration which enhances the unity and harmony in a nation. This is of utmost relevance in a nation like India where there is diversity within diversity.

1.3.2 Public and Private Administration

Administration is a truly universal activity that occurs in all sorts of public and commercial organizations and involves collective cooperation. Using the criteria of the nature of the official location and the goals, public administration can be approximately discriminated from private administration. Public administration is organizational and managerial administration associated with attaining state

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functions, fixed by the state. Private administration, in contrast, relates to the administration of private business organization and is evidently different from public administration.

Views of Scholars

Herbert A. Simon

- *The public sector is bureaucratic, whereas the private sector is more business-like.*
- *Private administration is non-political, but public administration is political.*
- *Red tape characterises public administration, but private administration is devoid of it.*

Felix A. Nigro: *Government differs from commercial organizations in that it is far larger and has a wider range of activities than any private enterprise.*

Sir Josiah Stamp: There are four principles that distinguish public administration from private management:

1. **Principle of Uniformity:** There is a system of commonality and uniformity in laws that regulates public administration.
2. **Principle of External Financial Control:** The control of the finances is in the hands of the representatives of the people through a legislative body. There is no direct control of the revenues.
3. **Principle of Ministerial Responsibility:** The ministers can hold the administrators accountable and through them the administrators are accountable to the people.
4. **Principle of Return to Investment:** The main objective of a business venture is a return to the investment or profit and surplus generates even if it is small. A public enterprise on the other hand has non-monetary objectives which cannot be quantified or measured and gives indirect benefits.

Paul H. Appleby: There are three main features that set government administration apart.

1. **Political character** – Public Administration differs from private administration because of the political control and direction. Private administration is free from such control and is not influenced by political process.
2. **Public accountability** – The most important way in which public administration differs from any other kind of administration is the system of accountability inherent in the system. It is constantly under the watchful eyes of the public and the public continuously scrutinizes the actions of public administrators.
3. **Breadth of scope, impact and consideration** – The extent of coverage in terms of the scope of public administration is unthinkable. It impacts our day-to-day life in myriad ways. The policies and actions of the

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government are also very complex and have long term impact on the progress of the society. In today's world, it is important to have experts and specialists in the system to deal with the issues of public administration.

1.3.3 Distinguishing Factors between Public and Private Administration

Absence of profit motive: The public administration by its very nature defies any profit orientation. It is solely for the purpose of serving public interest and promoting social good.

Prestige: It is generally observed that public administrators enjoy a very high level of status power and prestige owing to their positions as compared with the same positions in the private sector.

Service and cost: The relation of income and expenditure is quite different in public and private administration. The public administration is not concerned with income to always exceed expenditure. For long term development, governments run income loss in the short term. This is not true for private sector. They have to have income exceed their expenditure always as they cannot survive without this.

Legal framework: Public administration has a set legal boundary for its operation. In terms of its powers and discretion, it is bound by the constitution and legislation adopted by parliament. These legal limits or framework do not limit the private sector to a large extent. They are relatively free in setting the goals and targets for their organizations and also framing the laws and rules for their organizations. Government activity however is regulated by law and the legal framework.

Consistency of treatment: A public official has the utmost responsibility to maintain the consistency of treatment in dealing with the public. There has to be equal and fair treatment to all and no discrimination on whatsoever basis is allowed in the interaction of the public officials and the citizens or in their day to day working.

Monopolistic and essential services: There are certain core sectors of the nation such as foreign relations, law and order, national security, steel and iron or currency and raw materials which are in the hands of the public sector and in no way the charge is given to the private sector as they are considered strategically important to the nation's development. In doing so, the public sector maintains a monopolistic control over certain sections of the economy and trade and commerce so that the community and nation both can prosper.

Market: Government agencies, unlike the private sector, are not subject to competition from other enterprises in the marketplace. The prices of public goods are not based on market but are set by budgetary routines and budgetary allocation. The public goods are non-rival goods. Their value does not diminish with use. Whereas the private goods have to face competition or perish according to the logic of the market.

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Officials remain anonymous: The officials in the public administration have a professional and ethical responsibility and duty to remain anonymous to maintain the professional code of ethics and ensure that the government system is protected. Their identities are never revealed. Actions of public officials are actions in the name of the government. However, in the private sector, the officials need not conceal their identities or act anonymously.

Financial meticulousness: As the public purse is the money of the taxpayers and the common man, the public administration has to maintain a very high level of carefulness in financial matters so that there is no loss of resources. The reasons for valuing money and finances are different in private administration.

Lower level of Efficiency: This is one area where the private administration outperforms the public sector. The complexity of the tasks and the volume of work coupled with the lack of effective control makes the efficiency of the public administration relatively less as compared to the private administration. The hierarchy and the detailed procedures and protocols make the system too tedious and cumbersome. This also affects the efficiency. The private management on the other hand is flexible and is always guided by performance and profit. Thus, the level of efficiency is always higher in the private administration as compared to public administration. Because revenue may not be the main objective, public organizations do not attempt to maximise output with limited resources.

1.3.4 Points of Similarities between Public and Private Administration

1. In both the public and private administration, there is some dependence on basic and common skills, procedures and techniques of operating.
2. In recent times, the profit incentive also guides the public sector, which is under pressure to provide even more funds for people's benefit and also to ensure the sustainability of the system.
3. The legal framework is not only applicable to the public sector but it also limits the private sector. With the proliferation of the private sector, there are a number of increasing regulations that set the mechanism of regulating the activities of the private sector. Examples include monetary licensing and taxation policies. Legal constraints are thus common to both public and private administration.
4. When it comes to the organization and the structure of the organization, the public and the private sector both have relatively same system such as the hierarchy, top-down structure, communication, coordination and control.
5. In both public and private administration, the people or customers are the lynchpin to assess the quality of service or the efficiency of the service. They both aspire to bring the highest level of satisfaction to the consumers. This also requires both kinds of administration to maintain close contact with the people and constantly get their feedback. In the public sector, public relations are just as vital as it is in the private sector. This helps both the public and the private administration to improve their

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services and bring a change in the system in line with the changing demands of the populace.

In comparing the public and private administration, one must keep in mind that the line of difference is very thin. Government can be more private-like and the private can be more government-like with the changing times. Administrative science binds them both to the same basic principles. Henry Fayol rightly sums up -

"There is only one administrative science, which can be applied equally well to public and private sectors. The word administration……broadens considerably the field of administrative sciences. It embraces not only the public service but also enterprises of every size and description, of every form and every purpose. All undertakings require planning, organization, command, co-ordination and control and in order to function properly, all must observe the same general principles. We are no longer confronted with several administrative sciences but with one which can be applied equally well to public and to private affairs."

Check Your Progress

4. How is Public Administration a stabilizing force in society?
5. Give one primary difference between Public and Private Administration.
6. Give one primary point of similarity between Public and Private Administration.

1.4 GROWTH OF THE STUDY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public Administration has grown as a scholastic and career field through a series of paradigms or phases in the past and present. We will briefly discuss each phase to understand the trajectory of public administration from its inception as a discipline to the present times.

1.4.1 Phase I: The Politics/Administration Dichotomy (1887-1926)

The first phase of public administration is the phase when public administration was born. This was in 1887 in USA. Woodrow Wilson wrote the famous essay - *The Study of Administration* (1887). This was written in the context of the partisan politics and the widespread corruption that had engulfed the politics where the elected officials ruled the roost and dictated terms to the administrative personnel. Wilson called for making the field of administration a special field that should be kept free *from the hurry and strife of politics*. As he opined – *it was getting harder to run a constitution than to frame one*. Wilson also pushed forward the need to have a science of administration - making it a systematic study which is more business like and pure and strong in its orientation and is not corrupted by politics. Frank Goodnow in 1990 also made the case for the separation of politics and administration. He designated politics as the expression of public will and administration as the execution of public will. This phase was all about the promotion of public administration as a separate and independent discipline of study and inquiry. Well with appearance of L D White's Introduction to the Study

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of Public Administration in 1926, the field of public administration earned some scholarly authority. Now the study of public administration becomes more about facts, distinctness, dutifulness, efficiency, economy and the streamlining of service delivery.

1.4.2 Phase II: The Principles of Administration (1927-1937)

In this phase the discipline of public administration develops some basic fundamental principles. The principles of administration were said to be universally valid across all organizations and were said to develop an efficient organizational structure. These principles were considered very relevant to the economy, efficiency and the working of the organizational system in effort to accomplish the regime's or manager's aims or goals. The phase was devoted to the discovery and application of these principles of administration that will develop the field of public administration and increase its universal relevance. The applicability of these principles was said to cut across cultures and organization types. It is in this phase that the acronym POSDCoRB (Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, and Budgeting) comes to be recognized as the basis of any administrative activity. Public administrators are now seen as experts in management. The idea of generic management is dominant in this phase and is applied to the field of public administration as well. Some major works of this phase are:

- F.W. Taylor's *Principles of Scientific Management* (1911)
- Henri Fayol's *Industrial and General Management* (1916)
- M.P. Follet's *Creative Experience* (1924)
- W.F. Willoughby's *Principles of Public Administration* (1927)
- Luther Gulick's and Lyndall Urwick's *Papers on the Science of Administration* (1937)
- James D. Mooney and Alan C Reiley's *Principles of Organization* (1939)

1.4.3 Phase III: Criticisms and Challenges (1938-1950)

This was a time of challenges and criticisms about the separation of politics and administration, as well as the influence of managerial principles on public administration. It was argued that politics can never be separated from administration as they are so closely related. The public administration is implementing the policies of the government and the political process has an undeniable influence in the administration. Public administration is also involved in public policy making process. The distinction is both naïve and simplistic. At another level, the principles of administration were attacked as mere proverbs. They have not been duly tested and verified for their wide applicability and thus they lack scientific validity and universal significance. In fact, the idea of some common administrative principles was dismissed as very primordial development and not having a rigorous or robust basis. The principles signified a very mechanistic approach and did not take into account the socio-psychological aspect. They laid over emphasis on the formal structure. This phase was thus marked by logical

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positivism and empirical approach to the field of public administration. At the same time, this phase also focused upon the behavioural aspect of the decision making. Thus, there is a rise of theories of administrative behaviour. In this context, Robert Dahl rightly said –

"No Science of PA is possible unless (a) the place of normative values is made clear; (b) the nature of man in the area of public administration is better understood and his conduct is more predictable; and (c) there is a body of comparative studies from which it may be possible to discover principles and generalities that transcend national boundaries and peculiar historical experiences."

Some major works of this phase are:

- Chester I. Barnard's *The Functions of the Executive* (1938)
- Fritz Morstein Marx's *Elements of Public Administration* (1946)
- Herbert Simon's *Proverbs of Administration (1946) and Administrative Behaviour: A Study of Decision-Making in Administrative Organization* (1947)
- Robert A. Dahl's *The Science of Administration: Three Problems* (1947)
- Dwight Waldo's *The Administrative State* (1948)

1.4.4 Phase IV: Crisis of Identity (1950-1970)

The challenges and criticisms created an era of confusion and a crisis of identity for the discipline of public administration. There was a chaos and muddle that pointed to different directions with no clarity or dominant view being established. In reaction to the challenges, the public administration scholars sought to establish linkages with the mother discipline of political science. There was a renewed emphasis on the way in which public administration collides with the politics, the policy making process, the relationship between bureaucrats and the law makers. A theory of public administration, according to John Gaus' Trends in the Theory of Public Administration (1950), is also a theory of politics. At the same time, public administration was seen as part of the generic management and the management field or the broader administrative science. Thus, the difference between public and private administration is meaningless as both are essentially administrative activities. The setting is not important. The important part is that organizations whether public or private should be concerned with economy, efficiency, productivity, effectiveness. This is also the phase when public administration is extended to many different nations as the newly independent nations grapple with setting up of administrative systems and seek new models for their application. Thus, we see the proliferation of studies surrounding development administration, comparative administration and the ecological approach. Some major works of this phase are:

- James G. March and Herbert Simon's *Organizations* (1958)
- Richard Cyert and March's *A Behavioural Theory of the Firm* (1963)

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- March's *Handbook of Organizations* (1965)
- James G. Thompson's *Organizations in Action* (1967)

1.4.5 Phase V: Public Administration as an Independent Discipline (1970-1990)

From 1970 onwards, the field of public administration gained new currency as a separate and independent field of study. A number of programs started as intellectual disciplines focusing on public administration and recognizing the significance of public administration as a specialized field of inquiry. Thus, public administration now emerged as an autonomous academic field. It should be noted that in this phase the dichotomy between politics and administration was abandoned for good. It was understood that politics and government management are inextricably linked and public policies are essentially a result of political process and deliberation. Administrative study assumed a multi-disciplinary and interdisciplinary character gaining and extracting from the disciplines as diverse as management, psychology, sociology, business, politics, economics, law and mathematics or operations research. This led to the convergence of various disciplines and emergence of a dynamic field of public policy study that included policy making, policy sciences, policy analysis, policy management and policy implementation. Public administration thus attains a programmatic character and focuses on solving real world problems through an interdisciplinary approach. The subject of public administration becomes socially viable and much wider in scope and reach.

1.4.6 Phase VI: Governance (1990-Present)

With the massive advancements in technology, transmission of information. worldwide economy, and the influence and character of government, shifts are taking place inside the commercial, corporate, not-for-profit and management sectors. These changes metamorphose how we govern. Governments are relinquishing, by design or default, their traditional responsibilities. In the present times, governance is the norm. It refers to the outlines of decrees, policies, officialdoms, establishments, collaborative plans and accords that have influence over residents and provide public services. Governance is both institutional and networked, unlike government. It is what Nicholas Henry says, a mesh of things, a shift from vertical to horizontal government. Interdependencies between city and local governments and other public, private, non-profit organizations have become a reality in getting things done or navigating the path of service delivery. In fact, new and more collaborative forms of governance are also emerging constantly to steer the government to achieve its purpose. In this type of government, small wins matter a lot. There is a shared understanding of processes, people and goals. Public administration in this phase is asserting itself as a highly relevant and goal-oriented and problem-solving field that creates and implements social change for social good. Good governance, corporate governance, inclusive governance, collaborative and participative governance are just some of the new models that have developed.

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Check Your Progress

7. What did Woodrow Wilson mean by science of administration?
8. What are the features of the current phase of Public Administration?

1.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NEW CONCEPT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

1.5.1 The New Public Administration Movement

Many changes have occurred in the realm of public administration and also a great transformation with regard to its essence. In 1960s, against the historical backdrop of war in Vietnam, population rise, environmental concerns, social unrest and economic crisis, there arose a number of questions about the responsiveness of our public administrative systems to the growing problems in the society. Is the public administrative paradigm in line with the changes in the socio-cultural and politico-economic levels and the new issues that have emerged? Is our administration effective and agile to respond to these issues? A lot of debate and discussion ensued in intellectual circles and it was decided that the government and government system of administration have to be reinvigorated with values and public purpose. There has to be a push for value-oriented and human-centred administration. Most importantly, there needs to be a revisiting of the goals and infusing them with the right amount of social equity to ensure a stable and peaceful society. Service delivery needs to take cognizance of the equitable and responsive and effectiveness aspects. This change in thinking gave rise to the New Public Administration (NPA). In the United States, a number of initiatives have been launched with the goal of giving public administration a multi-disciplinary approach, policymaking, and social equality focus.

- The Honey Report on Higher Education for Public Service
- The Philadelphia Conference on the Theory and Practice of Public Administration
- The Minnowbrook Conference – I
- The Minnowbrook Conference – II

1.5.2 The Honey Report on Higher Education for Public Service

John Honey of Syracuse University in 1966 embarked on an examination of the field of Public Administration in institutions of higher education of USA. This gave rise to a number of problems being identified: firstly, there was a high degree of ambiguity and perplexity regarding the standing of the discipline, whether it was a separate inquiry or is to be clubbed with other major disciplines. Secondly, there is the issue of inadequate funding or resources to sustain the study of public administration partly owing to the confusion regarding the status of the discipline in the intellectual domains of inquiry. Thirdly, there were certain institutional limitations that were holding back the growth of the discipline in various universities and colleges. The report also highlighted the lack of communication

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between scholars and the public administration practitioners. There was hardly any exchange of personnel between administrative departments and university departments where professor or scholars could go for a brief period to the field department and the field officers can come and enlighten the scholars about the hands-on experience of administering the programmes and policies. For instance, there was a suggestion to generate funds and resources from both government and business world. To collaborate for mutual benefits. The report also proposed the interweaving of the government departments and university divisions on administrative study to exchange intellectuals for short term service in the government and vice versa. Lastly, the report asked for the institution of a National Commission on Public Service Education. This commission will be responsible for the expansion and advancement of education related to public service and public administration to generate specialized experts in administration.

1.5.3 The Philadelphia Conference

Under the presidency of James C. Charlesworth, the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences held a conference on "The Theory and Practice of Public Administration" in 1967, with the aim to take stock of the situation of Public Administration as a discipline and its position and footing in the academic world. The conference participants noted that as the complexity, size and volume of work and responsibilities of the public sector is growing, so should the scope and relevance of the discipline of public administration. The functional roles of the modern welfare state are ever increasing and so should the administrative capacity. The conference disregarded the distinction between policy formulation and the policy implementation functions. Public administration needs to become more action oriented in solving social problems such as unemployment, poverty, environmental damage and others. Like the NPA paradigm, this conference also sought to highlight the value of social equity, organizational receptiveness, grassroots partaking, efficiency, and accountability in decision making and service delivery. Flexibility and innovative administration could reduce hierarchy and administrative rigidity thereby enhancing the efficacy of public administration. The public administrative field could also undertake the training of administrators in professional study schools so that experts are created. Such schools ought to emphasize upon social sensitivity and administrative ethics.

1.5.4 The First Minnowbrook Conference

In 1968, Minnowbrook conference was held for addressing the social concerns of the society and the role of public administration in responding to these concerns. It was open to young scholars in the field. The public policy approach can have a considerable impact on the quality and worth of the government in the eyes of the citizenry. In addition to social equity, economy and efficiency, the field should also look into the ethics, values, sensitivities, integrity, honesty and responsibility in service delivery as the defining features of public administration. The fluid nature of decision making is also important. Sometimes government agencies outlive their need and significance and thus have to be replaced with new forms or some cutting back of government agencies should be done. Growth and development is

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important but it is also important to give prominence to change or managing change in society and responding effectively to change. The conference focused on the need to involve the citizens in the administrative process through their active participation in formulation and designing as well as implementation of policies. There is need to eschew hierarchy. Pluralistic and decentralized mode of administration will go a long way in rejiggering the field of public administration.

1.5.5 The Second Minnowbrook Conference

The second Minnowbrook Conference was held in 1988. It was the changing role and nature of the state, amidst the expanding privatisation of governmental services, the trend of outsourcing and the increasing presence and influence of the non-state sector that again some change was needed in the public administration field. As the state has to grapple with new forms of interrelated problems which are local, national and even global in scope, public administration has to reorient in terms of the dialogue, facilitation, collaboration and inclusion of a number of stakeholders to come to an optimum solution. The study of public administration is highly relevant in this as it has to change its curriculum accordingly and instil or incorporate the spirit of negotiation and communication skills, interpersonal skills for better and responsive administration. The second Minnowbrook conference also took cognizance of the democratic processes and the need to employ democratic methods in fulfilling the administrative tasks. The representative government has a responsibility to ensure positive action is taken by public officials in their duties. Apart from efficiency, economy and social equity, democracy is also an important ethical requirement in delivery of public service. All public officials have a duty to advance the democratic ideals and processes in their day to day working. Lastly, the conference sought to equalize public needs with the provision of resources. There should be a proper equilibrium in the resources that are committed to the recuperation of the public needs and solving public issues and the requirement of each situation. In any case the wastage of resources should be avoided. This can be achieved with a ground level reality check and open and inclusive bureaucracy. Dialogue, participation and consensus of the citizens as beneficiaries and public officials as providers can save time and resources from being wasteful.

1.5.6 The Rise of New Public Administration

In sum, the new paradigm that emerged as the New Public Administration embodied the five major goals namely social equity, values, relevance, change orientation and client orientation. In terms of social equity, NPA advocates for making public administration more sensitive to societal problems and the social transformation that may be achieved via fair treatment and more equality in the provision of core public goods. The values part was to take care of the normative ideals of freedom, liberty, equality, justice, fairness, rights and human dignity amongst other ethical and moral values. These values should underpin the administration so that the cause of the underprivileged and the disadvantaged is promoted to the best level. The need for relevance arose as a result of the pressing problems of the society that need context specific and tailor-made solutions rather than generalized solutions. The administrative action has political and

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administrative implications that have to be dealt with relevant response. This would require a radical changeover of the curriculum of public administration taught in universities so that it is in line with the critical and changing realities of public life. Lastly, the change orientation and client orientation were emphasized to instil innovative and creative pursuit in the field. The administration is an instrument of change and the administrator is the change agent. People are the main beneficiaries and there has to be client orientation to serve them better. An administrator has to be receptive to change. People's participation is one way in which administration can reorient itself to become client oriented and citizen oriented.

1.5.7 New Public Management

Today, NPM has become a typical drug for the poorly functioning community sector from corner to corner of the world. However, it is very difficult to pin down the careful meaning of the term as a whole lot of clarifications are available, fluctuating from a whole-hearted appreciation of it as a brand-new mantra of resuscitating public sector to one of total refusal. Christopher Hood, a foremost exponent, has nicely summarized the dilemma that one would invariably happenstance in dealing with the subject: *Despite its ambiguity, NPM elicited strong and diverse reactions among bureaucrats. Those who believed that NPM was the only solution to address the "old" public management's irreversible failings and even moral insolvency were at one extreme. 'At the opposite end of the spectrum were some who saw much of NPM's aim as complementary and philistine annihilation of more than a century's labour in creating a distinctive public service ethics and culture*,' he continues. Disrobed of all jargons, NPM can be regarded as a novel group of public-sector managerial trials that have been updated with business-oriented values of cost - efficiency in order to make the inefficient public sector more effective. It was mainly a late 1990s growth in the public sector organization that collected much steam with the re-discovery association and governance conversation in 1990s.

Dissimilar to the old-style Weberian and Wilsonian epitome of public administration, The three E's—Efficiency, Economy, and Effectiveness—require a model and a substantial shift in public sector management under NPM.

Furthermore, in order to restore the public sector's dwindling trustworthiness, NPM advocates for the liberal application of market ideas in public service delivery. In fact, it is advisable and suitable to see it as an extension of the creativities of public sector reform arching around the vast expanse of the Western parts since late 1980s. Mark Bevir, in an edited volume, has advocated the fact by assigning NPM as 'first wave of public sector management'. Christopher Hood thinks NPM as '*a marriage of opposites'*, of which one associate being the new-fangled formal economics, while the other is '*a set of successive waves of business-type managerialism'*. NPM is actually proposed to make a unwelcoming inroad in the field of 'sheltered bureaucracy' and substitute it by an added flexible, market-based public administration. Beneath NPM, a whole set of new terminologies like managers, service providers, and customers are factory-made to distinguish it from its precursor. In sum, it depicts a semblance of a public administration well-versed

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with least government, de-bureaucratization, devolution, delegation, regionalization, and business orientation of public services, contracting out, privatization, functioning dimension, and so on.

The derivation of NPM can be traced towards to the administrative reform actions in the West, to be more precise, in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) group, of nations from late 1970s (Hood 1991). Christopher Hood has uncovered that the emergence of NPM was concurred with four 'administrative megatrends':

1. *efforts to slow or reverse government growth in terms of unreported public spending and staffing;*
2. *a shift toward privatisation and semi privatisation and aside from essential public institutions, with a renewed focus on subsidiary in service provision;*
3. *the advancement of automation, particularly in IT and in the production and delivery of public services; and*
4. *the extension of a more international schedule, progressively focusing on general issues on top of the previous practise of individual country specialisations in public administration, of public management, policy design, choosing styles, and intergovernmental collaboration.*

However, there is barely any consensus among the scholars concerning the appearance of NPM. Virtually, a host of matters are held accountable for such a paradigm change in public sector management. For investigative convenience, we can identify those issues under four heads:

(a) retreating credibility of state or the public sector;

(b) the appearance of New Right Approach;

(c) advent of post-Weberian, post-Wilsonian bureaucracy; and

(d) administrative changes in sophisticated Western countries.

1. Retreating credibility of state: Since the late 1970s, the state's role as a key distributor of social justice has been increasingly questioned across the realm. The public attitude was in opposition to the government's poor performance in practically every sphere - social, political, and economic.

2. Emergence of New Right philosophy: New Right philosophy is measured to be a prime agent for this recent spate of public sector improvement and the emergence of NPM. Usually, it is used as an umbrella term, housing a whole range of ideas and theories relating to free market, individual liberty such as the radical right, libertarianism, Reganomics, supply-side economics, monetarism, Thatcherism, and so on, under its head. It came into fashion in late 1960s and early 1970s under the instruction of Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher. The New Right philosophy pursued to test Keynesian demand management and the equal welfare package it assigned upon state. The New Right challenge, as correctly put by David G. Green, is not exclusively guided against the public policy-makers as it

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is often so observed. Rather, it takes on the whole variety of social sciences like economics, sociology, and political science.

Apparent alteration among its supporters notwithstanding, the New Right philosophy in general has been very much cynical about the role of state in a given society. For them, state participation per se '*leads to increasing domination, increasing budget and overpowering of entrepreneurial behavior, restrictive choice, overrun of unwanted services and reassurance to waste and inefficiency*' (Ghuman 2001).

Hence, they propose a six-point reform agenda, namely, deregulation, privatization, the decrease of inflation, lower taxation, cumulative role of taxation, and increasing role of market forces in the delivery of public services (Ghuman 2001).

3. Emergence of post-Weberian/post-Wilsonian idea of public administration: The altering contour of public administration, especially the changeover from the traditional Weberian bureaucracy to one of post-Weberian type and the practical denial of Wilsonian politics-administration dichotomy has gestured a steady and understated change in public sector management. The post-Weberian/post-Wilsonian avatar of public administration pursued to usher in an altogether new pattern epitome of public administration enlightened with democracy, efficiency, flexibility, and free stream of communication.

4. Administrative modifications in advanced Western countries: Recent disparities in the form of governance in progressive Western countries have also enhanced to the development of NPM. In the sophisticated Democratic nations, public sector management has changed dramatically since the late 1980s and early 1990s.

'(a) structurally from a rigid, hierarchies, and administrative form of public management to a flexible market-based form of public management; (b) substantial change in the role of government in society; and (c) a huge change in the citizen–government relationship,' as Mohit Bhattacharya has aptly stated.

Major Components of New Public Management

Christopher Hood, a foremost expert of the field has summarized the doctrinal component of NPM in a tabular fashion. Hence, the essential doctrines of NPM are as follows:

- ***Hands-on professional management in public sector:*** *It aims to give the public sector an extra sliver of professional manager-like freedom.*
- ***Explicit standards and measures of performance:*** *The NPM is in favour of establishing defined performance requirements. To put it another way, the meanings of goals, targets, and indicators must be clearly stated.*
- ***Greater emphasis on output controls:*** *The focus of NPM is on outcomes rather than procedures.*

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- ***Shift to disaggregation of units in the public sector:*** *The National Performance Model (NPM) aims to break up previously gigantic public-sector organizations into 'manageable' components. It also calls for the "unbundling of U-form management systems into corporatized units around products, functioning on decentralised one-line budgets, and dealing with one another at arm's length."*
- ***Shift to greater competition in public sector:*** *On principle, NPM is in favour of instilling a competitive spirit in government-owned businesses. Because of this, competition lowers the cost of a product or service while also ensuring efficiency.*
- ***Stress on private-sector styles of management practice:*** *In order to save the struggling public sector, NPM emphasises the use of well-established private-sector management technologies. Since ranked bureaucratic management has been shown to be ineffective in the public sector, NPM advocates for liberal plagiarization of private sector management techniques.*
- ***Stress on greater discipline and parsimony in resource use:*** *Finally, NPM seeks to impose more discipline and economy in reserve utilisation by a number of actions, including cutting direct expenses, improving labour discipline, resisting union demands, limiting compliance costs to businesses, and so on.*

Another specialist of the field Nicholas Henry has recognized 'five fundamentals' or five A's of NPM:

- ***Alertness:*** *State administration ought to cobble together the problem and act before it actually hit the system, not the other way round.*
- ***Agility:*** *State administration ought to be nimble in the sense that it should be 'entrepreneurial, transparent, and communicative.'*
- ***Adaptability:*** *State administration ought to be always working to improve the quality of its programmes and services and, as a result, adapt to changing demands.*
- ***Alignment:*** *State administration ought to collaborate with other state administration, non-state administrational, and civil society organizations to achieve social goals.*
- ***Accountability:*** *The objective of state administration should be obvious and captivating, focusing on the demands of the people.*

Another leading exponent Patrick Dunleavy has specified three key components of NPM, namely, disaggregation, competition, and incentivization. For the sake of operationalization, Dunleavy has further fine grained the constituting portions of above components.

Disaggregation means dividing up public bureaucracy into smaller components with inherent emphasis on flattening of hierarchies and 'flexibilization' in personnel, IT, procurement, and so on. Under this component, a host of elements

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have been identified, namely, '*purchaser–provider separation, agencification, decoupling of policy system, growth of quasi-state administration agencies, separation out of micro-level agencies, chunking up privatized industries, corporatization and strong single, organization management, de-professionalization, improved performance measurement, and so on.'*

Competition refers to the competition that NPM seeks to imbue among the potential providers. It comprises among others quasi-market, voucher scheme, outsourcing, compulsory market testing, intra-government contracting, public/private liberalization, liberalizing, consumer-tagged financing, user-control, and so on.

Incentivization favors delivering pecuniary-based specific performance inducements for augmenting productivity in organization.

This component has also several composing elements as well, namely, '*re-specifying property rights, light touch regulation, capital market involvement in projects, denationalizing asset ownership, anti-rent seeking measure, deprivileging professions, performance connected pay, private finance initiative, private–public partnership, joint rate of return and discounting, appreciating public sector equity, obligatory efficiency dividends, and so on'* (Dunleavy 1991).

In sum, NPM is portrayed as:

... a normative conceptualization of public administration consisting of several inter-related components: providing high quality services that citizens value; increasing the autonomy of public managers, rewarding organizations and individuals on the basis of whether they meet demanding targets; making available the human and technological resources that managers need to perform well; and, appreciative of the virtues of competition, maintaining an open-minded attitude about which public purposes ought tobe performed by the private sector, rather than public sector.

Salient Features of the New Public Management

Using the criteria of the above constituents the following characteristics of the NPM can be identified:

Revamping of organizational structure

NPM intends a thorough organizational revamping so that organizational structure will become favorable for organizational leadership. Organizational rearrangement includes streamlining organizational procedures, leveling of hierarchies, and so on.

Empowerment of citizens

The empowerment of citizens is one of NPM's main trademarks. Unlike the old public sector, NPM recasts citizens as "active customers" who must be kept in high spirits at all times. It necessitates a significant shift in public officials' perceptions of citizens. Until recently, in public sector, citizens were perceived as 'passive recipients' of the goods and services, to be set by the state. It was

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understood that they ought to not have any choice. But, NPM asks for grander freedom of choice of citizens. After Albert Hirschman, the freedom of choice can be formed under three specific freedoms, specifically 'exit', 'voice', and 'loyalty'. Here 'exit' symbolizes the freedom of the customer to recoil from any market transaction; 'voice' affirms that he is able to grumble in a way that will lead to certain changes in services or products proposed; and 'loyalty' is where customer stops with the suppliers, in spite of of the standard of services delivered.

Greater autonomy for public sector manager

NPM argues that public-sector managers should have more autonomy. Unlike private-sector executives, public-sector executives must adhere to a stringent set of laws and regulations. As a result, there is no room for novelty or observation. NPM is in favour of giving decision-making leaders more latitude by defining and providing public managers with more flexibility in personnel policies such as interim appointments, workplace haggling, and so on. (Bhattacharya 1998).

Application of rigorous functioning gauge technique

Submission of rigorous functioning gauging is another hallmark of NPM. The origin of performance dimension as a procedure of value promise has its first powerful support in the Scientific Management Theory of Fredrick Taylor. Even as it has assumed a domestic name in private sector enterprises for a good part of the history now, its receipt in the public sector management is only a new spectacle. A swarm of performance measuring approaches, including as TQM, counter services, citizen's charter, and so on, have gradually become part of bureaucratic phraseology as a result of the 're-inventing government' movement in the US in the early 1990s. However, a caution needs to be announced regarding performance measurement technique. For, requests of performance measurement methods like benchmarking and report card do not certainly of necessity guarantee pure success in terms of productivity in every situation. Sometimes, they are perfunctorily introduced without proper comprehension of the ground actuality or problem.

Disaggregation of public bureaucracy

There is a strange ability of enlargement and overindulgence in public bureaucracy. Officialdom has overstretched its share and eaten away at the essentials of a particular community, according to public choice theorists. Parkinson's famed Parkinson Law has exposed the workings of bureaucratic development. NPM envisions breaking down government departments into agencies that will deal with one another on a user-pay basis. (Hood 1991).

Cost-cutting

The NPM is a strong supporter of the public sector's economy. NPM supports cost-cutting in the public sector, inspired by the New Right concept.

Goal-orientation

Another notable feature of NPM is its goal-oriented nature. NPM is completely dedicated to achieving its objective.

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Quasi-markets and contracting out practice

NPM encourages the use of quasi-markets and contracting out approaches to improve the structure of the government's resource-strapped public sector.

Prominence to managerial support service

NPM requests executive sustenance services in order for public-sector managers to meet their pre-determined goals. A bundle of policies has been deemed jointly acknowledged as human resource management in the realm of managerial support service. The basic purpose is to sketch best talents from the market in the public sector by advancing attractive salary, perks, enticements, and other benefits. Furthermore, NPM also proposes steady periodic skill-improving preparation programming to refine up the driven edge of the man power.

Structural and longitudinal decentralization

NPM trusts in devolved system of governance. It motivates all kinds of structural and longitudinal decentralization.

Implications of the New Public Management

NPM has produced a managerial reform binge of categories throughout the globe. Ghuman has recognized five broad groups of organizational reforms:

1. **Redeployment and downscaling of government:** Though the NPM does not always advocate for government retrenchment, the lavish reshuffle and rearrangement methods it recommends frequently result in government **downscaling**.
2. **Performance-based organization:** One of the direct inferences of NPM for public sector management is to accept performance as the basis of organization.
3. **Creation of Senior Civil Services (SCS):** Under NPM the notion of unified civil service is renounced by separating policy from administration. For operative implementation of policies, NPM planned to contract out service delivery purposes to non-governmental or quasi-governmental organizations and private service providers, keeping the major policy-making functions for core departments to be staffed by veteran public servants. Hence, it endorses forming a cadre of SCS based on inscribed service agreements and somewhat performance-based pay for effective formulation of public policies.
4. **Adoption of private industry executive bureaucratic activities in public sector management:** Another important NPM conclusion is the incorporation of private industry executive bureaucratic activities in public management. As Osborne and Gaebler appeared to have implied, NPM shifted from Kanter's bureaucratic model of flatter (non-hierarchical) and more decided organizational structure to an inventive risk-taking type of governance. Hence, NPM calls for greater interaction between public and private sector management.

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5. **Customer-driven administration:** If there is any apparently positive inference of NPM on general governance, it must be the customer-oriented appeal of administration. NPM, not like the traditional administratively accomplished public sector management, raises citizen as the mainstay of welfare discourse. Customer happiness is considered "the" criterion for public service. Several operational innovations, such as the Citizen's Charter and the Citizen's Report Card, are production plant to resemble citizen choice.

NPM, particularly the way it has been wrapped and marketed, comes under grave challenge. The criticism against NPM is vacillating from questioning its entitlement of pervasiveness to the proclamation of its death. The avowed claim of universal pertinency of NPM as a trusted remedy of any kind of 'management ills' , regardless of culture and contexts is no longer found reasonable. Christopher Hood has counted some main objections: First, despite the initial hoopla and ballyhoo, NPM appears to have simply functioned on a superficial level, leaving all previous flaws and worries unaffected. The only significant shift is in the language and literature used by public officials while speaking in public. Second, NPM's claim to be budget-conscious or frugal rings hollow, given its failure to reduce the cost per unit of provision. According to critics, the net result of NPM is "management aggrandisement" and "rapid middle level bureaucratization of new reporting system," which has harmed public service.

Third, NPM serves the 'career interests of an elite number of new managerialists' under the guise of promoting public good Fourth, NPM's assertion of universal pertinency is also not defensible as different managerial values call for different administrative strategies.

To the other limit, critics like Patrick Dunleavy and others have composed the epitaphic of NPM and announced a post-NPM regime of digital era governance. A few commentators, who are not eager to go that far, have recognized 'one significant shift in the thinking of NPM'. In its earlier Risk-taking Innovative Government version, the stress was on de-governmentalization and denationalization. The government was thought to be slim, smart, and receptive. But bearing in mind the centrality of government in development treatise and nation building, the modern version of NPM highlights on better government, not on less government.

Some critics say that managerialism, in the form of NPM, is a return to F.W. Taylor's Scientific Management ideas. Pollitt, a staunch critic, sees managerialism as a rebirth of Taylor's Scientific Management ideas, which he believes are incompatible with the growth and expansion of organizational behaviour (human relations approach). According to him, the basic thrust of NPM is to set high goals, develop performance indicators to measure progress toward those goals, and differentiate those who achieve 'results' through ability prizes, encouragement, or other incentives. The difficulties of workplace standards, beliefs, and objectives, as well as the similarly complex issues of motivational biases in decision making and inter-institutional mutuality, have far less formal agreement. Pollitt claims that

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throughout the 1970s and 1980s, the norms of efficiency, economy, and effectiveness triumphed over other morality such as fairness, equity, justice, and contribution, which were either ignored or kept as restrictions on the drive for higher production.

To total up, NPM is a development programme that has piqued the interest of both industrialized and developing economies that aims to improve the efficiency, effectiveness, and responsiveness of government administration. However, it is not regarded as a pure blessing. Critics question the private sector's considerable advantage over the public sector, as well as its lack of concern for ethics and other vital issues. Nonetheless, it is certain that an effort is being made to give the public sector a market orientation, accept modern management systems and procedures, reduce bureaucracy and authorize the lowest echelons, and increase people participation in governance. Fairness is equally vital in the administrative sector. Thus, administrative reorganizations and alterations based on the NPM principle are proposed to improve the four Es (economy, efficiency, effectiveness, and equity) by achieving a proper balance among them.

Check Your Progress

9. When was the first and second Minnowbrook Conference held?
10. What are the features of New Public Administration?
11. What are the features of New Public Management?

1.6 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The meaning of the word 'administration' is derived from the Latin word '*administere*' that refers to taking care or looking after or managing and overseeing the affairs under consideration.
2. The two views are integral and managerial. They relate to the nature of public administration. While integral view includes all manual, clerical and management aspects as part of public administration, the managerial view only counts the planning and management functions as part of public administration.
3. The POSDCoRB stands for Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting.
4. Public Administration is a stabilizing force in our society because it provides steadiness and permanency to the system of governance. Unlike the legislature and political part of governance, administrative machinery is manned by personnel who remain despite political change.
5. One primary difference between Public and Private Administration is the profit motive
6. One primary similarity between Public and Private Administration is the organization structure and principles of organization.

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7. Woodrow Wilson meant that there should be a systematic body of knowledge that will be separate from the political influence and devoted to the technicality involved in administration.
8. The present phase of public administration study is marked by the prominence of governance as the technique of administration. It is not only institutional like government but also networked and collaborative.
9. The first Minnowbrook conference was held in 1968 and the second Minnowbrook conference was held in 1988.
10. The New Public Administration is defined by features of social equity, values, relevance, responsiveness, change-orientation, client-orientation, people's participation and efficiency, economy and effectiveness.
11. New public Management has the following features: Restructuring of the organization; Citizen empowerment; Managers in the public sector will have more autonomy; Use of a strict performance measurement technique; Disaggregation of government bureaucracies; Cost-cutting; goal-setting; the use of quasi-markets and the contracting-out technique; Organizational and spatial decentralization; Emphasis on managerial support service.

1.7 SUMMARY

Public administration is as old as the civilized society. There is an elemental feature of every society that is served by public administration. The transition from feudal society to an extended nation state was made possible by policy changes and the forces of centralization and decentralization of administration.

The public aspect of administration gives the subject a special character and meaning that makes the pursuit of public administration very relevant for the working of any nation state.

There are two perspectives on the nature of public administration: the integral view, which considers all actions from manual to managerial, and the managerial view, which considers only planning, strategizing, and managing functions to be part of the essence of public administration. The narrow or POSDCORB view, the broad or subject-matter view, and the prevalent view of administrative theory and application of administrative principles make up the scope of public administration.

The importance of public administration can be seen in its role as the basis of government; as the instrument of change in society; as an instrument for executing laws, policies, programmes of the state; as a stabilizing force in the society as it provides continuity; as it is an instrument of national integration in the developing countries which are facing class wars.

The points of difference between public and private administration revolve around Absence of profit motive; Prestige; Service and Cost; Legal framework; Consistency of treatment; Monopolistic and Essential Services; Market; Officials remain Anonymous; Financial meticulousness; Lower level of Efficiency.

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The evolution of public administration as a discipline took place in six phases namely - The Politics/Administration Dichotomy (1887-1926); The Principles of Administration (1927-1937); Criticism and Challenges (1938-1950); Crisis of Identity (1950-1970); Public Administration as an Independent Discipline (1970 - 1990); Governance (1990 – Present).

With the complexity and changes in the nature and role of the modern welfare state as well as in the context of emerging social problems of poverty, unemployment, economic inequality, social unrest, war and environmental and nuclear threats, there was a need to transform the field of public administration. This was done with the help of conferences and the rise of New Public Administration which emphasized social equity, relevance, change orientation, flexibility, innovation, responsiveness and people's participation.

Today, NPM has become a standard treatment for the world's ailing public sector. Unlike the old Weberian and Wilsonian paradigms of public administration, NPM advocates for a paradigm shift in public sector management based on the three E's—Efficiency, Economy, and Effectiveness. Hands-on professional management in the public sector; Explicit standards and measures of performance; Greater emphasis on output controls; Stress on greater discipline and parsimony in resource use; Shift to greater competition in the public sector; Stress on private-sector management styles of practise; Shift to disaggregation of units in the public sector are some of the major components of New Public Management.

Implications of the New Public Management are Reorganization and downsizing of government; Performance-based organization; Creation of Senior Civil Services (SCS); Adoption of private sector styles of management practices; Customer-driven administration.

Nonetheless, it is certain that an effort is being made to give the public sector a market orientation, accept modern management systems and procedures, reduce bureaucracy and authorise the lowest echelons, and increase people participation in governance. Fairness is equally vital in the administrative sector. Thus, administrative reorganizations and adjustments based on the NPM principle are advised to promote the four Es (economy, efficiency, effectiveness, and equity) by achieving a proper balance among them.

The following are some of the characteristics of the new public management: Organizational restructuring; citizen empowerment; increased autonomy for public sector managers; Use of a strict performance measurement technique; Disaggregation of government bureaucracy; cost-cutting; goal-orientation; use of quasi-markets and contracting out; Organizational and spatial decentralization; Emphasis on managerial support service. To total up, NPM is a improvement programme that has trapped the fancy of the developed and developing countries and directs to make public administration more efficient, effective, and receptive.

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1.8 KEY TERMS

- **Private Administration:** The administration that is concerned with the management of non-government entities.
- **Public Official:** The personnel recruited to serve under the mandate of government in public organizations.
- **Policy:** A principle of action or course of action that is directed towards a goal.
- **Public Policy:** A course of action mandated by the government and is directed towards the fulfilment of a desired objective.
- **Governance:** The processes and interactions or networks that are connected by a system of laws and regulations to govern a social system.

1.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the public aspect of public administration.
2. Give a brief view of the main features of public administration as a discipline
3. What is the meaning of POSDCoRB?
4. What is the difference between integral and managerial view of public administration?
5. Write a short note on politics-administration dichotomy
6. What was the principles of public administration phase?
7. What do you mean by science of administration?
8. What was Minnowbrook Conference I and II?
9. What is the meaning of governance?
10. What do you mean by administrative theory?
11. What is meant by New Public Management?
12. What do you mean by 3 E's?

Long Answer Questions

1. Do you think management principles are applicable in public administration?
2. Why is the need for New Public Management?
3. Discuss the implications of the New Public Management as a paradigm of public administration

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1.10 FURTHER READING

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Unit II Organization of Public Administration

Learning Objectives:

By the end of this unit, learners will be able to:

- Apprehend the various reasons for the need of principles of organization
- Attain an in-depth knowledge of the basic principles in organization
- Analyse the various principles of organization and their applicability
- Describe the role and significance of the types of agencies in an organization
- Differentiate between the line, staff and auxiliary agencies
- Identify the line, staff and auxiliary agencies in administration of India
- Understand the role played by chief executive in administration
- Identify the different types of regimes and their chief executive positions
- Examine the administrative functions related to the position of chief executive

Structure:

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Principles of Organization

- 2.2.1 Hierarchy
- 2.2.2 Unity of Command
- 2.2.3 Span of Control

2.3 Agencies of the Administrative Organization

- 2.3.1 Line Agencies
- 2.3.2 Staff Agencies
- 2.3.3 Auxiliary Agencies

2.4 The Chief Executive

- 2.4.1 Meaning of Chief Executive
- 2.4.2 Types of Chief Executives
- 2.4.3 Presidential Executive
- 2.4.4 Parliamentary Executive
- 2.4.5 Administrative Functions of the Chief Executive
- 2.4.6 Chief Executive in India: Adoption and Practice

2.5 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'

2.6 Summary

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2.7 Key Terms

2.8 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises

2.9 Further Reading

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Administration is a process of organizing, planning, strategizing and implementing the affairs of any enterprise to fulfil a set of goals. This makes the process of organization highly crucial for effective and efficient administration. Each and every organization has to follow certain basic and fundamental standards and norms that navigate an organization towards the most efficient system of organization. These universal and primary patterns have been identified as the principles of organization. The field of administration and management, whether public or private, cannot function without the application of some basic principles to structure, organize, systematize, streamline and arrange the different components. These principles of organization make the study of public administration and public management a meaningful and insightful study that helps organizations to be efficient, well-organized and professionally viable. Just like the principles of organization, there are also types of agencies that look into the different functional and operational areas in making the organization or the administrative and management system to run smoothly. The functions performed by these line, staff and auxiliary agencies add up to give the final wholesome and complete accomplishment of the goals in any organization. Thus, the role of each of these agencies is of paramount importance. Similarly, leadership is also the mainstay of an efficient organization. The task performed by the chief executive in any organization contributes enormously in giving the right direction to the organization and realizing the organizational goals. Different types of governing system – presidential or parliamentary will have different types of functions for the chief executive. However, the overall aim is to ensure the smooth running of the organization and reaching the highest possible level of productivity and efficiency.

2.2 PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

The principles of organization are very useful concepts that standardize the work in an organization. These act as ready references and guides to improve the performance of the organization. The principles of organization derive their origin from the field of management science. Various scholars have provided these principles of organization after a detailed study or experimentation and these principles have been applied universally and accepted as the management precepts or maxims to guide the administrative activities.

2.2.1 Hierarchy

The meaning of the term hierarchy is derived from the Greek terms – *heiros* that denotes sacred and *archein* that denotes to rule or order. The original formulation referred to the order of angels or rule of angels. In the Greek context, it

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was used to describe the ruling structure of the various religious organizations. And this belief in the *'mythic form of administrative organization'* is responsible for the rise of the concept as an important and basic principle for any organization to give it a proper shape and form.

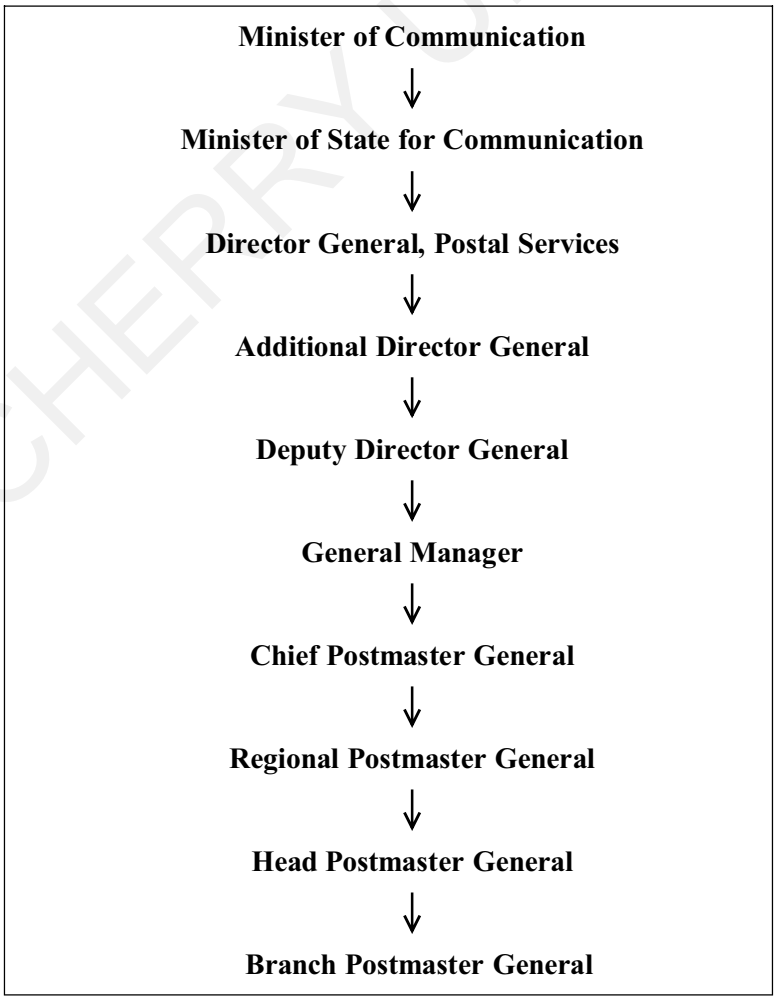
Some definitions of the term are given below:

Oxford Dictionary - *"a body of person or things ranked in grades, orders or classes, one above the other."*

L.D. White, *"Hierarchy consists in the universal application of superior – subordinate relationships through number of level of responsibility reaching from top to bottom of the structure."*

Mooney and Reiley, *"Hierarchy creates pyramidal structure, a Scalar Process."*

The following examples showcase the hierarchy in the departments of postal communication, police administration, and revenue administration and agriculture department administration in India.



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Director General of Police

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Inspector General of Police

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Deputy Inspector General of Police

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Superintendent of Police

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Deputy Superintendent of Police

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Circle Inspector

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Sub Inspector

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Additional Sub-Inspector

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Head Constable

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Constable

District Magistrate

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Sub Divisional Magistrate

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Station Officer

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Tehsildar

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Naib Tehsildar

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Revenue Inspector

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Patwari

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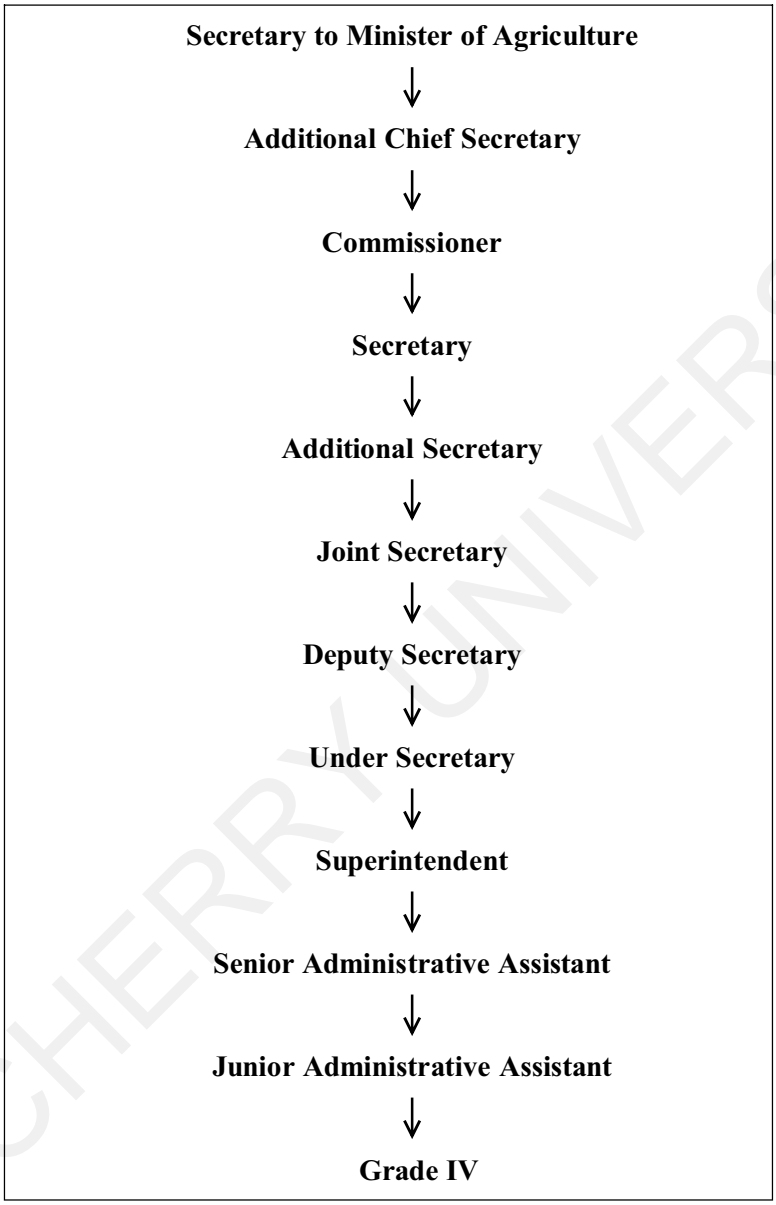

Features of Hierarchy

The hierarchy and the scalar chain in any organization is a very widely and commonly found principle in all types of organization. It might differ in minor way in regional, spatial or temporal context; however, one can identify certain common features. These features give us an idea of the rationale and working of the concept in various organizations as well as a principle that structures the organizational or administrative set-up. The concept of hierarchy has a number of characteristics:

1. The concept of organizing the organizations hierarchically is grounded on the separation of labor or functional specialization.
2. The authority in a hierarchical set up is transmitted from the top level to the lower level till the bottom level in a gradual manner and each level is answerable or accountable to the level above for their work.

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3. Each level or unit has a specific function to perform in the hierarchy of tasks assigned and each level is also given the sanctioning authority and the approving authority to supervise the work of their subordinates.
4. Each level or unit is marked by differentiation and specialization in the performance, functioning, and operation of their roles and tasks.
5. There is an element of impersonality in the hierarchical organization. Whatever rules are made, they are depersonalized and detached from subjective preferences or even names of the people.
6. There is an element of objectivity in the hierarchical system that is the main theme that shapes up and organizes the behavior, relationships and the roles that different members at different levels will be playing in the organization structure.
7. Rules and regulations are also a function of objectivity and impersonality. Whenever the rules and regulations are referred or applied, they are done in a highly neutral and impartial manner.
8. Hierarchy also leads to defining the methods or techniques of conducting the business or work in any organization. As a result of hierarchy, there is a standard principle defined by doing every work 'through proper channel'. There has to be a process through which all levels of the hierarchy get to know and approve the proposal, tender, plan, or scheme. As an established rule of hierarchy, no intermediate stage or level or unit should be bypassed or missed out in any transaction of the official work in the organization. This is applicable in both upward and downward flow of authority and responsibility.
9. The hierarchical organization makes the organization flat or tall on the basis of the number of levels in the organization. It is broader at the base and may go on narrowing towards the upper levels. More employees occupy the lower levels and fewer employees have positions at the higher levels of the hierarchy.
10. It is another standard rule of the hierarchy structure that each official in the structure of the organization occupying a particular place in the hierarchy should have the requisite amount of responsibility to be able to exercise the given authority.
11. The hierarchy levels also signify a changing pattern in terms of the salary, fringe benefits, authority, status, prestige and other privileges and factors that go on increasing successively from lower level to the higher level.
12. There is also discipline and stringency in the organization as a result of the hierarchical organization. The various levels or units are aware of the precise roles and the precise procedures as well as the protocols to be followed in circumstance of any variance or disagreement in views.

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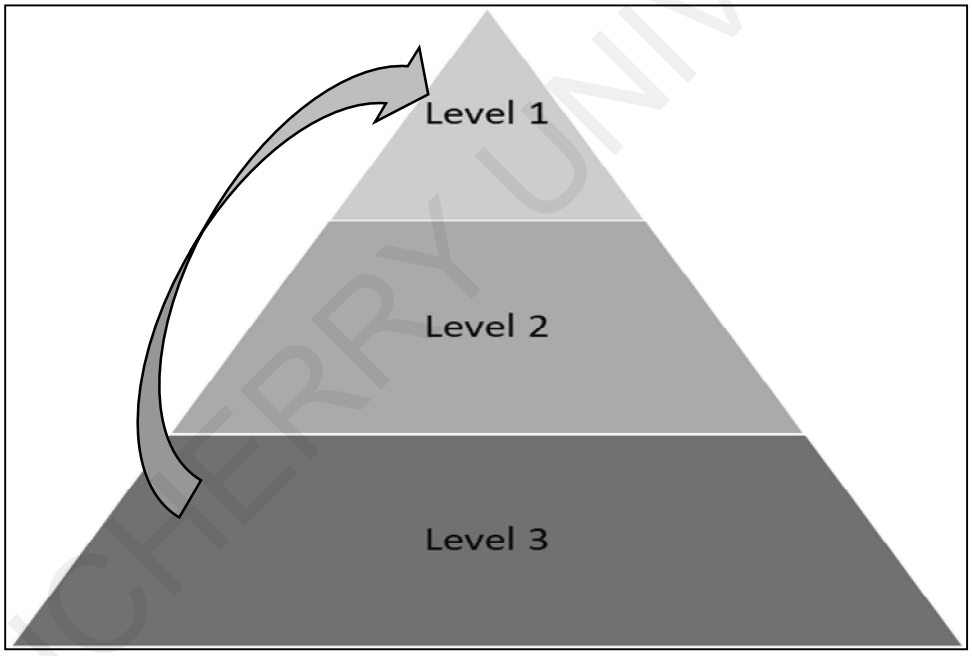
Ways to Overcome Rigid Hierarchy

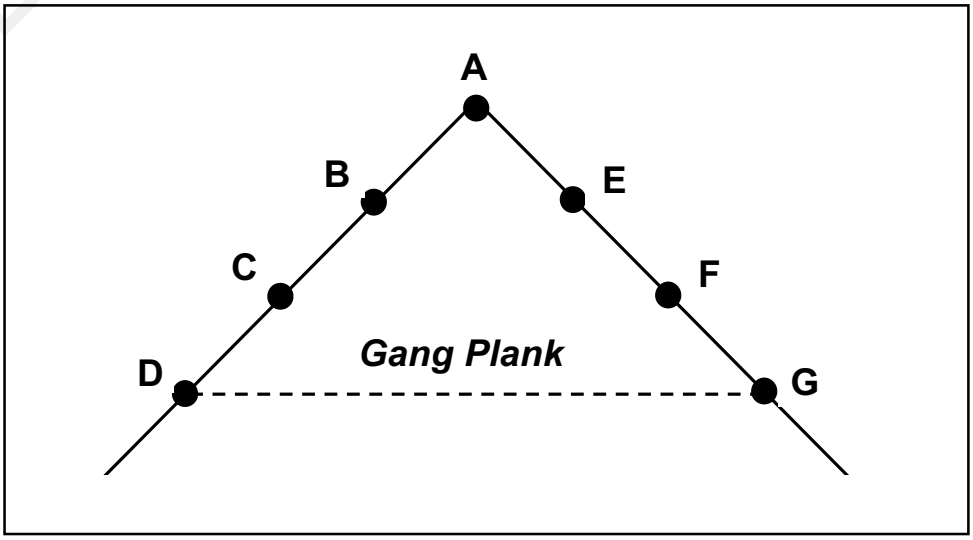
While hierarchy is a very important concept, it is also a concept that has been seen in an adverse light as it instils a high degree of rigidity in the system. It is a system that can make flexible working a distant dream and thus lead to a stiff organizational structure. As a resolution of this problem, scholars have suggested certain ways.

Level Jumping

One or more intermediate ranks may be skipped to hasten the speed of work. This kind of recourse or option can be made available to deal with certain important and immediate work or work that has been subject to delay for a long time. It is the simplest form of overcoming rigidity inherent in hierarchy.



Gang Plank



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The word comes from the movable piece of board or plank that was used to embark or come ashore from a ship or boat. A bridge can be pitched across the authorized official lines of power so that lower ranked administrators coming under one administrative department may form connection with their counterpart members in other departments straightforwardly. This kind of arrangement can be helpful in initiating communication horizontally and making the system less rigid in its working so that the members in one department can assist their counterparts in another department in case of any issue and it will relieve the burden of the superiors. Communication at same level in different domains makes the work and output efficient and less rigid.

Merits and Demerits of Hierarchy

Hierarchy as a principle of organization has a number of merits and demerits.

Merits of Hierarchy

The many units from top to bottom in an organization are systematically linked and connected as an integrated system. The hierarchy will keep the organization adhering to a proper orderly and methodical system that eases the working pattern.

As each level or unit is clear on the responsibility, role and purpose, it greatly helps in fixing the duty and accountability in the line of authority that runs through the organization.

The hierarchy in any organization keeps the flow of communication easy as it is always clear who is supposed to convey the instructions and orders and directives and who is supposed to report to whom in the system. The communication process is very clear-cut and well-defined.

The more hierarchy is maintained, the more it reflects the work division or specialization that is there in the operation of routine and daily operation of the organization. This is helpful in enhancing the efficiency of the organization as a whole.

In terms of relevancy of information also the concept of hierarchy is helpful as it filters out the unnecessary information and only the most significant or relevant information is conveyed to the top-most decision-making authorities. All the unnecessary and non-essential information, facts and figures about any issue remain in the lowest levels of the organization and thus save the time of the higher officials in managing affairs.

Lastly, the hierarchy present in any organization is very important in helping the organization to reach consensus as it serves as an innate mechanism to bring everyone around a particular decision as the matter passes through almost all levels of the organization.

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Demerits of Hierarchy

The presence of hierarchy might lead to delays in work including stays, deferments, rescheduling that can hamper the agility of decision-making in matters of importance in the organization.

The rigid lines of authority and the top to bottom superior-subordinate relationship is not conducive to the development of humanistic approach or team building or group work which can also affect productivity in the system.

As hierarchy maintenance demands that each matter goes through all the levels or units, this greatly adds to the time required to accomplish or finalize any task and gives rise to lulls and holdups in the disposal of work.

Conforming to details and protocols and formal procedures at each and every step or stage leads to rise of illegal means or red tape and corruption in the system as some people would be tempted to give and take benefits or bribes in return for speeding up the work or moving the files or fulfilling the procedures with ease.

The presence of hierarchy in the system might inhibit or stem the enterprising and initiative-inducing drive amongst employees. The participation of lower levels in decision-making is near to nothing that can make them dissatisfied with their work and dissociated from the vision and goals of the organization.

In times of emergency, the need is to adopt a more flexible system of ruling and making decisions and an adaptive mindset with the changing times. However, the excessive specialization and formalization does not allow for flexibility and adaptability.

Hierarchical systems of organizing the administration does not leave enough scope and space for the diverse interests of the many stakeholders and runs counter to the spirit of participative or collaborative governance.

2.2.2 Unity of Command

In the domain of organization and the ideas for organization, the principle of unity of command was given by Henri Fayol. As your profession progresses, you can locate that you do fewer technical duties and spend greater time guiding a group or making plans and strategy. While it's regularly given today, in the nineteenth century maximum groups promoted the great technicians. But Henri Fayol diagnosed that the capabilities that made them right at their jobs failed to always lead them to be right managers. Fayol highlighted the variations between social control and technical skills. What"s more, he was one among many of the primary individuals to acknowledge that "manager" should be a profession – one whose skills got to be researched, schooled and developed. In this context he called for a separation of the roles and command structure of manager and the worker and that one worker is managed by only one manager.

When we say a vital management theory, unity of command plays one of the foremost roles in channeling the staff to work in a convenient, enthused, and result-driven manner. The unity of command is one amongst the fourteen main notions

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that emerged for the true and accurate management of an organization. The concept has been aptly employed in the various organizations of the industries that cater to the domains of healthcare, military, government establishments and even the private sectors. This explicit principle is applied everywhere around the globe within the times by completely dissimilar establishments ranging from army and other management bureaucracies likewise. From little businesses to giant corporations, all and sundry seems to be operationalizing these ideas and notions in their routine work, and the outcomes are principally positive too.

The most pertinent reason why it's so popular in management field is owing to the fact that it aids in the establishment of a correct line into the management of the business or the corporate structure that is one of the fundamental goals for the businesses these days. Well, in keeping with the principle of unity of command, a subordinate ought to have only one supervisor to whom one is answerable for all the actions and this leads to the curtailment of clashes in the team of supervisors over the authority and control. Additionally, a number of supervisors leads to a sheer misuse or dissipation of ability and vitality.

Definition

Unity of command means a worker ought to obtain orders from one superior only. In different words, no worker ought to be subjected to the orders of multiple heads or bosses. Thus, it stands for solo boss for everyone or mono-command. Various scholars have given the definition of this principle of unity of command:

Henry Fayol: *"For any motion whatsoever, a worker ought to obtain orders from only one manager or director."*

Pfiffner and Presthus: *"The idea of unity of command calls for that each member of an organization ought to be accountable to only one leader."*

Dimock and Dimock: *"A corollary of chain of command is the unity of command, the precept that every worker ought to have most effectively only one boss."*

Unity of Command and Unity of Direction: Key Points of Variation

The distinction between unity of command and unity of direction is sketched clearly on the bases given below:

A principle of management put forward by Henry Fayol, stating that one worker ought to get orders from and report back to only one boss is the unity of command. On the contrary, a management principle which means that each one having the undertakings with an equivalent objective should be led by one person as per one set up is the unity of direction.

Unity of command steers clear of subordination from multiple supervisors. Conversely, unity of direction avoids overlapping of activities.

Whereas the most primary focus of unity of command is the single employee, the main target of unity of command is the complete organization.

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The philosophy of the unity of command ends up in the effectual and efficient working of the subordinates. On the other hand, the principle of the unity of direction brings about the coordination of the labour of multifarious employees.

Unity of command specifies a connection between superior and subordinate. In contrast, the unity of direction shows the connection of activities, as per a structure plans and goals.

Unity of command is desirable for a company so as to fix the responsibility of every subordinate within the quest of collective goals of the organization. Unity of direction is needed for thorough going and all-encompassing organization of activities.

Advantages of Unity of Command

Improvement of Relationships

Once a corporation makes use of this notion, then it assists the organization in attaining certain exact and accurate connections with the juniors or lower ranked of the company. Since workers are going to be liable to solely one person, there will not be any rows in authority and power too. Therefore, one can say that this notion helps within the establishment to advance and elevate the skilful and proficient relationships within the company that is in essence necessary to form a positivity culture that the business is conducted in the pursuit of success with clarity of roles for all.

Liability, Power, and Responsibility

With the assistance of the concept of unity of command in the organization, one can be sure of a higher sense of right and duty obligation between the numerous vertical positions of the employees. Not just that, there will even be singular liability and answerability for the activities and work actions that are undertaken by the workers or the groups which are operating in the numerous diverse agencies associated with the establishment. As there is only single person below the other, consequently the authority and responsibility is fittingly distributed too.

Work Replication is Nil

The unity of command principle collectively as an operating principle ascertains that there is no doubling of any kind of work. This is ensured by the individuals in numerous levels of the operating force that are given some work to be done individually and so it is not possible that two people can work on same activity as it often happens in a team.

Agile Decision-making

With the assistance of unity of command, the corporate decision-making can be very quick and prompt. This is because this will not create any ego clashes or tensions between the supervisors. When it involves the achievements of an organization, the pace in deciding is extremely necessary to attain greater and quicker success. In using the unity of command notion in the company, the procedure part of the making of important decisions is made easier by manifold

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since there is nobody else to question or counter the authority and therefore the final decisions are a lot timelier and swifter.

Restraint and Control

Inside the organization, discipline is one of the notable and necessary aspects that one must look into. This specific principle of unity of command helps in bringing about the discipline that is best suited to the responsible operation of the organization as the superiors can effectively control their subordinates.

Enhanced Productivity and Positivity

The unity of command principle furthermore marks clear-cut and guaranteed that the workers or the staffs have an optimistic perspective towards their work and that they don't fear or dread responding or answering to several individuals at the same time. This emboldens a form of positive productivity in the atmosphere within the company that eventually guarantees a lot of fruitful outcomes for the companies.

In sum, its observance is critical to keep away from misunderstanding and bewilderment in organizations. Dualism or assortment of command maintains that worker is under confusion – whose instructions to obey and what instructions to obey. A subordinate also can play off one advanced towards another, which undermines organizational purpose. However, single boss-single worker shape isn't viable in complicated organizational situations. Inter-relationships exist within the department. The subject or issue is mostly inter-disciplinary and calls for extraordinary specialized spheres, names to work or operate together - professional, technical, personnel, financial.

2.2.3 Span of Control

The principle of span of control is a basic and fundamental concept that applies in management and administration of various organizations. The span of control is another name for span of management, span of authority, span of responsibility, or span of supervision. The span of control in government administration refers to the number of relatively low officials that an upper-level professional can successfully control. The principle is applicable in case of control, supervision, direction, guidance, command, regulation, order and instruction.

In other words, the concept of span of control is very much related to the type of hierarchy in any organization as the number of lower levels and upper levels is set by the nature of hierarchy – whether it is tall or flat. The greater the number of people under the control of an upper-level official, the wider will be the span of control. The lesser number of people under supervision of an official signifies a narrower span of control.

In the words of Dimock, span of control is *"the number of ranges of direct, routine communication interactions between an enterprise's top executive and his key fellow-officers."*

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Relation between Span of Control and Span of Attention

The idea of span of control is predicated on the notion of attention span. In Psychology studies, V.A. Graicunas explained the concept of span of attention. Psychologists have run a lot of experiments in the area of 'Attention' and have come to the inference that ordinarily a person can focus on or pay attention to only a certain amount of items at a time, and not beyond a certain limit.

In public administration, it is observed and opined that there is a constrain to the total figure of persons in numbers that which a superior officer can control or manage or administer in effect. It is detrimental for the organization if the number of apprentices and dependents to be supervised by a superior officer is augmented beyond that limit.

Features of Span of Control

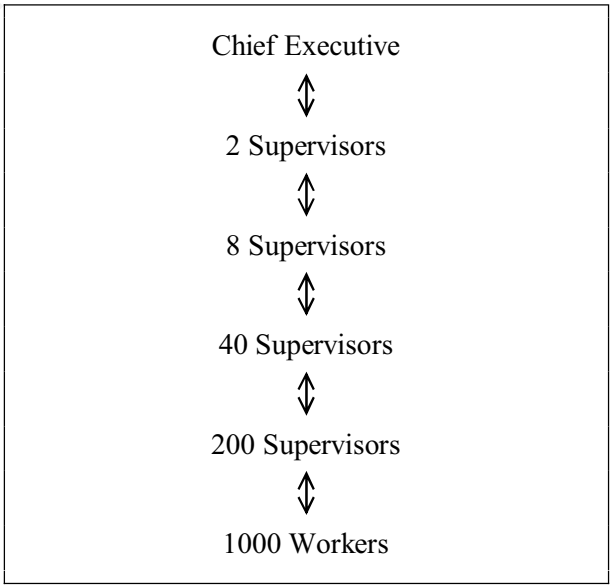
The notion has developed as an expected and natural upshot of the principle of hierarchy or scalar chain system of management and administration.

The number of levels that a company should have is determined by the total number of people at the bottom who need to be managed and the number of workers that each superior officer can successfully manage.

The value and worth of the work of any organization is influenced by the effective control and supervision that is carried out in the organization. Thus, the concept of span of control is the best tool.

If a higher officer is required to control a big number of individuals than he can truly control, the outcome is lags, delays and wastefulness.

If the span of control is five levels in an organization with 1000 people at the lowest level, the company should have six levels:



It is impossible to establish a standard number indicating the breadth of control in administrative theory or practise. Nonetheless, there are some issues on which everyone can agree. At the outset, it is concurred that a span of control does

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exist at every single stage of supervision and it can't be overused without risking a meltdown. L. Urwick, citing V.A. Graicunas, believes that if a superior adds a sixth junior to his five juniors, the extra aid and support he can gain is merely 23 percentage but rise in the direction and control may well measure 100 percent. The reason is what has to be overseen and managed is not just the singular subordinates but also the plentiful vicissitudes and combinations of their shared relationships. So, span of control exists comprehensively.

Factors Affecting the Span of Control

Techniques of Supervision

The boss's supervisory techniques have an impact on the span of control. Because subordinates do not require diligent and severe monitoring, the span of control will be broader if the techniques of supervision are consistent and uniform. Where the supervisor's clear counsel is engaged, the range of control will be reduced.

Space

The location of work is suggested by the space. Regulation, command, and direction become easier and quicker when workers are housed along with the boss. But when they work at diverse places, management becomes tough as they flee his/her private attention. The distinction is sketched by Urwick concerning 'direct supervision' and 'access' to the boss which is relevant for span of control. While an official can in a straight line administer only a restricted number of persons, he/she can initiate elasticity in the organization by allowing many workers and staff members to approach him/her.

Function

Function denotes the kind of the work to be presided over. When the task is of a regular, rhythmic, quantitative, and repeatable nature, the span of control is greater than when the job is of a different kind. For example, it is easier to monitor a large group of typists because of the nature of their job, but this will not be the case if scientists, engineers, teachers, and typists, among others, must all be monitored at the very same time.

Time

Time signifies the oldness of the organization. In old and time-honored organizations, performances turn out to be seamless and stuffs get steadied. Such organizations run themselves well through swift supervision and bigger and better span of control. However, in newer and younger companies, models will be rare, and unique challenges will necessitate recommendations on a regular basis of upper-level officials. Thus, subsidiaries depend greatly on the higher-level officials and the span of control is limited.

Personality (Supervisor and subordinates)

Personality stands for 'the sum total of all the traits of human behaviour'. It comprises bodily and scholarly abilities of a person. If the supervisor is capable,

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energetic, and intelligent, he can manage a large number of subordinates. Otherwise, he or she will be able to oversee a smaller number of subordinates. Similarly, if a big number of subordinates are talented, energetic, and clever, it is easier to oversee their work. A supervisor can only guide a small number of staff if this is the case.

Delegation of Authority

Decentralization of power has an effect on the scope of control. Some managers keep just a few responsibilities for themselves and delegate or entrust the rest to their employees. They can manage a large number of subordinates this way. Some supervisors keep all of the tasks for themselves and do not delegate them: these superintendents are unable to manage a large number of helpers.

Graicunas' Theory

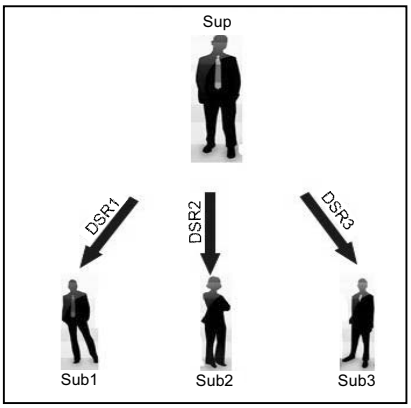
Graicunas was a French management consultant. Vytautas Andrius Graičiūnas (1898 – 1952) undertook his studies at the University of Chicago. For the period of first World War, he worked in France. After 1919, he developed interest in management and unrelentingly pursued his studies at the Illinois Institute of Technology. In 1927 he arrived in Lithuania and worked at workshops and industrial units in Kaunas. Shortly he began functioning across Europe. Till 1935 he operated as a advisor and assisted to create big companies in Barcelona, Brussels, Copenhagen, London, and Milan. During this time, he brought out his definitive study in 1933, i.e. Relationship in Organization. He scientifically and statistically demonstrated that a supervisor should not hold more than four to five subordinates. He devised a formula to state the aggregate number of connections between a superior and his or her subordinates.

He identified the relationship existing between the superior and subordinate as classified in to three groups:

- Direct single relationship
- Direct group relationship
- Cross relationship

Direct Single Relationship

- In this sort of relationship, the superior senior has the straight relationship with his subordinate.
- This relationship is explained with the help of figure given below:



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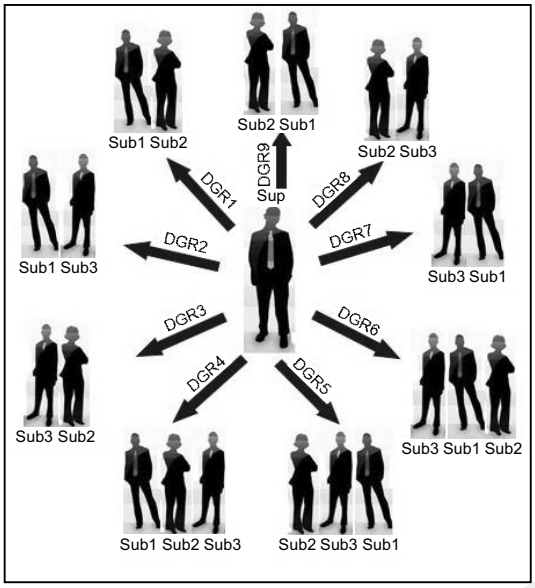
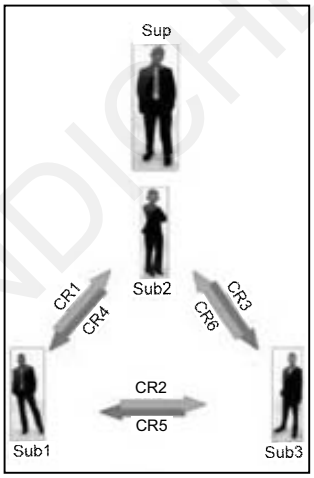
Direct Group Relationship

- In this kind of relationship, the boss has the direct relationship with his subordinates but taken together or jointly.
- This relationship is elucidated with the help of figure given below:



Cross Relationship

- In this category of relationship, a lower ranked official has relationship with another lower ranked official mutually.
- This relationship is explained with the help of diagram given below:



V.A. Graicunas also proposed the undermentioned formulae to find out the number of superiors' and subordinates' connections existing in an organization.

direct single relationship = n

direct group relationship = n(2*n-1-1)

cross relationship = n(2*n/2+n-1)

where 'n' is the number of subordinates

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As per Graicunas, a supervisor can successfully supervise 6 subordinates or 222 relationships.

The quantity of subordinates at advanced level should be 5 or 6, while at the subordinate level a number of 20 dependents is a standard number.

If the concept expressed by Graicunas is final and efficacious or not, if the formulae have believable validity or not, the disadvantage that any increase in the number of employees would unlock complexity in the interactions between individuals and groups has been correctly and relevantly highlighted by Graicunas. This logic must be carefully considered in any consideration of how many workers a supervisor can effectively and practically manage.

Advantages of Span of Control

- augments levels of efficiency;
- makes possible proper inspection and regulation;
- enhances cooperative spirit;
- enables career-oriented motivation and team work ethos;
- enhances seamless channels of interaction and cooperation;
- aids in the agility of activities;
- reduced staff attrition;
- makes the time of higher officials free for important matters.

New Developments

The entire notion of span of control has come under reconsideration during latest years. The growing use of mechanisation, computerization, and robots in management, the information revolution, and the expanding role of specialists are all factors that have contributed to this change. The universalization and acceleration of interactions have been brought about through mechanisation and automated progressions. Thus, lag in administration has been significantly resolved owing to the overcoming of time and distance. Furthermore, automation has been made application of in tabularizing, charting, bookkeeping, buying, classifying and calculation work. Mechanization has enhanced and upgraded stock list, documentation keeping, invoicing and compensation and clerking activities. We live in the digital era, which allows us to provide managers with a wealth of information and exact data at a speed that would previously need the activities of a huge number of people. As a result, in recent times, the scope of control has greatly expanded.

Check Your Progress

1. What are the factors affecting span of control?
2. What was the theory given by V. A. Graicunas?
3. What are the ways to overcome rigid hierarchy?

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2.3 AGENCIES OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

There are following three categories of Administrative Agencies. The Chief Executive is aided by particular agencies in his job.

(i) Line agencies - in a straight line perform out the responsibility of accomplishing the government's central purpose, formulating decisions, and leading, regulating, and maintaining order.

(ii) Staff agencies - support, counsel and help the line agencies in conducting their work.

(iii) Auxiliary agencies - offer general, house-keeping amenities and provisions to all other agencies.

2.3.1 Line Agencies

The Ministry of Railways is a vital part of the Indian government. Its primary function is to coordinate the movement of passengers and products between various places. Every single person involved in the movement of trains, from the Minister of Railways to the driver of a steam engine vehicle, is a 'line' agency in this industry.

In order to perform the chief elemental roles, every organizational structure creates a number of departments or administrative agencies to carry out the government's tasks. Because they are 'line agencies,' these works are referred to as such in a direct line with the accomplishment or achievement of the leadership's fundamental goals They make all major determinations and provide directions in order to put the programs approved by the governmental entities into effect. They are in authority for regulatory, standardizing, aiming and dominating the management. They come often into straight interaction with the public, conduct commerce with residents, and provide public services. They are in charge and have the authority. They have the primary responsibility of executing out the government's responsibilities.

As a result, these organizations are referred to as 'line' agencies. Central Board of Customs and Excise, The line departments of the Indian government include the Department of Education, the Health board, Indian Airlines, and the Public Limited Company, to name a few.

Features of Line Agencies

Carries out the major or primary objective of organizations

Division groups are in charge of the most important things., leading or fundamental goals for which an organization is instituted. For instance, passing on education through coaching is the key role that any institution is established. School education Departments are the 'line divisions' of a higher education institution since they directly carry out this goal. Bank documents, evaluation, and paperwork, on the other hand, are not. in a straight-line schooling and so they possibly will be labeled as "staff" or "auxiliary" units and not line units.

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Decision-making authority

Line divisions have the authority and authority to make decisions, issue instructions, and supervise, direct, and lead the administration. They're all part of the same command sequence. For illustration, everybody in the Police Force is engaged in keeping peace and order, from the Chief of Police to the patrolling policeman. They are all controlled by a single line of command. However, the Police Training College is not a line component since it is external to the line of command and hence, it is a staff entity of the Home Department.

Responsible for execution of government programmes

Line units are answerable for the implementation of administration policies and operation of programmes authorized by the lawmaking or decision-making authorities. Whole policy implementation is completely their responsibility. They craft decisions, discharge orders and command and direct the administration.

Directly in contact with people

Line agencies diametrically transact business with the people, obtain connection with the citizens and deliver them the A teacher teaches instruction to kids, a police officer defends a citizen, and a doctor looks after a person's health.

Similarly, in the government, the School system Department, the medical care Department, and the Agriculture Department all provide customer service to those who are involved.

Directly under the control of chief executive

Line agencies are exactly below the line of hegemony and observation of the chief executive. They are also accountable to the chief executive and the governing body, for example, the Head of a City Administration is a Member who is publicly responsible to the Party Leader as well as the Parliament. Similarly, a public company's Board of Directors is responsible to the administration and the legislature directly. Broadly speaking, there are three types of line agencies that primarily perform administrative functions in the majority of nations across the world. Public Organizations, Public Bodies, and the Independent Regulatory Agency are the three categories (I.R.C.). Because of its unusual statutory structure and political beliefs, the I.R.C. is primarily based in America. Departments and businesses may be found in India, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union, and practically every other country on the planet.

Types of Line agencies

Line Agencies are of three kinds. These are

1. Department,
2. Public Corporation, and
3. Independent Regulatory Commission.

1. Department: The chief executive has direct control over the departments. These are the most basic administrative organizational units, and they are responsible for carrying out key government responsibilities. The responsibility for

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creating, organising, or reorganising a department varies depending on a country's political context and administrative structure. Congress in the United States is in charge of the formation of the government.

In parliamentary governments such as India and England, the Chief Executive enjoys the power to organise and reorganise departments, but in the former Soviet Union, constitutional authorisation was necessary to create departments, which could be eliminated by amending the constitution. It is an old method of carrying out government functions. Departments are responsible for carrying out the government's primary or critical responsibilities. Departmental organization in the Indian states and the central are examples.

Types of Department: Departments may vary from one another in respect to their size, structure, class of work, internal relationships etc. Depending on these, they can be distributed into different types:

1. ***Large and Small Department:*** According to magnitude of departments, there are large departments and small departments. The government of India's military, railroads, postal, and telegraphs departments are important expressions of departments with a significant number of employees, whereas state departments such as local public, etc., are minor departments.
2. ***Single Function or Multi-function Department:*** There are some departments constructed around single compact reason like education, police, and defence. There are other sections which perform multiple functions via their sub-divisions and autonomous organizations. For example, the Home Department serves many objectives like as internal security, citizenship, All India Services recruiting, appointment, and discipline, administration of Union Territories, and matters connected to the Union Public Service Commission (UPSC), among others.
3. ***Nature of Work:*** There are some departments who achieve operating duties like communication department, postal department and the police department. For example, the Cops maintains law and order, as well as the safety and security of residents' lives and property. Others are solely in charge of management and administration. Local self-government in India's states or the Treasury in the United Kingdom are examples of such departments.
4. ***On the foundation of Geographical Distribution of Work:*** There are some departments whose work is mostly concentrated at headquarter and do not have whatever area body in India, such as finance or local authorities. Other departments, on the other hand, are geographically dispersed and rely heavily on supplementary field law enforcement agencies and telecommunications.

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Bases of Departmental Organization

According to Luther Gulick, an outstanding scholar of Public Administration, there are four basis of department organization, these are purpose, process, person, place, popularly known as 4Ps Principle.

1. **Purpose:** The principal goal to be achieved or key service to be delivered is referred to as the purpose. Organizations with a clear purpose are focused on attaining defined goals. The majority of government ministries in India, such as army, schooling, transportation, information, and railroads, are organised around main functions or goals to be achieved.
2. **Process:** Procedure refers to a particular expertise or competence, such as medical treatment, engineering, accountancy, or legal guidance. It is a movement that spans across several functional areas as part of the housekeeping services that are required for the accomplishment of their principal duties. It implies that certain or related operations in a department be brought together. A department of health, for example, would include all medical staff such as doctors, nurses, analyzers, psychiatrists, and bacteriologists. The accounting departments would include all auditors. If other departments want the services of physicians, engineers, or accountants, they must submit a request to them.
3. **Persons or Clientele:** If a unit is established to address a specific problem in a community, the cornerstone of that department is the clientele or people who are assisted. Such departments are multipurpose, providing all or almost all of the services desired by the specific group of people with whom they are concerned. In India, for example, there is a department of tribal welfare in several states, as well as a Ministry of Reconstruction and Minority Issues and a Ministry of Rural And regional development. They deal with all of the clientele's problems and needs, such as education, health, insurance, and general well-being. Clientele-based organizations might be justified on the grounds that some segments of the community require special attention due to the difficulties they encounter.
4. **Place or Territory:** For particular departments, the territory or geographical region serves as the foundation for organization. The reason for creating such divisions is that each region may have difficulties that are unique and peculiar to it, giving it a different personality that must be addressed or managed independently. The Ministry of Railways, for example, is divided into ten geographical regions: eastern, northern, north-east border, south eastern, south central, northern, western, central, and southern. In larger nations, geography also serves as a foundation for governmental organization. India's states, the United States' states, and Australia's states, as well as Canada's provinces and Switzerland's cantons, are geographical subdivisions of their respective nations.

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2. **Public Corporation:** The second type of Line agency is the Public Corporation. The modern state is one of well-being. As a result, the breadth and complexity of its functions have grown. In addition to conventional duties like as health, education, transportation, and communication, the state must also fulfil industrial, financial, commercial, and management functions. Because of their structure and operation, the agencies are unable to accomplish these goals.

   As a result, new sorts of institutions must be created to carry out these duties. This is why the Public Corporation was established. Special public companies are shaped by a statute passed by the government that outlines their powers, responsibilities, and immunities. It has been described by W.A. Robson as "*The most important Constitutional innovation of this century*". The principal benefits of public corporation are its freedom from unnecessary government regulations and controls and its high degree of operational flexibility. It represents a balance between independence and suppleness enjoyed by private enterprise and the accountability of the public as signified by elected members and legislators. In the renowned words of President Franklin D. Roosevelt; Public corporation is "*is clothed with power of government but possessed of the flexibility and initiative of a private enterprise*." Herbert Morrison defines a Public Corporation as "*a combination of public ownership, Pubic accountability and business management*." As a result, it is evident that a public company is owned by the government, has fiscal and operational independence, and performs managerial, industrial, commercial, and financial activities.

Characteristics of Public Corporation

In India, Public Corporations are founded by centre and state governments.

1. **Legal Entity:** It enjoys having its own legal identity as a corporation. It has the ability to sue and be sued, to enter into contracts, and to receive property in its own name. Corporations have more liberty in making agreements and obtaining and placing property than normal government departments.
2. **Financial Autonomy:** In economic factors, public corporations value independence. Except for government annexations to deliver or cushion losses, these are not economically dependent on the government. Government may also permit loan from time to time in accordance with requirement of Public Corporations. But essentially their principal aim is to be self-sufficient in monetary matters.
3. **Staffing System:** Public Corporations' general staffs are not government servants. They are picked based on the terms and conditions set out by Public Corporation. Public Corporation also determines their salaries and other working conditions.

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4. **Established by Law:** Legislation enacted by parliaments or state legislatures recognises public corporations. This statute outlines its powers, responsibilities, tasks, and safeguards, as well as the management structure and affiliations with well-known agencies and ministries.
5. **Managerial Autonomy:** Public Corporations are got along by Board of Directors which possesses independence in day to day management. Only a few policy strategies are released by the government. It has little effect on management difficulties that occur on a daily basis. To perform corporate, commercial, and financial functions, public corporations require such independence.
6. **Accounting System:** It is normally not subject budget, bookkeeping and audit laws and technique pertinent to non-corporate agencies.
7. **Created for Specific Purpose:** Each Public Corporation is recognized by distinct law for some precise purpose. This purpose is labeled in the law itself. It cannot assume any function not ordered by law. For example, LIC Act sanction LIC to take the coverage of Life of an individual, it cannot assume the protection of property or vehicles, etc.
8. **Accountability to Government:** Public Corporations possess independence in financial, personnel and managerial fields but they are also answerable and accountable to the government. Members of the board of directors are employed by the government, and they can be fired at any time. They must work in accordance with the Government's Policy Guidelines, which are updated on a regular basis. Control is also used by the government in the form of yearly reports, records, and other materials proposed by the Public Corporation on a regular basis.
9. **Service Motive:** The chief reason of Public Corporation is to deliver service to people. It is not steered exclusively by profit motive. Profit making is subordinate determination of Public Corporation.

2.3.2 Staff Agencies

The administrative positions have expanded dramatically in recent times. Administration has evolved into a complex and multifaceted undertaking. The quantity of administrative agencies has amplified. Simultaneously the magnitude of administrative establishments has also become very vast. Because of several challenges, the top executive's job has become extremely difficult to do on his own. He has a lot on his plate, and he needs to make a lot of decisions; a lot of letters to respond to; and numerous visitors to see. Therefore, he is overloaded. He has not much time at his disposal. He necessitates opinion and help. He requires relatable and informed info without which he cannot run. Those individuals persons, officers or units which deliver aid, support, guidance and data to the 'chief executive' are called 'staff agencies'.

To execute the basic objective of running trains, Building train stations, enrolling staff, laying down and protecting rail tracks, purchasing train stock, keeping track of counts, and a number of other jobs are all required. These are

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auxiliary duties performed by 'staff' entities such as the Railway Hiring Board, Railway Security Service, Railway Education College, Road Development Division, and so on.

The major purposes are the methods of achieving the primary goals, while the subsidiary activities are the ways of achieving the primary objectives.

Difference Among both 'Line' and 'Staff'

Army management was the first to create the division between 'line' and 'staff' divisions. There are several army units that really engage in battle. They are all in an one chain of authority and are subject to a single authority, starting with the Chief Commander and ending with the soldier. In military administration, the Chief Leader, the major, the colonel, the lieutenant, the coach, the squadron commander, the subedars, and others are known as 'line' officers, and the components under their direction are known as 'line' units. However, if the line units are not provided with a constant supply of food, drink, clothes, weapons, and ammunition, can they fight a war? Will they be able to make it unless proper infrastructure and overpasses are built along the way? Is it possible for them to progress without medical or nursing assistance? Is it possible for a Chief Commander to make decisions if all of the information isn't available? Can they proceed devoid of patient care apprentices? Is it possible for a Supreme General to make choices if he doesn't have access to all of the military conflict maps and other pertinent information?

There are divisions in the military that offer food, apparel, guns and equipment, acute inpatient aids; divisions that continue espionage processes; rifts that contour and retooling sidewalks and overpasses; divisions that formulate maps of front-line areas; and divisions that preserve all relevant and important and current information about the war crisis for military superiors to use. These elements do not take part in actual battles with the enemy on the battlefield. Their contribution is little in nature and is performed out behind the scenes.

Despite this, the army's 'line units' are unable to compete without their assistance. In the army, they are known as 'staff units,' and their role is referred to as 'staff.'

The difference among 'line' and 'staff' units was drawn from army and used to public management successfully.

Staffing Agencies' Characteristics

Perform 'secondary' functions in administration

In all nations, the line agencies accomplish the principal function and the staff agencies achieve the subordinate functions. Their function is cooperative and consultative in nature. In the armed forces The 'line elements' compete and the 'staff units' assist in battle; the 'line units' manage and the 'staff units' assist them with oversight. The term 'staff' refers to a walking stick that can aid you in treading but cannot walk by itself. The line work is a climax in and of itself, while the labour

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of the staff is a 'means' to an end. In governance, both major and secondary functions are important.

Do not order and wield authority

The staff organizations are classified in such a way that they lack authority and weight. They don't write evaluations or issue orders. These are the responsibilities of the 'line.' 'Staff' provides comfort to the line in the execution of command and impact. In generating judgments, the staff advises the 'line.' It has 'impact' rather than power. Nonetheless, in some cases, the staff's 'recommendation' is factored into the equation as highly important. Taking such advise comes out to be vital. Assuming that a person is indeed sick, he goes to visit a doctor The doctor advises him to use a certain medication. In such a case, it is imperative that the affected individual take the prescription prescribed by the doctor. The physician does not have leadership at this moment, yet he wields enormous power. In a similar tone, the staff has clout but not power.

Don't really have any executive authority

The duty of conducting out the management is led by the top executive, the ministers, and the manager in regulation and management. 'Staff' bureaucracies are there to assist them in their job, and they remain in the background.

They aren't in a single line when it comes to judgement. In case the government becomes successful, if it succeeds, the Prime Minister gets the credit; if it fails, he gets the blame. He is held accountable. There is no way to think that any part of the workforce is accountable for the victory or collapse of administration or regime.

Not Dealing with individuals directly

In a single direction, the line agencies interact with individuals and assist the community. Staff agencies provide services to line agencies rather than the general public. They provide support, guidance, and assistance to the line agencies, but they remain in the background. They continue to be unidentified and in the backdrop. In some occasions the staff agencies operate some assigned works and come into interaction with the people in support of the chief executive. Yet in such a case the 'staff' is answerable to the chief executive and not straightforwardly to the public.

Outside the line of command, are attached to line units at all levels

The fall of command and authority flows downhill in any administrative organization, from the top executive via department leaders (Ministers) to senior managers in various sectors. Staffing agencies are located outside of this chain of command. They are allocated to various line units at different levels in the chain of command. They're attempting to match a railroad siding to the main railway line on a railroad track. However, a 'Staff' officer may occasionally be a fraction of the line unit, similar to the secretariat of the Home Ministry being an adviser to the Home Secretary.

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Functions of Staff Agencies

Assistance function

The most vital role of the staff agencies is to support, aid and care for the chief executive and further line agencies in running their work. They toil on for the chief executives and lessen their load, discharge them from the monotonous matters and protect their vitality and time for essential matters. The White House Office in the United States and the Prime Minister's Secretariat in India are two examples of organizations that primarily provide this assistance. These staff divisions serve as the chief executive's additional ears, eyes, and hands. As a result, they serve as a filter and a channel for them. They distribute press releases, send messages, maintain journals, schedule guests, and do a variety of other tasks for the executive.

The role of information

One more key purpose of the 'staff' is to offer to the line agencies the entire applicable information essential for crafting resolutions. Staff has to accumulate, conserve and specify latest information and records. Compilation of information encompasses making inquiries, reading, investigation and reviews etc. The evidence received must be understood, clarified, and presented to the appropriate 'line' commander in a suitable format. In addition, accurate and timely statistical data should be stored and transmitted as needed.

Advisory function

In adding up to making available appropriate info and facts vital for making a choice, the 'staff' is also responsible for providing advice to the top executive or line agencies. They must provide their point of view to the Ministry or Top Executive. The concerned 'line' officer may confirm or deny this facts. However, before making a final decision, the 'staff' is consulted and counsel is sought. The Director of a Ministry provides his Minister his support and suggestions. The Planning Board provides policy advice on planning issues. All 'staff' units' main functions are guiding and counselling.

Monitoring responsibilities

When the chief executive makes a decision, it is the responsibility of the 'staff' to communicate it to the other connected line agencies and ensure that the decision is carried out. The staff units must describe the decision, remove any problems from its implementation, and supervise their efforts on behalf of the CEO. They must plan and coordinate their efforts, maintain touch with all related agencies, and support the chief executive in his goal. In India, the Cabinet Secretariat is in charge of the superintendent position.

Functions that have been delegated

The chief executive occasionally delegated authority to a staff agency. In that case, the staff agency performs given responsibilities on behalf of the top executive within well defined parameters. For example, a Premier Minister's Press Officer issues news releases on behalf of the PMO. The budget is determined by the Bureau of Budget on behalf of the American President, while the competitive tests for

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public servant employment are directed by the Federal Commission on account of the Indian government. Types of Staff Agencies.

Personnel in general

The president and CEO necessitates the counsel and help of a 'general' kind. For instance, there is a copious number of emails that are addressed to him. He doesn't have the time or opportunity to read them all and respond. His assistants will take care of things for him. On his table, he will only save the most important correspondences. He has a lot of discourses and dialogues to deliver. His assistants write the papers for his speeches. He has a number of visitors to see. In this case, his assistants serve as a 'screen and conduit.' As a result, they free up his time and energy for other important matters while also lightening his load. All of this work is of a 'general' or everyday character. 'General staff' is the term for the persons that perform this. The Prime Minister's Cabinet in India and the White House Office in the United States both serve as a model for the 'general staff.' The business and administration of a federal agency, who makes the Minister's recommendations, is regularly a general practitioner and an accomplished administrator. His advice is likewise of a 'generic' or widespread nature. He performs the duties of the 'overall staff' for his minister. Employees of the 'broad staff' are often those with administrative or executive experience and knowledge. They aren't experts in methodology. They can, however, provide 'general staff' assistance and counsel to the CEO.

Technical staff

The chief administrators and all other executives require specialist counsel in numerous stuffs as decision-making commands impeccable official familiarity of the related domain. 'Generalist staff' functioning beneath them do not have pedantic knowledge. Therefore, services of the mechanical staff which consists of specialists like engineers, doctors, monetary experts, economic expert, designers, schemers etc. are needed. This 'technical staff' recommends the chief executive in official difficulties of their arena of speciality. On behalf of the chief executive, they similarly workout mechanical direction over the organizations employed in their arena. If an atomic energy factory is to be founded, a hydro-electric barrage is to be constructed or when an aircraft factory is to be created in such technological matters it is definitely obligatory to refer and get the counsel of the specialists like 'atomic energy scientists', 'design and building engineers', or 'aeronautic researchers'. Choices concerning monetary and fiscal policy necessitates the views of the economists. Likewise, government wants recommendation of 'foreign policy experts' in mounting its foreign policy or that of the professionals in defence and tactical studies to structure its defence policy. The requirement of technical experts in administration is quickly swelling in our country. As the functions of the government are swiftly mounting, the need for technical professionals will linger in future. A big number of experts are already employed for government services.

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Auxiliary Staff

All administrative bureaus have need of definite normal and house-keeping services. For example, all units need building and upkeep of buildings, acquisition of furniture, writing materials and workplace materials, lithography of papers, papers and reports, staffing, instruction and supervision of employees, provision of annual- budgets and fiscal statements, preservation of balance sheet and records etc. These facilities are incident in type i.e. they are not exactly a fraction of the chief activity of the bureau. However without these services it will not be achievable for any organization to perform its principal functions. They are undeniably necessary for all organizations but they are secondary and ancillary in nature. In administration, these services are called 'auxiliary services' and those bureaus or units which carry out these services are called 'auxiliary staff agencies'. The Public Works Department, the Public Service Commission, Auxiliary staff agencies include a Director of Supplies, a Store Section, an Establishment Section, or a Records Section of a major organization. We've discovered that auxiliary agencies provide certain common house-keeping functions to all supplemental agencies and subdivisions. They work in support of the agencies. In their own world of scope they formulate decisions and use authority. They function as free-standing autonomous organizations but as representatives of the line units. They aren't the same as generalist or procedural staffing firms. They do not direct or route the operating units in the same way that other staffing firms do. As a result, some writers, such as W.F. Willoughby and L.D. White, believe that 'supplementary' or 'residence' activities should not be included in the staff services. 'Auxiliary agencies,' as they put it, are not staff jobs. They have not yet been classified as staffing firms.

2.3.3 Auxiliary Agencies

Supporting Agencies are Required

There are various line agencies in any country's decision-making process. All of these organizations do different tasks. All bureaus require daily housekeeping services in order to carry out their primary functions. Auxiliary agencies distribute them to all other departments. It is more suitable and efficient for all departments because all of these ancillary services are prevalent. These responsibilities are forcibly removed from all line organizations and carried out by separate entities. It upswings performance by design, and we reap the benefits of specialisation in providing these common services. It relieves CEOs of their burdens and allows them to devote their time and attention to more important tasks. As a result, independent supplementary organizations have been established in most countries. Designed with frugality, efficiency, and simplicity of administration in mind. The Federal Department, the Finance Department, the Union Public Service Commission, and the Former Director of Procurement and Disposition are some of the Government of India's auxiliary agencies. In the interests of thrift, competence, and convenience of administration, unified auxiliary administrations have been established in a growing number of republics.

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Supply line modules with shared facilities and amenities

Supplemental organizations provide main organizations with common secondary assistance and subordinate facilities maintenance. For example, at a higher education institution, there are varied teaching divisions that teach a variety of courses such as philosophy of science, finance, science, arithmetic, and so on. Books, equipment, and writing supplies are required by each teaching department. This is a standard housekeeping service. Instead of having a separate archive collecting service for every sector, the central library is a common ancillary agency. It purchases and maintains books on a wide range of topics that serve instructors and students in all departments. In turn, there is indeed a 'Stores Department,' which makes public purchases of gear and supplies and distributes it to all locations as needed.

They have limited power and make judgments within their particular domain

Supplementary organizations are independent groups that have some regulated authority and make decisions in their very own regulated operational area. Staff facilities only serve as 'advisors,' not as 'authorities.' Auxiliary agencies, on the other hand, have a 'limited rights' that they use to carry out their tasks. Unlike general or technical staffing companies, they do not have a 'advisory' or 'counselling' role. On the other hand, they work as line agency managers and make decisions on their behalf. A purchasing agency conducts acquisitions by it's own rules and regulations, while the Public Service Commission collects candidates using its own criteria. While organising the spending plan or approving spending, the Finance Department wields authority and control over other departments. As a result, we may argue that auxiliary agencies exercise capacity and make decisions in part. Between the 'line' and 'staff' agencies are the auxiliary agencies.

Be in charge of the operations

The supplementary departments are, in a logical sense, functioning bureaus because they are engaged in the day-to-day operations of government, such as purchases, supplies, and so on. human resources matter, bookkeeping, costing etc. Supplemental agencies differ from other 'staff' agencies in this sense. In the case of auxiliary agencies, good administration is more important than their "advice." All the other line offices will be affected by impediments in the work of the United States Postal Service Commission, the Ministry of Road Transport, or the Internal Auditor.

Not serve the community

Supplemental organizations, in essence, provide services to all departments, but they are not required to provide services to the general public. Line agencies and departments gain from them. They provide a hand and assist the line agencies in achieving their objectives. They serve as the line agencies' vehicles. These organizations, on the other hand, do not provide facilities to the public.

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Have been under the direction of the General Executive or Departments

Typically, the integrated supplementary organizations report to the top executive or are assigned to him. Several government agencies, including the Investment Department, Civic Works Departments, and the Regulation Department, serve as auxiliary agencies. These departments provide auxiliary services to new departments while also wielding influence and authority over the other departments through these services.

Distinction between 'Staff' and 'Auxiliary' Agencies

Staff Agencies	Auxiliary Agencies
1. Staff agencies promote, abet and counsel the line agencies. 'Advice' is a foremost role of 'staff'. 2. Staff agencies do not practice clout and do not craft resolves. They assist and 'advise' the line agencies in building decisions. 3. Staff agencies have no administrator or active responsibilities. 4. Staff agencies are involved with line agencies at diverse levels in the organizational pyramid.	1. Auxiliary agencies offer shared, house-keeping services to the 'line' agencies. 'Service' is a foremost role of Auxiliary agency. 2. Auxiliary agencies use imperfect 'authority' and construct certain resolutions concerning to their own domain of activity. 3. Auxiliary agencies have functional duties in aid of the line agencies. 4. Auxiliary agencies are normally to be found under the chief executive or divisions.

Staff and Auxiliary Agencies in India

Staff Agencies in India

- Cabinet Secretariat
- Prime Minister's Office
- Cabinet Committees
- Planning Commission
- Administrative Vigilance Division in Home Affairs Ministry
- Budget and Economic Affairs Department in Finance Ministry
- Staff Inspection Unit in Finance Ministry

Auxiliary Agencies in India

- Law Ministry
- Ministry of Information and Broadcasting
- Department of Parliamentary Affairs
- Central Public Works Department

Check Your Progress

4. What are the features of line agencies?
5. What are the features of staff agencies?
6. What are the features of auxiliary agencies?

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2.4 THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE

2.4.1 Meaning of Chief Executive

The executive is the branch of government in charge of putting laws and policies into effect. It is made up of numerous administrative bureaus that are involved in the enforcement of laws. "The executive branch of government in Public Administration is a truly visible form," says F.A. Nigro. The chief executive and the civil servants who carry out the laws enacted by the legislature make up the executive branch of government. As a result, the executive position is quite important. The individual or group of people at the apex of a country's administrative structure is referred to as the "chief executive." A country's managerial hierarchy is shaped like a pyramid, with a broad base and a narrowing top that culminates in a single point, the peak. The summit of the administrative pyramid is the chief executive. He or she is a person or group of people to whom executive authority has been delegated for a variety of purposes. In a governmental system, the chief executive is the one or individuals to whom the structure bestows the government's decision-making authority.

The chief executive, whether in a public or private organization, is the person in charge of the most crucial task of running the operations of the organization. Various political and supervisory tasks are combined by the chief executive. He occupies a crucial position in the Department of Public Administration. He establishes the organization's objectives, arranges plans, determines tasks, sorts priorities, seizes crucial decisions, marshals resources, employs staff, harmonises the work of all departments reporting to him, motivates personnel, provides leadership, and oversees plan execution. He understands that the goals of the organization are achieved with the greatest efficiency and the most effective use of resources. As a result, the chief executive's aggressive temperament and personality determine whether a business succeeds or fails.

2.4.2 Types of Chief Executives

The system of Parliamentary head and the system of Presidential head

In nations like India and the United Kingdom having parliamentary system, the chief executive involves the Prime Minister and additional Ministers. The Prime Minister rules the cabinet in such republics. As the cabinet is accountable to parliament under the parliamentary system, there is a long-standing, continuous, and treasured executive and legislative relationship at hand. The President is the highest-ranking executive of a presidential government such as the United States. The Head of state is not an associate of legislature and is not even responsible to it in such a setup. The Head of state can be impeached and removed from office by a majority of the legislature. For example, because the system of justice was established in the United States, the Congress, the President, and the court have evolved into independent units that are self-governing and independent from one another.

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The Symbolic and Actual Chief Executive Officers

In a parliamentary form of government, the nominal or constitutional head is entrusted with a great deal of administrative power, and all decisions are assumed to be made in his or her name. It indicates that the head of state, whether the Monarch or the President, can perform out his sovereignties only on the advice of ministers and without being self-sufficient. As a result, while the Constitution gives the Head of state or the Royal Monarch certain rights, they are not his real powers, and he cannot exercise them without the agreement of ministers. The chief executive here is merely titular or nominal. The tangible executive is the Council of Ministers or the Cabinet to whom the lawful authorities of titular executive go. It suggests that officially he does not have any supremacies but in exercise possesses most of the powers and control conferred in the titular head. In England, the Queen and in India, the President are the nominal chiefs, in name only and in both the nations the palpable executive is the cabinet led by the Prime Minister. In nations like the USA, the President is the true chief executive, as the abilities legitimately conferred in him are likewise used by him autonomously.

Single and Plural Chief Executives

In states wherever parliamentary system of government exists, the unquestionable chief executive is the cabinet which is a pluralist organization. The body group embraces the Prime Minister and several other ministers. The Prime Minister does everything on the recommendation of cabinet. Unlike this, the chief executive in the Presidential arrangement of government is a sole person, the President. Despite the fact that he or she operates under a system of division of powers and adjustments, he or she wields power and demonstrates directness.

The Collegial Executive

This is a unique kind. The Swiss Executive fit in. It exhibits traits of both kinds despite having none of the two types, i.e., plural or singular. The Collegial Executive is the name given to this type of executive. It denotes a synthesis of legislative and presidential core concepts. Like the parliamentary variety, the Swiss Executive is a pluralistic organization consisting of many different members. It is honestly Collegial or Scholastic as in there isn't a single individual in the world who holds a position of power like the Party Leader. All of the organization's affiliates have the same rank and are accountable to the legislature. Unlike the associates of the cabinet and quite like the US President, the Swiss Executive is chosen for a fixed term and not removable for that particular period.

2.4.3 Presidential Executive

The presidential structure is a form of governance in which the decision-making and legislative branches of government are separate yet share uniqueness. The executive and legislature are chosen independently and have non-aligned powers in this structure. According to J. W. Garner, the presidential form of government is "that system in which the executive (including both the head of state and his ministers) is constitutionally independent of the legislature in terms of the duration of his or her tenure and irresponsible to it in terms of his or her political

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policies." The United States is the best example of this system, as it began there and has since spread to nearly all of continental America's states, including Mexico, Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and others. It also occurs in African countries such as Kenya, Ghana, Zimbabwe, and others, as well as in Asian countries such as Indonesia, the Maldives, and the Philippines.

Single Head

In presidential arrangements, a single person, known as the President, wears 'two hats,' i.e., both the ceremonial head of state and the actual head of government, as Andrew Heywood put it. The President is in charge of the government and is responsible for electoral commitments as well as ceremonial duties.

President and Cabinet Members

The President has absolute candidness in the choosing of cabinet members and the formation of government under the presidential order, even though they cannot be sketched from the assembly. The President's cabinet colleagues are hired as policy advisers rather than policy makers, and they are individually beholden only to the President, not to the people or the governing body. Because the President is responsible to the public, he or she has complete authority over the hiring and firing of his or her cabinet members, who do not have policy-making authority. There is personal level executive responsibility in the presidential structure of government in this system, and the cabinet is not as essential as a decision-making body.

Law-making Authority

The executive in a presidential system has less legislative power than the executive in a parliamentary system. The President of the United States, for example, can veto a bill enacted by Congress, but the latter can override a veto with a two-thirds majority vote.. In the same way, the President can mark agreements and accords but such pacts are bound by approval of the Senate. The legislature is a significantly more independent law-making entity than parliament in a parliamentary system due to reciprocal flexibility of executive and legislative divisions in terms of choice, occupancy, and affiliation.

Fixed Terms of Offices

An additional distinctive characteristic of presidential systems is the incidence of fixed terms. Together the President and legislature have static terms of office entailing that neither can customarily eliminate the other sooner than the expiration of the given term. The President is picked distinctly for a fixed term, which diverges from four to six years in miscellaneous presidential federations.

2.4.4 Parliamentary Executive

Two Executive Heads

There are two decision-making heads in parliamentary arrangements: the head of state and the head of government. The state's leader is a symbolic deputy to the state's leader. His or her role is mostly non-political, official, symbolic, and ritualistic, with concrete authority resting with the government's leader. The president of a state can be either one or the other, depending on whether he or she is

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inherited or elected. When we say that in Belgium, Denmark, Netherlands, United Kingdom, Spain and Japan, the president of the state is statutory ruler it means that this locus passes by inherited progression. Conversely, in other countries, such as Austria, Ireland, India, Germany, Italy, and Israel there is chosen by ballot leader of the state appreciated as President or in other words non-executive president. There are two decision-making heads in parliamentary arrangements: the head of state and the head of government. The state's leader is a symbolic deputy to the state's leader. His or her role is mostly non-political, official, symbolic, and ritualistic, with concrete authority resting with the government's leader. The president of a state can be either one or the other, depending on whether he or she is inherited or elected. The leader of government, in contrast, is the partisan leader of government who functions as an actual decision-making in a state. Policy-making and party-political responsibilities are carried out by the government's head. In the United Kingdom, Australia, India, Japan, and most other countries, the leader of state is known as Prime Minister, as Minister-President in the Netherlands, and as Chancellor in Germany and Austria.

Collective Responsibility

The standard of collective responsibility is a further vital aspect of parliamentary systems. This concept implies that the Council of Ministers, as an undivided body, must participate publicly in all government decisions, as well as in the legislature. It means that all members of the Council of Ministers are equally responsible for the government's activities, and that no member of the Council of Ministers may criticise the government's actions after a joint policy decision has been made. Cabinet resolutions are viewed as joint decisions that must be supported by all members. A member of the Council of Ministers who is unable to defend government choices in parliament or in public is expected to resign from the body. This principle promotes peace in the Council of Ministers, as well as poise and restraint, both of which are necessary for Cabinet's long-term viability, efficacy, and utility. When there is an alliance government with Cabinet members from other political parties, this rule becomes significant. Furthermore, the belief in collective responsibility aids in determining what statutory proposals should be officially presented in legislature, allowing the government to easily get these proposals passed because cabinet members are themselves members of legislature and elder front-runners of the majority party. However, detractors argue that communal responsibility is primarily a way of achieving the goal of an orderly party rather than promoting equilibrium and temperance.

Leadership of the Head of Government

For examining the locus of leadership in parliamentary systems, John McCormick, Rod Hague, and Martin Harrop identified three categories of parliamentary government: cabinet government, Prime ministerial government, and ministerial government. The Council of Ministers has broad decision-making authority in cabinet governance. Cabinet meetings are where decisions are made, and the Prime Minister takes the lead in these meetings. Finland has a parliamentary government like this. The Prime Minister is the most powerful figure

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in Prime Ministerial government, dealing openly with individual ministers. Its best example is Germany, where ministers' accountability to the legislature is channelled through the Chancellor's office, which is hired by the Bundestag, Germany's lower house of parliament. Ministers are responsible to the Chancellor for the actions of their individual departments, while the Chancellor responds to the legislature. Ministers in administrative government have autonomy in the departments in which they are heads and, as a result, do not work solely under the control of the Prime Minister or cabinet. This legislative government structure is seen in countries where there is a multi-party coalition government, with ministers who are in fact chosen by the parties as federation associates. In such a situation, the Prime Minister's standing as the head of the alliance government is weakened, as ministers are more loyal to their groups than to the ruling Prime Minister or the cabinet.

2.4.5 Administrative Functions of the Chief Executive

Formulation of Administrative Policy

One of the chief tasks of the chief executive is the deciding and devising of administrative course of action. He releases a number of definite strategy guidelines, on paper or verbal, which permit the administrative bureaucrats to enact their duties in a decorous manner. The chief executive acts as a guide and path provider to administration. He or she is frequently sought out by department heads and other executive officers for sound advice on a variety of important and contentious issues. His abilities and personality have a strict yielding on administrative competency. Only broad decrees are passed by the legislature. They are given characteristics by the executive to make them fit for usage.

Deciding the Details of Organization

The assembly allows for the development of major organizational entities such as sections, agencies, committees, and organizations to carry out various laws. The qualities of an in-house organization, on the other hand, are to be packed in by the CEO. In addition, the chief executive might create new administrative groupings or restructure existing ones. He also advocates for how working employees should accomplish specific functions, if not all of their responsibilities. As a result, the organization's constitution is sanctioned by the chief executive.

Issuing Directives, Proclamations, Orders etc.

With the intention of making any decision truly consequential, it is essential to change it into action, which the chief executive realizes by leading. The chief executive releases dictates, declarations, briefings etc. to make the administrative actions follow to the legal requirements, instructions, broadsides etc. and to help in producing homogeneity in the conduct of people concerned in the execution of policies and programmes. The nature and number of dictates, orders etc. dispensed by the chief executive establishes the tenor of the administration. He has to show the way to the staffs to start or stop or adjust an activity.

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Appointment and Removal of Personnel

It is the duty of the chief executive to check that the leaders of different Departments carry out their duties truthfully and proficiently. Therefore, he also has the authority to hand-pick the officers. Practically, in all the countries the chief executive effects selections to higher offices. In India, the top executive appoints state legislators, diplomats, the Chief Justice, and High Court and State High Court judges. The Public Service Commission appoints officials to various posts based on the results of open exams. As a result, even in circumstances where a general ability process of conscription exists, the chief executive makes strategic nominations. If the chief executive believes it is necessary for the welfare of operational adeptness, he has the ability to remove public workers from office or downgrade them. Firings are subject to strict legal pre-arrangements. The Public Services Rules instruct him when it comes to terminating lower-level employees.

Synchronization of a variety of executive functions

In today's administration, there are several departments, boards, groups, and branches, each of which performs a certain duty. A very unusual degree of harmonisation and assimilation is required to give rise to oneness in this immense mass of varied acts. The top executive must provide synchronisation to administrative tasks, resolve fights, and keep an eye on any imbrication or duplication. He may do so by forming cross-departmental teams and other aligned bureaucracies at various levels. In this way, bringing people along is one of the top executive's most important jobs. It is his primary obligation to ensure that the many actions agreed upon by plenty of parts in the implementation of a certain policy result in the achievement of executive objectives.

Finance Management

As a chief executive, it is the duty to make the budget and present it to the legislature for authorization. He must make complete account regarding previous operations and present circumstances, and to make a declaration regarding forethoughts made for meeting the expenses and costs of the government in the forthcoming period. When the financial plan gets its endorsement by the legislature, it is once more the responsibility of the chief executive to look for its suitable execution and accomplishment.

Supervise, Control and Investigate the Administrative Operation

The chief executive has to ascertain that the public affair is carried on well. He has to oversee the effort and use power over the performing of diverse administrative undertakings. He has to examine the registers regarding the functioning of separate departments. He has to release orders, caution when the labour is not being done appropriately and inspire when it is proceeding efficiently. He can also make investigations to administrative stuff and set up scrutiny committees for the purpose e.g. in India we have the Vigilance Commission, Central Bureau of Investigation formed by the central government. These groups aid the chief executive in his regulatory roles.

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Build an Open Line Of communication

The chief executive has a good working relationship with the rest of the company's divisions. It is critical for the smooth operation of any organization that communication flows from primary to secondary levels and conversely in an understandable and well-defined way. To ensure appropriate communication among employees, the CEO must speed up operational communication among organization colleagues.

Manage Public Relations

Given that Public Administration is eventually accountable to the public, it has at all times to have the people conversant about the character and intent of its activities. That's why, the chief executive operates as the spokesman of the administration by expressing public policies and preserving the public informed on critical administrative evaluations and proceedings from time to time. It is his task to support the administration when there is disagreement between executive and public. He sustains relations with the press, diverse interest factions, electorates and the legislature.

In the organization, he or she acts as a leader

The organization's leadership is offered by the chief executive. He inspires the whole administrative machinery to collaborate peacefully in order to achieve administrative objectives. He should motivate his employees and strive to instil in them the values of hard work, loyalty, excellence, and high efficiency. Employees' thoughts, hopes, and work patterns should all be carefully considered by the boss. His role as a leader is crucial in government because it has an impact on the entire atmosphere in which the bureaucratic machinery operates. As a pioneer, he must avoid rash decisions and haphazard acts, enable control, encourage inventive thinking and resourcefulness, and reduce organizational uncertainty.

2.4.6 The Chief Executive in India: Adoption and Practice

Despite the ubiquitous sound bites for the acceptance of a democratic system of governance for the country, the founders of the Constitution were not hundred per cent certain of the character and type of the executive system, to start with. The circumstances of a straight and accountable government were satisfied by most of the present executive systems of Europe and America from where the Constituent Assembly was vexing to relocate a model in India. Of the three present main types of executive: the British cabinet system, the Swiss elected executive, and the American presidential system, the two that fascinated and enticed the attention of the framers were the British and the American schemes. Though the mainstream of the members of the Assembly were captivated by the parliamentary executive, a few associates, absorbed in delivering for a foolproof defense to the rights of the Muslim minorities amongst the dread of a Hindu majority government in independent India, were competing for the scheme of government acquired in America. Lastly, the Assembly decided upon the attractiveness of having a parliamentary decision-making in which the executive and the legislative divisions of government would labor in complementing the efficacy and efficiency of each

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other instead of working at cross determinations. As A.K. Ayyar argued out, "*An infant democracy cannot offer, under contemporary conditions, to take the peril of a continuous cleavage, dispute or battle or endangered conflict between the legislature and the executive*."

As soon as the broad decision to choose for the parliamentary executive was taken, the work at hand now was to tweak the particulars of the system to make it skillful to the Indian state of affairs. Originally, in the scheme of things planned from numerous quarters, there were proposals of straight election of the President and conferring him/her with definite special tasks in the implementation of his functions. The establishment for an Instrument of Instructions was also recommended to influence the President in the use of his roles and to order him from rotating into an overextending Head of State. Nonetheless, the strangeness of such necessities with the soul of the parliamentary executive was understandable, and therefore, under the encouragements of many members, particularly Nehru , the Drafting Committee set all such propositions on the office of President aside. Lastly, in accordance with the letter and soul of the British governmental system, It became announced that executive power of the Federation will pass to the president. the President who must use such powers in keeping with the aid and counsel of the Council of Ministers, with the Prime Minister at the head, and the suggestion so offered would be obligatory on the President. Therefore, as Jawaharlal Nehru barbed out in the Assembly, '*We want to emphasize the ministerial character of the Government, that power really resided in the ministry and in the legislature and not in the President as such.*'

In terms of functions and roles and responsibilities, the constitutional scheme of parliamentary executive, as developed by the Constituent Assembly, is thought to work in agreement with the printed provisions of the Indian Constitution in addition to the tacit pacts of the cabinet government, as experienced in Britain though all such agreements would not have been included in the Constitution as printed provisions. Furthermore, the understated purpose of the framers, as understood by Austin, in choosing for the parliamentary executive, was to supply 'strength with democracy' to the political scheme of the country, for, as observed by K.M. Munshi, 'the parliamentary system produces a stronger government, for (a) members of the Executive and Legislature are overlapping, and (b) the heads of government control the Legislature,' though, simultaneously, it safeguards that the people get the possibility to elect their representatives to shape the House of People (Lok Sabha), from which the figure of the Council of Ministers, comprising the Prime Minister is sketched, principally.

The President

The President's post has been made equivalent to that of the British monarch under the Constitution, in keeping with the soul of the parliamentary executive, which the country has taken from the latter, but with some changes in form, not the core of the cabinet government. Although the office of the President is glorious and lofty, with huge respect, authority, elegance, dignity, honour, and esteem, its greatest effectiveness lies in continuing as the constitutional peak without even a

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speck of meddling in realpolitik, as precast in the structure of the ceremonial Head of State. The relocation of all of the Union's executive controls to this office (Article 53) was based on the assumption that the President would continue to act as a rubber stamp for the government, validating decisions made by the Council of Ministers, with the exception of a very few cases specified by the conditions. Actually, when the Constituent Assembly debated whether the President should have some optional powers, the members' main concern was not with the degree of those controls, but with the ability to issue harsh orders to prevent him from appropriating the powers and purposes of other government officials. All attempts by various presidents to enhance a campaigner role have thus been slammed not only by the Council of Ministers but also by the country's constitutional celebrities.

Various situations of the President's office have been supplied for in the Constitution, in accordance with the President's philosophical and practical viewpoint. Although any Indian over the age of 35 who is qualified to be elected to the Lok Sabha is eligible to run for President, in reality, only those with exceptional qualities and standing, or those who have received the blessing of the leader of the majority party in Parliament, have made it to the throne. Similarly, the style of election for the office of President is unintended through a democratic college comprised of members chosen by both Houses of Parliament and designated members of State Legislative Assemblies—where the vote is computed in accordance with a formula devised by N.G. Ayyangar to ensure a fair distribution of votes among the regional population. With the exception of Dr. Rajendra Prasad, who was elected for a five-year term with the power of re-election, no President has been re-elected to office, setting a precedent that the President should not be re-elected to the position. Finally, the President may be removed from office through an accusation procedure based on constitutional violations. Thus, despite the fact that many aspects of the office of President have been designed to enhance his figurehead and ritualistic status, by establishing a cumbersome process for his removal from office, the Constitution has ensured him a stable occupancy, allowing him to work without fear or favour in the rare cases when he may be required to take a position that is unfriendly to the ruling party.

Powers and Functions of the President

The President is designated as the Chief Executive of the Union (Article 52) by the Constitution, which vests in him the executive powers of the Central Government to be carried out either directly or through persons subordinate to him, in accordance with the Constitution (Article 53). The President has been given such power in the country's governance as a result of this ability that every notable institution and representative named in the Constitution is overtly or indirectly attributed to him. The Constitution has given separate status and useful space to the various government organs, but an organic link between them has been explored to be documented through the office of the President. As a result, the President's powers and objectives complement any strong move taken by the Indian government. The executive controls of the President principally imply the implementation of the laws enacted by the legislature, and the control of

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recommencement of the job of government as well as the management of the affairs of the state. The President's primary executive functions appear to be the appointment of high-ranking officials of the state, such as the Prime Minister, other Union ministers, the Attorney General, the Comptroller and Auditor General (CAG), Judges of the Supreme Court and the high courts, Governors, and other civil, military, and diplomatic officials of the Union, in accordance with established procedures, though he has also been intended to be the Supreme Commandant. Legislative and judicial powers stand out among his integrative functions. He is given the power to call meetings of each House of Parliament, prorogue them, and dissolve the Lok Sabha. More crucially, he has the ability to deal with both houses at different times and send correspondence to either House of Parliament, in addition to recommending twelve Rajya Sabha members and two Lok Sabha members. The President's legislative powers are extremely important since he acquiesces to laws adopted by Parliament in order to elevate them to the status of law, as well as his prior approval of money bills. Similarly, the President's capacity to issue ordinances when Parliament is not in session allows him to take on the role of a legislative in some instances. The President has the authority to grant pardons, amnesties, reprieves, or reductions in punishment, as well as to hang or convert a person's sentence. He can also bring any subject of constitutional law to the Supreme Court for information, something he is not required to do otherwise.

Extraordinarily, the President is bestowed with huge emergency powers, to be implemented in (a) a situation rising out of war, external violence or armed rebellion (Article 352); (b) failure of constitutional machinery in a state (Article 356); and (c) financial emergency (Article 360). Though intended to defend the country's safety and peace, the Article 352 provision has been blatantly misapplied on several occasions, most notably in 1975. Similarly, the requirements of Article 356 were created to address a unique circumstance in a state that has been ill-advisedly perverted by successive governments at the Centre, resulting in a request to repeal the provision. Fortunately, the financial crisis has not occurred yet, demonstrating the country's financial infrastructure and procedures' reliability.

Actual Position of the President

A newbie may draw incorrect conclusions about the President based on a partial perspective of the constitutional dream and the controls and implications of the President. As a result, it is critical that the President's true status be clarified as soon as his constitutional authorities and functions have been explained. As a result, as Ambedkar pointed out in the Constituent Assembly, the President holds the same position as the king did under the English Constitution. He is the governor, but not the chief executive. He represents the country but does not rule it. He is the nation's symbol.

Article 74(1) imagines a Council of Ministers, with the Prime Minister at the helm, to aid and counsel the President, who shall, in the exercise of his powers, act in accordance with such advice, to resolve full and concluding the view that the President can never reason about performing without the aid and counsel of the Cabinet of Ministers.

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Nonetheless, a few presidents, beginning with Dr. Rajendra Prasad, sought to ascribe massively greater controls to the office of President than intended by the Constitution and act in a somewhat independent manner, not for "entirely personal" motives but with a vision "to enable the Presidency to assume authority and continuity, should the nation, or more particularly the Union Government, ever undergo political upheaval." Unexpectedly, Prasad's fight with Nehru'strengthened the Constitution by establishing the strong precedent that the cabinet is all powerful inside the Executive,' as both A.K. Ayyar and Attorney General M.C. Setalvad argued against Prasad's claim. President Giani Zail Singh used the unidentified tool of pocket veto for the first time since the induction of the Constitution in 1987, almost forty years later, to refuse his assent to the Indian Post Office (Amendment) Bill approved by Parliament, ostensibly for more private than constitutional reasons. He, on the other hand, restrained himself from taking any more blunder, averting a constitutional calamity in the country. Except for these two exceptional circumstances, the country's constitutional landscape appears to have been decisively dovetailed by the removal of the British Constitution from the Indian constitutional landscape.

Does Indian President Have Any Discretionary Power?

Notwithstanding the conclusiveness of the issue that the President in India is simply a figurehead without any actual powers, circumstantial subtleties may perhaps afford him few, if not many, instances to use his prudence in taking decisions. Three such conditions are:

First, when no party is able to control a majority in the Lok Sabha following new general elections, the President is unintentionally forced to seek his wisdom, without any assistance or guidance from a Council of Ministers. Second, if a sitting government loses its majority in the Lok Sabha and the Council of Ministers recommends that the House be disbanded, the President may be in a position to use his judgement to determine whether a levelheadedly stable government can be formed and the country saved from another general election, thereby obtaining the discretionary power to accept or reject the Council of Ministers' recommendation. Finally, because there is no time limit within which the President must consent to a Bill, he may, in his wisdom, use the pocket veto to kill it.

In addition to the earlier stated scenarios, several other matters have also been elevated to fix, as much as possible, the location of the President in India. Thus, critically, to what extent can the President exercise his conservative power 'to advice, to inspire and to warn' to obtain more authority and sway for him? What antidote does the President own if the Prime Minister fails to settle his constitutional responsibility to keep him well-versed of the actions and conclusions of the Government, under Article 78 of the Constitution? Does the President have a control to sack the Prime Minister on the accusations of corruption? These matters have ascended out of the working of the Indian Constitution throughout the last sixty years in the situations which either the fathers of the Constitution could not imagine or ignored to deliver for the development of suitable customs on the issue.

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Notwithstanding a separation of opinions amongst the specialists on such issues many of which, if not all, confront lawful statutory straitjacketing, it seems that the problems, in practice, have been made a elevation, more owing to the lack of pleasantness in the relationship amid the two constitutional establishments than the significance of the constitutional matters complicated in the disputes. The solution, therefore, lies perhaps not only in developing healthy agreements on many of the disagreements but also in influencing upon the officeholders of the two august constitutional offices, via the people in general and the legal world in particular, to grow and withstand cordial ties between them, for, as Paul R. Brass wisely points out, the President can only function effectively if he has the Prime Minister's confidence, not the other way around, as "the President is by tradition reduced to a mere figurehead while the Ministry is the real executive."

The Prime Minister

In contrast to the President's ceremonial role, the Prime Minister is the real decision-maker in the country's parliamentary rule. Among the constitutional offices with significant power and authority in the Indian political system, the Prime Minister's office stands out. True to the spirit of the parliamentary system, the Constitution gives the Council of Ministers the lead role in the country's decision-making framework under the leadership of the Prime Minister, preventing the decision-making system from devolving into a one-man show and emphasising the government's shared accountability. Nonetheless, the system has evolved to ensure the Prime Minister's leadership role and the Cabinet's joint accountability. Currently, instead of being the first among equals, the Prime Minister has become the pivot or lynchpin of the entire system of government, which collapses when the Prime Minister falls; though this is overly reliant on the Prime Minister's party-political hold on his party, and his partisan and managerial acumen in recognising and responding to circumstances far ahead of others.

Even though the appointment of the Prime Minister, under Article 75 of the Constitution, is intended in the shares of the President, conservatively, the frontrunner of the majority party in Lok Sabha is undisputedly selected as the Prime Minister sans any carefulness of the President. The condition, however, varies 'when the party system crashes to cause a clear choice in the frontrunner of a majority party' offering discretion to the President to a evident extent. After being chosen to office, the Prime Minister is expected to have a privilege in selection of his ministers and their departments, as the ministers are chosen on his advice. But the necessities of contending a coalition government appear to have stripped the Prime Minister of this high and commendable prerogative. Following the British agreement that only a member of the House of Commons can be chosen as the Prime Minister, a convention has also been emerging in India that the Prime Minister wants to be the member of the Lok Sabha only though an exemption was made in the UPA government when Manmohan Singh, a member of the Rajya Sabha, was chosen as the Prime Minister. Further, the continuance of the Prime Minister in office be contingent upon his majority provision in the Lok Sabha though the Constitution delivers that the ministers hold office throughout the choice

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of the President, but the wish of the President is in fact the wish of the majority support of Lok Sabha, to whom the government is jointly responsible and whose vote of no-confidence runs to the removal of the pleasure of the President, resultant into the dismissal of the government.

Role of the Prime Minister

The part of the Prime Minister in the Indian political system seems to be much more extensive and all-pervading than is constitutionally distinct though the fathers of the Constitution were conscious of the tendency of the post to focus most, if not all, of the decision-making powers of the Union in its hands. For example, K.T. Shah, catching the concentration of powers in the Prime Minister, contended that such attentiveness may very probable militate against the working of the real accountable and democratic government. In fact, the anxiety of framers like Shah was not inappropriate owing to the scheme of things delivered for in the Constitution, for, the President, conferred with all the executive powers of the Union, is believed to act in accordance with the aid and guidance of the Council of Ministers ruled by the Prime Minister, which in realism means the dominant, if not total, advice of the Prime Minister. Furthermore, the persons with robust and self-assured personalities like Indira Gandhi, and somewhat her father Pandit Nehru, shoulder so much power and conviction that the system gets transmuted into the prime ministerial one, as the only difficult order on the authority of the Prime Minister seems to be the mainstream popular support of the Lok Sabha; and when the House is wholly in the grasp of the Prime Minister, there is no one second thoughts for her/him. The Prime Minister's domineering imperious role spans through a number of channels comprising both constitutional and political ranges of the polity. Being the bedrock of the arch of the Council of Ministers, he occurs to be the absolute craftsman of his ministry, fixing its shape, size, and constituents, with unencumbered rights to rearrange and reshuffle his store as per his likings, on condition that he commands unimpeded majority support of the Lok Sabha. Further, as chief of the government, he directs and pilots the formulation and implementation of the policies, supervising and coordinating the imaginings of various ministries into the grand foresight of the government as a whole. By characteristic of his leadership of the Lok Sabha, he is looked upon to influence the proceedings of the House and make all main declarations of policies of the government on the floor of the House.

On the main issues regarding the departments of defence, finance, home, and overseas affairs, the Prime Minister's statements are taken to be the concluding word of the government. Constitutionally, under Article 78 of the Constitution, the Prime Minister is also chosen as the network of communication with the President on all topics of importance in governmental working and decision-making. Above all, the Prime Minister purposes as the symbol of the party in order to indicate the achievements of the government as the accomplishments of the party, for, in the overall elections it is the gathering which goes to the people looking for vote for its candidates. The Prime Minister, thus, puts on the part of the captain of the ship of government to direct it on its voyage of governance securely and with the

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confidence that the ship stays in a position to recommence its license for boarding upon more journeys in forthcoming.

Prime Ministers in Action

The story of the prime ministers in action in India is perhaps the saga of ups and downs in the prestige and power of the august office under the effect of the changing prosperities of the political party in office. From the times of Jawaharlal Nehru to that of Indira Gandhi and to that of Manmohan Singh, the functioning of the prime ministers has knowledgeable the distinct phases of leadership aptitudes and authority systems based on the build and grip of the frontrunner on the party organization. Nehru's occupancy as Prime Minister seemed to be of honorable authority, for 'he enjoyed power, used it to pursue his vision of the national good and could play rough to vanquish political opponents', to safeguard that the role of the Prime Minister is not abridged to that of a 'simple figure head' but not once permissible himself to flatten others in government as well as party. Correspondingly, if not more, democrat and believer consensual working, Lal Bahadur Shastri, in the accurate spirit of cabinet government, certified his cabinet to effort 'as a team of near equals out of whom consensus had patiently to be constructed.' Indira Gandhi's prime ministership was debatably a class apart owing to unusual leadership panache in taking most, if not all, vital choices of the government and party single-handedly. If her father's approach towards power was undecided, her attitude was deterministic and tightfisted. Excepting circumstantial confines, as obvious in her early years, she was never eager to receive the modalities of the cabinet government. Fascinatingly, in his initial years as the Prime Minister, Rajiv Gandhi vexed to imitate the tone and mood of his mother, partially due to his enormous majority in the Lok Sabha, by letting his friends and cronies to shoulder critical sites in decision-making of the government—a change whose inferences he miscarried to manage, resultant in the defilement of his image and costing him significantly in subsequent elections.

In the age of coalition governments, the actions of the prime ministers are forced, to a great extent, by the viewpoints of the sustaining or participating parties of the government. The main, if not the utmost, worry of the Prime Minister is to safeguard the sustenance of the government by evading any dangerous and difficult traits of either his personality or his decisions except he is ready to forego his government. Pointless to say, in such conditions the governance of the country takes a backseat with the Prime Minister just biding time without any admirable acts of omission or commission. The working of the current government of Prime Minister Manmohan Singh looks to be familiarized by the subtleties of the coalition politics in the country displaying signs of understated softness at certain times.

The Road Ahead

Unquestionably, the working of the office of Prime Minister in the Indian political system seems to have come full circle with numerous types of leadership flairs and effectiveness of the leader obvious at different times. Despite the statutory provisions ensuring a crucial and dominant position in agreement with the sound value of parliamentary system, the practical character of each and every

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possessor of the office has been distinct, due to numerous factors. Yet what needs to be highlighted is the point that there exists a well-defined gauge of individual and party-political stature as well as area of real and independent leadership up to the stage of which each and every Prime Minister should, more or less, be good enough. Contextualized in the outline of coalitional politics where the many regional parties become crucial in the patching up of a government at the Centre, the working of the cabinet would persist in a problematic proposal, but the way out will have to be discovered out by the Prime Minister. Once the mutual minimum Programme is confirmed and the broad delineations of the governmental functioning is fine-tuned, the Prime Minister must be in a place to assert his privilege in the growth and the operationalization of the cabinet, so that the government bears a separate mark of the personality of the Prime Minister. If this smallest operational independence is not given to the Prime Minister by his party as well as the alliance partners, the office of the Prime Minister is sure to experience a weakening in both stature and effectiveness, which would eventually cooperate not only the superiority of governance for the time being but also direct to a understated shift in the constitutional agenda of parliamentary government in the country. When the Prime Minister is powerless to successfully act as the clasp to secure the various cords of the government and ensure a prime position for himself in both party and the Lok Sabha, the governance of the country would be the first fatality and the prime minister's burdensome achievement would be the mere existence of the government at the cost of the happiness of the people and the nation.

The Council of Ministers

The spirit of the parliamentary form of government reclines in having a shared body of executive in the form of the Council of Ministers, headed by the Prime Minister and its cooperative responsibility to the Parliament. In noticeable distinction from the presidential method of government in which the complete executive powers and functions are personified in the particular personality of the President, the Council of Ministers reproduces the essential of the parliamentary system of government in which it is the collective, in contradistinction with the idiosyncratic nature of governance that infuses the top stratums of the government. Therefore, though the Prime Minister is fated at the head of the Council of Ministers to provide combined and corporate character to it, the constitutional estimation is always in footings of the Council of Ministers.

Basic Characteristics

As the entire organization of the parliamentary system of government in India is founded on the constitutional necessities and agreements of the British political system, the fathers of the Constitution did not face much distress in framing the basic requirements to envision a cabinet form of government for the country. As a result, Article 74(1) of the Constitution clearly specifies, "There shall be a Council of Ministers, headed by the Prime Minister, to assist and advise the President in the performance of his powers." By this general nonetheless well-meant statement, the fathers put into perspective the positions of various players in the executive system

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of the country. Thus, delivering for the traditional feature of the parliamentary form of government, the Constitution orders both the trifling as well as the real executives with the prerequisite that the earlier shall act only on the aid and guidance of the latter.

The creation of the Council of Ministers is critical to the successful working of the parliamentary government because two fundamental values governing its formation illustrate the essentials of the cabinet government. First, though the provision, as delivered under Article 75(1) of the Constitution: 'The President shall choose the Prime Minister, and the President shall appoint other ministers on the Prime Minister's advice.', summaries the theoretical situation of the composition of the Council of Ministers, in practice, the Prime Minister is guided by a number of aspects, the most important of which seems to be his party's place in the Lok Sabha as well as his own place in the party. For example, the prime ministers like Indira Gandhi and Rajiv Gandhi, whose party ordered absolute majority in the Lok Sabha and who were the unchallenged leaders of their party; the formation of the Council of Ministers was the problem of personal choice for them. But for prime ministers like Atal Behari Vajpayee and Manmohan Singh, competing alliance governments, the composition of the Council of Ministers was well beyond their power and dictated by the bosses of the contributing parties of the coalition. Moreover, such ordered Council of Ministers, quite frequently than not, becomes a non-homogeneous body, weighing against the doctrine of the sameness of the same, and does not consent to the distinguished position of the Prime Minister in the cabinet as the associates of the cabinet do not be obliged their place to the Prime Minister.

Second, in Britain the agreement has changed which the Indian Constitution has adopted, delivering that the ministers have to be the member of the either House of Parliament, to resolutely establish the symbol of the parliamentary government that the executive is sketched from the legislature and is jointly responsible to it. Thus, while Article 75(2) puts down that the ministers shall hold office throughout the pleasure of the President, Article 75(3) qualifies it by envisioning the collective responsibility of the Council of Ministers to the Lok Sabha, which, in final examination, requires that the ministers can grasp office throughout the desire of the Prime Minister who himself continues in control as long as his majority continues intact in the Lok Sabha. The loss of majority in Lok Sabha was not an matter in Indian polity till the beginning of non-Congress ministries at the Centre and became widespread in the times of coalition and marginal governments since 1989.

Another distinguishing feature of the system of Council of Ministers seems to be the leaning of creation of smaller bodies to lever the complicated responsibilities of the government in a well-organized and quick manner. In fact, owing to its unmanageable size and diffused nature of composition, the Council of Ministers has over the years given way to the development of, what is recognized as the cabinet, in order to give speed and proficiency in the performance of the governmental functions. Initially, an unceremonious body requiring of the key members of the Council of Ministers, the cabinet has slowly acquired a formal

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position, unadventurously, conferred with the responsibility of taking all significant decisions on behalf of the Council of Ministers. Presently, in India, the Council of Ministers entails of three types of ministers: the Cabinet Ministers, the Ministers of State, and the Deputy Ministers, of which the ministers comprising the rank of the Cabinet Ministers form the cabinet. But occasionally, when a Prime Minister prepares to act in a briefer manner or generates a coterie of three or four ministers to substitute the cabinet, a new spectacle called 'Inner Cabinet' or 'Kitchen Cabinet' comes into being. Presently, in the wake of coalition government when the prime ministers are not in a place to form an inner cabinet but discovers the cabinet large and since the government's dedicated demands are not being met, a variety of ministerial groups and groupings of ministers have been formed to help the government function more smoothly.

The devolution does not follow the delegation of powers, and the Ministers are collectively liable to the Lok Sabha for all acts and subordinate bodies.

Concluding Observations

The theory and exercise of the executive system in India gives a picture of steadiness and change. Owing to the knowledge of the country with some kind of parliamentary system of government during the latter part of the British rule in India, the selection in the Constituent Assembly was clear with the majority preferring the acceptance of the system with suitable alterations keeping in view the peculiar conditions of the country, and agreements and behaviors of governance in the history of the country. Hence, while the British scheme of parliamentary democracy was assumed by the fathers of the Constitution in letter and soul, they did not flop to bring about a quantity of domineering changes of the polity of the country in order to deliver a appearance of individuality of the Indian political system on the one hand, and make the system well-adjusted and vibrant on the other. For instance, by abandoning the central trait of the British political system, that is, the sovereignty of the Parliament in the affairs of the country, the framers of the Constitution in India chose for the sovereignty of the written Constitution as the highest law of the land and made all other structures of government, counting the Parliament, submissive to the Establishment clause clauses. Such changes in the British political system's norm before its adoption in India seemed desirable apparently due to the fact that India has a dissimilar set of political mindset, and there could not have been a conviction that the Parliament would, for all times to come, endure a body of rational and neutral unbiased people. Hence, so as to nip in the bud any change on the part of the Parliament to modify the basic delineations of the polity in the country, the fathers of the Constitution put clear fetters on the width of functioning of the Parliament.

Despite having a clear-cut differentiation of the executive authority, the political scheme of India has been witness to numerous styles of functioning of prime ministers having variable designs and sophistications of their own in such a way that while some have showed their eternal mettle to wriggle out of all sorts of situations, many others have demonstrated themselves to be the captive of circumstances and in testing times of their tenancy they either gave up or replied in

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such a way that it did more damage to the country than doing any good, either one to the leader or to the society. Though incidental variations were quite significant in determining the talent and capability of a Prime Minister, his/her personal formidability and farsighted outlook made the most significant contribution in the success and letdowns of the prime ministers. However, in the era of alliance governments, the element of quiet and understanding of the Prime Minister would gain even a greater significance in determining the efficiency of the government in not only safeguarding the survival of the democratic institution in the country but also the undertaking of the seething problems of the nation.

Finally, the most persistent requirement for flaking its original tone and acquiring a new oddity has been presented before the bureaucratic set-up of the country in the post-Independence times. As in its colonial incarnation, the bureaucracy had to put on a different sort of mantle. With the emphasis of administration remaining limited to the law and order purposes of the state instead of having any sort of optimistic outlook concerning the well-being of the shared masses, such an attitude and conduct on the part of the managerial set-up of the country was found intolerable.

Hence, the bureaucracy in the post-Independence times was pressed to transform its role from that of the old-style bureaucracy to that of a modern development-oriented bureaucracy whose main anxiety now became the fetching about of quick socio-economic alterations in the lives of the people, in addition to performing the minimum task of preserving the law and order in the society. Thus, though the assemblies of executive system in the post-Independence times are trying to alter themselves, the kind and velocity of such alterations leave much to be wanted in the times to come.

Check Your Progress

7. What is the main purpose of chief executive in public administration?
8. What are the different sorts of CEOs?
9. What is the distinction between a president and a prime minister appointed by parliament?
10. What led to the adoption of executive system in India?

2.5 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The factors affecting span of control are – Techniques of Supervision; Space; Function; Time; Personality (Supervisor and subordinates); and Delegation of Authority. These factors are responsible for the narrow or broad span of control in any organization whether public or private.
2. Graicunas scientifically and statistically demonstrated that a supervisor should not hold more than four to five subordinates. He devised a formula to state the aggregate number of connections between a superior and his or her subordinates. His theory is very relevant in organization control.

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3. There are two ways to overcome rigid hierarchy – one is level jumping and the other is gang plank. These greatly reduce the time and effort needed to solve any issue that is of an urgent nature.
4. The features of line agencies entail – performs out an agency's principal or fundamental goal; Authority to make Decisions; Responsible for Execution of Government Programmes; Directly in Contact with People; Directly under the control of Chief Executive.
5. The features of staff agencies comprise – Perform 'secondary' functions in administration; Do not exercise authority and command; Do not have executive responsibilities; Do not directly deal with the people; Are attached to line units at all levels outside the line of command.
6. The features of auxiliary agencies are - Supply line units with shared facilities and amenities; They have limited power and make judgments within their particular domain. Do not benefit the community; have management responsibilities. Are under the direction of the Chief Executive or Departments.
7. The main purpose of chief executive in public administration is concerned with the Formulation of Administrative Policy; Deciding the Details of Organization; Issuing Directives, Proclamations, Orders; Appointment and Removal of Personnel; Coordination of Various Executive Activities; Management of Finance; Supervision, Control and Investigation of the Administrative Operation; Maintaining a Proper System of Communication; Managing Public Relations.
8. The different types of chief executive are presidential; parliamentary; titular; real; single; plural and the collegial executive.
9. The presidential and parliamentary system differs in the location of power and authority. Presidential system has single head, president and cabinet ministers constitute the executive; less law-making authority and fixed term of office. Parliamentary system has two executive heads; collective responsibility and leadership of government is accountable to parliament and to the people.
10. The Constitution framing Assembly decided upon the attractiveness of having a parliamentary decision-making in which the executive and the legislative divisions of government would labor in complementing the efficacy and efficiency of each other instead of working at cross determinations.

2.6 SUMMARY

The principles of organization are very useful concepts that standardize the work in an organization. These act as ready references and guides to improve the performance of the organization. The principles of organization derive their origin from the field of management science. Various scholars have provided these principles of organization after a detailed study or experimentation and these

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principles have been applied universally and accepted as the management precepts or maxims to guide the administrative activities.

The hierarchy and the scalar chain in any organization is a very widely and commonly found principle in all types of organization. It might differ in minor way in regional, spatial or temporal context; however, one can identify certain common features. These features give us an idea of the rationale and working of the concept in various organizations as well as a principle that structures the organizational or administrative set-up.

While hierarchy is a very important concept, it is also a concept that has been seen in an adverse light as it instils a high degree of rigidity in the system. It is a system that can make flexible working a distant dream and thus lead to a stiff organizational structure. As a resolution of this problem, scholars have suggested certain ways.

When we say a vital management theory, unity of command plays one of the foremost roles in channeling the staff to work in a convenient, enthused, and result-driven manner. Unity of Command means a worker ought to obtain orders from one superior or supervisor only.

The principle of span of control is a basic and fundamental concept that applies in management and administration of various organizations. The value and worth of the work of any organization is influenced by the effective control and supervision that is carried out in the organization. Thus, the concept of span of control is the best method. Graicunas scientifically and statistically demonstrated that a supervisor should not hold more than four to five subordinates. He devised a formula to state the aggregate number of connections between a superior and his or her subordinates.

The Chief Executive is aided by particular agencies in his job.

(i) Line agencies, in a straight line bear out the responsibility of accomplishing the government's central purpose, formulating decisions, and leading, regulating, and maintaining order.

(ii) Staff agencies, support, counsel and help the line agencies in conducting their work .

(iii) Auxiliary agencies, offer general, house-keeping amenities and provisions to all other agencies.

Leadership is the mainstay of an efficient organization. The task performed by the chief executive in any organization contributes enormously in giving the right direction to the organization and realizing the organizational goals. Different types of governing system – presidential or parliamentary – will have different types of functions for the chief executive. However, the overall aim is to ensure the smooth running of the organization and reaching the highest possible level of productivity and efficiency.

In terms of functions and roles and responsibilities, the constitutional scheme of parliamentary executive, as developed by the Constituent Assembly, is thought

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to work in agreement with the printed provisions of the Indian Constitution in addition to the tacit pacts of the cabinet government, as experienced in Britain. Underneath the Constitution, the office of the President has been made equivalent to that of the British monarch in keeping with the soul of the parliamentary executive Notwithstanding the conclusiveness of the issue that the President in India is simply a figurehead without any actual powers, circumstantial subtleties may perhaps afford him few, if not many, instances to use his prudence in taking decisions.

Contrary to the ritualistic position of the President, the Prime Minister occurs to be the real decision-making in the parliamentary governance of the country. The part of the Prime Minister in the Indian political system seems to be much more extensive and all-pervading than is constitutionally distinct. In the age of coalition governments, the actions of the prime ministers are forced, to a great extent, by the viewpoints of the sustaining or participating parties of the government. Unquestionably, the working of the office of Prime Minister in the Indian political system seems to have come full circle with numerous types of leadership flairs and effectiveness of the leader obvious at different times.

2.7 KEY TERMS

- **Scalar Chain:** Scalar chain is a chain of all managers from the highest management to the individual employed in the lowermost position.
- **Communication:** The informing or swapping of information by conversation, writing, or by means of some other means.
- **Level jumping:** Skipping a level or step in the hierarchy upwards or downwards.
- **Gang plank:** An adjustable plank, normally with chocks pinned on it, used by travelers to lodge or come ashore from a ship or boat.
- **Mono-command:** Singular command that is coming from one boss only
- **Unity of direction:** A notion in group management that supposes that all the squad members should assign the identical purposes.
- **Span of attention:** Quantity of time expended attentive on a job before becoming side-tracked.
- **Delegation:** The entrusting or transfer of authority and responsibility for specific functions, responsibilities or assessments from one person to another.
- **Mechanization:** The initiation of machines or computerized devices into a practice, activity, or station.
- **Ancillary:** Delivering obligatory care to the prime events or procedure of an organization, system, etc.
- **House-keeping:** Establishment of a neat, contented, secure and visually pleasing environment.

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- **Titular:** Possessing or representing a solely formal rank or title without any authentic authority.
- **Collegial:** Associating to or entailing distributed responsibility, as among a faction of co-workers.

2.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What do you mean by principles of organization?
2. What is the meaning of scalar chain?
3. What is the need for hierarchy in an organization?
4. What do you think is meant by unity of command?
5. What is the meaning of the term span of control?
6. What is the meaning of span of attention?
7. What do you mean by the Graicunas theory?
8. How does span of control get affected by space and time?
9. What is the function of line agencies?
10. What is the function of staff agencies?
11. What is the function of auxiliary agencies?
12. Who is the chief executive in an organization?
13. What is titular executive?
14. Who is called a Presidential Executive?
15. Who is called a Parliamentary Executive?
16. What is the system of executive power in India?

Long Answer Questions

1. Analyse the need and significance of principles of organization for the field of public administration.
2. Examine the features of the hierarchy as a principle of organization
3. Do you think hierarchy can become rigid and what should be done to overcome this?
4. Is the nature and application of unity of command in complex organizations possible and useful? Give examples.
5. Analyse the main differences between line and staff agencies in an organization? Which of the agencies do you think have a greater role?
6. Why are auxiliary agencies known as house-keeping agencies? Why do you think it is important to have these common agencies?
7. Analyse critically the role played by Chief executive in presidential systems?

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8. Elucidate in detail the administrative functions of the chief executive.
9. Analyse critically the role played by Chief executive in parliamentary systems?
10. In the Indian context, examine the responsibilities of Chief Executive and suggest ways of enhancing the system in multi-party system of India?
11. Why do you think the framers of our constitution adopted the executive system prevalent now?
12. Critically analyze the role and contemporary significance of the position of President in India
13. Critically analyze the role and contemporary significance of the position of Prime Minister in India
14. Do you think the system of executive power and control in India has certain limitations? Explain

2.9 FURTHER READING

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Unit III Personnel Administration

Learning Objectives:

By the end of this unit, learners will be able to:

- Apprehend the various reasons for the need of personnel administration.
- Attain an in-depth knowledge of the meaning and nature of personnel administration
- Analyse the various principles of personnel administration and their applicability
- Describe the scope and significance of personnel administration
- Familiarize with the origin and development of civil services in India
- Identify the various categories or classification of civil services in India
- Understand the composition of UPSC in India
- Grasp the functions and advisory role pf UPSC
- Examine the meaning and significance of Hiring
- Comprehend the basic principles that are involved in hiring
- Gain knowledge of the processes and techniques of hiring
- Assess the problems encountered in hiring plan

Structure:

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Introduction to Personnel Administration

- 3.2.1 Personnel Management: What Does It All Mean?
- 3.2.2 Nature of Personnel Administration
- 3.2.3 History and Growth of People Management
- 3.2.4 Manpower Administration's Purpose
- 3.2.5 Functions and Significance of Personnel Administration

3.3 Civil Services in India

- 3.3.1 Civil Services Prior to the East India Company's Arrival
- 3.3.2 The East India Company's Civil Services (1675-1875)
- 3.3.3 Imperial Civil Service (1858-1917)
- 3.3.4 The Government of India Acts of 1919 and 1935 Established Civil Services
- 3.3.5 Civil Services in The Post-Independence Era

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3.3.6 Bureaucracy and Civil Service in India
3.3.7 Classification of Services
3.4 Union Public Service Commission
3.4.1 Constitution of UPSC
3.4.2 Functions
3.4.3 Advisory Role of UPSC
3.5 Hiring
3.5.1 Meaning of Hiring
3.5.2 Principles of Hiring
3.5.3 Process and Techniques
3.5.4 Problems of Hiring
3.6 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
3.7 Summary
3.8 Key Terms
3.9 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises
3.10 Further Reading

3.1 INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that the public or the common people of a country are an essential strength. Well, so is the situation with organizations. The fruitful working of an organization hinges on its workforce and excellence of headship. The workforce by itself does not add to the improvement of an organization, it has to be translated into human resources via methodical design, satisfactory training and appropriate education. Shorn of the development of human resources known as the organization's human capital, goals, and ideas can never be realised. Intellectual resource can be defined as the total of a society's people's knowledge, skills, and qualities. For nations such as India, the advancement of human resources is a critical issue. Labor planning is a critical tool for improving qualified personnel Staff planning funding, whether provided by the government or not or a non-public organization, fit in and do not disparage. In actuality, they rise and fall with the passage of time. As a result, people resources are essential great consequence as part of the complete assets of an organization. Be that as it may that monetary resources, corporeal resources and employees, as well as scientific and technological resources, are critical, as they are the ones who develop the other resources. Human resources would be better utilised if they were used effectively. The anticipated objectives minus operative organization of all of an organization's resources are important, but human capital is the most important. Personnel administration is inextricably linked to human resource administration.

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3.2 INTRODUCTION TO PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

The responsibilities and undertakings of government are rising remarkably daily. Expansion and well-being alignments have resulted in the politician's and its organizational structure expanding out. As the duties, operations, and programmes of organizations, both formal and informal, expand, the stresses on employees, at all levels, in terms from well liberation of their loads, grow. As a result, personnel administration's responsibility is to ensure a steady following of supporters who can contribute to a business survival while also dealing with the mounting fears of progress. To grasp the concept of personnel management, it is critical to first grasp the term's meaning and classification.

3.2.1 Personnel Management: What Does It All Mean?

People management is the branch of administration that deals with persons at work and their relationships within an organization. It encompasses the entire range of an organization's interactions with its human resources, from hiring to retirement, planning and estimating the workforce, weighing human performance, selection and staffing, leading and coaching, and maintaining and improving performance and efficiency are all covered.

Personnel administration is intently correlated to an organization's complete efficacy. Although there is no standard definition of the phrase "people administration," writers generally agree on its implication, capability, and determination. Personnel function, according to Flippo, is associated with the acquisition, expansion, remuneration, assimilation, and maintenance of an organization's personnel in order to contribute to the achievement of the group's most essential goals and objectives. Dale Yoder expends the term "manpower management" as an alternative to personnel management in its domain, it encompasses both employment relationships and staff management. He says-

"The term effectively describes the processes of planning and directing the application, development and utilization of human resources in employment. Employers, employees, unions and public agencies all have important roles to play in these processes"

As per Thomas G. Spates, *"Personnel administration is a set of rules for organising and treating people at work so that they can each get the most out of their inherent abilities, achieving maximum efficiency for themselves and their groups, and providing a competitive advantage and optimum results for the company in which they work."*

The Institute of Personnel Management in U.K. states personnel management as *"that part of the management function which is primarily concerned with the human relationships within the organization. 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*

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personnel contribution to the effective working of that undertaking." The Indian Institute of Personnel Management has also espoused this description.

Employee engagement, according to Michael Jucik, is *"the field of management which has to do with planning, organizing, and controlling various operative functions of procuring, developing, maintaining and utilizing 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."

In 1966, there came a very elaborate form of definition of personnel administration.

"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 organization 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 precise terms, personnel management is about the growth of policies leading in following areas:

- Manpower development, staffing, election, positioning and cessation
- Edification and training
- Profession growth
- Tenures of employment, procedures and ideals of payment
- Operational stipulations and workers' facilities
- Official and unofficial interaction and conversation both via managers' and workers' agents, and at all levels within the company
- Mediation and negotiation of contracts on salary and working conditions, as well as strategies to minimize and resolve conflicts.

Human and group interpretations of variance in internal organization and operating practices, as well as fiscal and communal changes in society, are all addressed by people management. As a result, we may conclude that human management is concerned with the hiring, appointment, preparation, punitive actions, fiscal and non-fiscal inducements and retirement paybacks within a firm's individuals or employees. It is related to the kind of human associations in an association, interface amongst the human beings inside an officialdom and communiqué of human beings with the organization. The term "staffing" refers to the process of putting together a all operations and duties in an organization

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connected to policy creation, planning, implementation, social change and renovation, administrative restructurings, and public transactions.

It aims for the most efficient use of human resources in order to get the best outcomes with the least amount of damage on assets and technology.

Human management is known by several other names, including 'human resources,' 'worker relations', 'manpower management,' and 'employee welfare management,' among others.

The term 'personnel administration,' on the other hand, has a broad meaning, encompassing both people management and mechanised relations.

Although the phrases worker interactions and occupational contacts are frequently used synonymous with people management, it is critical to separate the two. The term "labour relations" refers to the relationship between organization and prepared employment. It inspires debates about agreements by means of unions. It is also about the managing of divergences with coalitions and industry agents. Certain corporations have a labour dealing official or boss whose principal duty is to instruct and succour top executive in their transaction of business with union representatives. This bureaucrat may or may not comply with personnel administrator. In an organized establishment, where there is no industry dealings general or leader, the workforce superintendent carries out the duty of labour affairs officer.

Hence personnel administration targets at:

- Operative consumption of workforce
- Needed employed relationships amongst all associates of the organization
- Achieving the organization's societal and official accountabilities.

Consistent with Michael J. Jucius, personnel management ought to target at:

(a) achieving administrative goals in a cost-effective and efficient manner;

(b) assisting in the achievement of the various goals to the greatest extent feasible; and

(c) preserving and improving the group's overall well-being. To gain these purposes, personnel administration is about formulating, establishing, focusing, organizing and monitoring the accommodating labours of persons inside an organization.

3.2.2 Nature of Personnel Administration

In any administrative setting, the role of personnel is critical. It is not possible for the organization to dismiss it. As a result, it appears to be a developing organizational concern, whether in the administration or in semi- or non-government organizations. Administration is influenced by the ups and downs in the socioeconomic environment. The executive environment is always evolving due to changes in the overall socioeconomic condition. The work environment in a

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company is also influenced by the governmental environment. These shifts are mirrored in personnel administration. These changes can be:

(i) varying mix of the personnel in flowing government service organization

(ii) altering ideals of personnel

(iii) rising anticipations of the government from their workers, and

(iv) growing hopes of the people from the government at miscellaneous levels.

Consequently, organization is moved by the alterations in the social, fiscal and political scenario. In reality it has to sustain with these changes. A greater figure from schedule classes, clans and other financially behind classes are connecting the management facility. A larger quantity of persons with advanced education, more and in the federal service, increasing women and more technologically capable people are also blending in. The proportions of the occupying force have changed as a result of this. People assets are now expected to be more competent and effective as initiatives under development and well-being strategies proliferate. The general public believes that management is well-organized, efficient, and understanding. People are becoming more involved in organizational endeavours. The role of people management is occurring as a result of the ever-increasing demands on administration. Personnel are required to achieve the goals of 'line' and 'staff.' 'Line' functions are activities that are directly tied to an organization's primary goal. The 'staff' works are those that allow and assist line work to function. They fall under the category of supplementary actions, and they help to improve the competency of line activities. Staff tasks include, for example, assisting in the distribution and provision of the required number of workers, as well as tutoring and personnel development. Without the assistance of line and staff people, an officialdom cannot act. At the same time, people management is inextricably linked to the rest of the managerial functions. In an organization, support functions include both line and staff responsibilities.

Personnel administration does not at all times run in a conventional organization. No organization can exclusively proceed on the footing of official guidelines and regulations, it encompasses human beings who are arranged in an authority and accountability system so that the duties and activities for the accomplishment of design objectives can be carried out. This official edifice is complemented, maintained or Blockades occur from time to time, and the unceremonious organization takes control at times. Within the formal organization, an unofficial organization emerges. It is a common occurrence that is based on societal and educational interactions among official group staffs.

The evolution of interpersonal organizations is also influenced by political, economic, and psychological variables. The duties of manpower planning are becoming increasingly sophisticated. Personnel administration issues range from one company to the next. Larger companies have greater responsibilities, employ more people, and support a wider range of goals.

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In such cultures, the work of personnel management becomes increasingly difficult. Personnel administration must fulfil the key tasks of employee inspiration and confidence since it deals with people all of the time. It must fulfil the citizenry's ever-increasing needs as well as its workers' developing aptitude

India's Public Personnel Administration Features

Throughout India, public employee engagement includes all of the country's public services.

In many aspects, public personnel administration differs from private personnel administration; public personnel administration is responsible for meeting the demands of a greater group of people and is involved in the provision of a wide range of services. Public person administration does not occur in isolation. It is the formation of essential public policy, it works under close scrutiny, it reflects a wide range of living standards, and it has a long-term impact on overall happiness.

The government relies on the public management system to implement its programmes; without proper human resources, no policy, programme, or rule can be implemented successfully.

The Current Government Personnel Management is a Legacy of the Past. The administration of India, especially at the highest levels, is a remnant of British rule. The East India Company supported a service organization to keep track of its trade and economic concerns. So when British state took over the governance of India in 1858, the country's political unification and the misappropriation of the natural wealth for its own gain became its goals. This necessitated the least amount of economic, social, and developmental activity while maintaining complete administrative control.

Superior government positions were filled by British or Indians from society's elite economic and feudal groups. In the lower subordinate categories, just the Indians were included. The concept as a whole was a brilliant example of lower and higher, peak and bottom, ruler and servant.

With the passage of the Law in 1995 and the commencement of our first five-year plan, the human system was put under a lot of strain. To achieve the Constitutional aims of liberty, equality, fraternity, and justice, the snobby, it was necessary to overhaul the hierarchical, authoritarian, and harsh administration.

The economic progress, urbanization, modernism, and diversity and inclusion goals of our plan put a lot of pressure on the administration, so it had to be transformed into an advancement and social assistance government. After Independence, we can approximately say that two major transformations occurred, both of which had a significant influence on the function of the civil service.

First, the acceptance of the parliamentary democratic system made the civil service accountable to political decision-making.

Second, the civil service evolved into a development instrument.

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Public Personnel System Aims at Completion of the Goals of the Government

Any system, including personnel systems, must have a driving force that is linked to the organization's goals. The fundamental purpose of public personnel administration in India is to make government aims easier to achieve, facilitate, and fulfil. This is both the basis for establishing government services and the rationale for their existence. Following the establishment of objectives, the government human administration must strive to execute the projects and accomplish the theoretical and practical goals by carefully allocating existing funds while considering two dimensions: time and money. The government staff system is responsible in duties such as hiring, screening, posting, instruction, fitness, security, evaluation, advancements, and general welfare in order to achieve this purpose. Employee assignment, instruction, healthcare, security, performance appraisal, advancements, and general well-being

Functions in Development Increasing

The government's expansion of welfare payments and increased public financing to education have established critical responsibilities. The government is meant to have the broader responsibility of ensuring the safety and wellbeing of all citizens. The implementation of these adjustments is not a simple undertaking. For this objective, public service services and expertise are required.

The government service is an important social instrument because it bridges the gap between legislative intent and implementation. Public service may assist in establishing and reinforcing the fundamental conditions for the sake of financial activity.

It is in charge of providing circumstances for maintaining law and order. the growth and extension of infrastructural amenities, and the establishment of a stable administrative system.

The public sector plays an important role in altering the country's resource structure by defining general or specific output targets. The government or semi-government entities have now been taken over by the public services.

An Increasing Number of Government Employees

The number of federal employees is rapidly increasing as a result of the expansion of the government's social and economic activities. As the government's duties grow, so does the demand for individuals to do these jobs. A slew of new departments, organizations, commissions, and boards are being formed right now. On April 1, 1948, the Second Earn Commission predicted and estimated that the Federal Govt employed 14,45,050 people. This number has risen to 17,73,570 by June 30, 1957. It increased to 22,64,795 on January 1, 1965. It was further enlarged to 32,27339 on January 1, 1981. This demonstrates that the number of government employees continues to rise with each new government activity aimed at providing additional services for the public good.

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Growing Number of Specialists in Public Services

The notion of Welfare State, the rise in people's goals, as well as the advancement of science and competence, has prompted a need for professionals to play a larger role in administration. Civil employees are expected to develop new specialisations, techniques, and processes. As a result, the role of specialists in government services has become increasingly important. and their number in the services is continually snowballing.

Prevalence of Rank Classification in the Services

Cataloguing of governmental position is a must for a career service based on merit. The rise in people's goals, as well as the advancement of science and competence, has prompted a need for professionals to play a larger role in administration. Civil employees are expected to develop new specialisations, techniques, and processes.

As a result, the role of specialists in government services has become increasingly importantIn India, government employees are divided into 'classes' and 'services'. We possess four service classes: class 1, class 2, class 3, and class 4, which are now referred to as Group A, B, C, and D services, based on the duties of the job done and the credentials necessary.

A further approach to categorise is by 'services.'

In India, public servants are directly recruited for several services such as the Archeological Department, Electrical Service, Postal and Telegraph and telephone Traffic Service, and so on.

When public employees are hired to work in certain services, they remain members of that service until they quit or retire.

1. Services for the entire country
2. Groups A, B, C, and D of Central Services
3. Governmental Services
4. Expertise Services
5. Groups A, B, C, and D of the National Secretary Staff

Limited Political Rights of Civil Servants

The severely restricted political rights of government officials have been identified as one of the most important factors in maintaining the services' discipline, honesty, and political neutrality. To guarantee political detachment in the public sector, civil officials are barred from participating in political activities directly.

Evolving An Efficient Public Personnel System

The public management system must do a variety of demanding duties; any system's most crucial component is the human element, which must be correctly utilised. Various issues in the public sector have created a host of impediments in the pursuit of administrative goals over the years.

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Problems such as the widening divide between government and citizens, the static and unchanging quality of public operations, waste, out-of-date methods of operation, and so on must be addressed correctly. A more convenient engagement between public officials and residents is required to build an efficient public personnel system. The idea of isolating civil officials from the general public must be abandoned. A positive and pleasant relationship between the minister and the public servant is desirable. Constant communication between the public workers and the government can also help to solve difficulties to a large extent. According to H. Finer, "*However adequately organized 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.*"

The participation of citizens in administrative processes is required. Citizens should not only reap the benefits of implemented programmes; they should also actively participate in their conception, implementation, and oversight. The importance of volunteer organizations, grassroots planning bodies, and local institutions has grown significantly.

These entities should strive for the most efficient use of human resources. The press could also contribute in resolving the problems with public people management.

It has the potential to concentrate the administration's strategies for resolving public complaints.

It has the potential to draw people's attention to citizens' communication and interface issues with administrative employees, as well as the forms and techniques by which they might express themselves.

The significance of nongovernmental structures and collectives in enhancing people's participation in administration might be emphasised by the press.

3.2.3 History and Growth of People Management

However the rise and spread of people management in the United Kingdom and the United States was mostly purposeful, the growth of people management in India may be attributed to government initiatives.

While the executive preoccupation with the notion of well drove ground-breaking job in the area of people management in the West, in India, the executive preoccupation with the idea of well generated ground-breaking work in the field of personnel management. haphazard staffing exercises, swelling labour turbulence, damage of production etc., introduced certain curiosity in employee's organization.

In Britain, personnel management arose from the concept esteem and self, which was promoted and implemented by a group of rational financiers who desired to establish modern personnel administration.

Personnel management is a term that originated in the United States.

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The beginning was laid by F.W. Taylor's scientific management, which laid the foundation for the growth of people management. Taylor emphasised scientific decision-making as well as methodical supervision and betterment worker.

In scientific management activities, H.L. Gantt, a close comrade of Taylor's, foresaw the importance of acquiring the ardent cooperation of the worker.

He maintained that telling a worker how to execute a task was insufficient; it was also necessary to boost the worker's competence and preparedness to accomplish the job. Mary Parker Follett also placed importance on preparation and improvement attributes of management. The forerunners of scientific management, in addition to swelling competence, pointed at combating tiredness and dullness amongst the workers.

Elton Mayo's Hawthorne experiments and the interpersonal programme were the most important discoveries in personnel management. These examinations solidified the tools for combining the disciplines of psychological science, social science, cognitive science, and behavioral science, among others, with the goal of understanding and altering worker and administrative behaviour by an inspirational approach.

This all helped to set the way for the steady evolution and expansion of a staffing system and foundation. There were other other events and circumstances that contributed to the growth of people management. Manufacturing and commercial spheres originated and developed numerous ground-breaking concepts such as bulk production, bulk distribution, and bulk finance.

During the two world wars, labour shortages and other labour challenges posed a challenge to management. Enormous profit making ached during the Great Depression of 1929. Coalitions aimed at cost-effective expert supervision from the national, civic, and business levels. Their demands included the elimination of waste and the high utilisation of resources, particularly human resources.

People monitoring, or staffing, is just as crucial as construction supervision, according to the overwhelming of these occurrences in America. As a consequence, the danger desire, as well as other occurrences related to employee well-being, served as a source of incentive for the implementation of dynamic people management. Our country does not have a lengthy story about people management progress and expansion.

The Committee on Labor's Report on Labor, released in 1931, called for the use of Staff to deal with talent shortages and dissatisfaction. In the face of work issues and people management development, the trade wars of the 1920s compelled command structure and producers to reason. In India, the recognition of labour unions brought a fresh perspective on the boss-worker relationship.

As early as 1920, companies like as the British India Corporation Tatas, Calico Mills, chose Welfare Officials. Such Worker Welfare Officers were in charge of resolving member grievances and promoting industrial harmony.

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On the Government's recommendation, the Indian Jute Factories Owners' Organization appointed a Labour Cop in Bengal in 1937 to handle worker grievances with both the mills, and five more Labour Officers were hired by 1939.

Employer associations such as the Indian Tea Society, the Polytechnic Federation of Indian, the Indian Engineering Association, and others followed the Indian Jute Manufacturers' Association's lead in appointing labour relations specialists. In 1941, the Government of India established the Three-Way Labour Conference, which included representatives from the authorities, labour, and the military, in order to promote consistent work regulations, establish a process for resolving industrial disputes, and tacitly condone discussions on industrial issues that were offputting the country. They have now shown to be durable and consistent labour policy frameworks. The Factories Act of 1948 established the qualifications, responsibility, and selection of a relevant constitutional official in business known as the Welfare Officer.

In the years that followed, a new position known as the People Officer was created. Human management, labor law, and industrial relationships are all handled by the Employment Officer. In India, many organizations now have specialised people departments with a fulltime Personnel Officer on staff. Staff numbers are growing at a rapid rate in this day and age, and expenditure on personnel is rising in lockstep.

As more experts, enthusiasts, and engineers are picked in public bodies, municipal, and protected groups, there seems to be a trend toward specialisation in people. Contemporary staff is concerned not only with the health of their employees, but also with generating revenue for the organization. The goal is to generate profits and rewards for the management and its employees.

3.2.4 Manpower Administration's Purpose

Manpower management encompasses all aspects of the organization of people in positions of authority. Personnel administration's main goal is to ensure that humanlike assets are being employed to achieve administrative goals. Traditional organizational subdivisions could possibly design and implement a deployable operating correlation among all participants in an organization by dividing governmental responsibilities into employment and trying to define clearly and unambiguously the duty and push for each job, including its connection with other employment in the management.

Employees should be instilled with a sense of responsibility, devotion, and trust in the company, and antagonism situations coming from biased envies, rivalries, and biases should be avoided.

In a company, personnel management must also manage negative activities such as preferential treatment and bias.

Staffing, skill teaching, promotion, state of performance, manpower welfare, management employee interactions, and processes of identity and encouragement are all aspects of personnel management that must be addressed. It must form

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relationships with the immediate, intermediate, and outer environments in order to become operational and well-organized.

As the government's responsibilities grow, so do the responsibilities of manpower planning. It's impossible to solve the problems with an outdated, one-blow method. The larger the system, the more complicated it becomes. Consider the Indian government, which is divided into departments, divisions, sectors, and subunits. It stretches the length and breadth of the country. It employs a significant number of people who work in various grades and conduct a wide range of tasks. The National Government's complete workforce is made up of a diverse set of skills that are organised into clusters.

The scenario in each state is almost identical. Personnel management must recognise and reward all of these characteristics. It requires constant monitoring. The government's major role is to establish and implement a sensible workforce allocation plan for diverse scenarios and situations.

Staffing and utilizing each component and sub-segment of human capital involves genuine people management; similarly, developing and maintaining appropriate operational connections requires a succession of never-ending actions on the part of employees.

To achieve their objectives, those in command of manpower planning must labour tirelessly. If the state offers sufficient possibilities for distinct advancement, these two goals will be attainable.

These events can include training, external and internal flexibility, progress, acclaim, and compensation. They go about their business as powerful persuaders and gratifiers. Furthermore, work payment involving a large number of employees is a practical project since each class must be adequately and fairly compensated for the contribution it is expected to contribute to the organization's goals. This is also a people management position.

In order to standardise proper job performance, the hired force must also be subjected to some consciousness. People management also includes the development of behaviour guidelines, the establishment of disciplinary action measures, the implementation of those instructions, and the acceptance of appropriate processes.

Manager of worker relations, Joint Review Facility Items of people management include the establishment of public utility courts for dispute resolution, the promotion of well-being initiatives, and the payment of superannuation paybacks and other benefits to employees. There has been a rise in industrial organised labour among government workers in recent years. Associations have been formed by both employers and employees.

These days, skilled solutions are in high demand to predict personnel wants and challenges, as well as to prepare for their fulfillment and modification. All of this needs careful human management.

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As a result, personnel administration's ability is vast and diverse, and it is always expanding in response to changes in the environment.

3.2.5 Functions and Significance of Personnel Administration

Manpower Planning

The purposes of manpower preparation are:

- to make the best use of current human resources;
- to assess or forecast future skill requirements if the organization's overall goals are to be met;
- to implement regulatory procedures
- to ensure that crucial funds are available when and where they are needed;
- to decide on a personnel level;
- to anticipate organizational faults and avoid unnecessary dismissals by shunning;
- to complete the training stages;
- to provide a framework for management;
- to assess future housing requirements.

Hiring, coaching, and advancement

Just after personnel requirements have been determined, the staffing and selection processes can commence. Hiring is the process of scouting for possible employees and encouraging them to apply for positions within the company. It's a positive function that aims to increase the selection proportion, or the number of voters per job posting. The choosing technique, on the other hand, serves a 'negative' objective by attempting to eliminate candidates, leaving just the finest to be absorbed into the organization. Hiring determines the colour and quality of service occupations, whether publicly or privately. The administration suffers from a long-term failure as a result of a poor hiring policy. Not much in the way of an effective coaching method that can make disorganised employees happy and well-organized.

Coaching is a well-articulated commitment to provide for performance quality in the service by imparting specialist knowledge, a broader perspective, and exact plans of conduct, traditions, and skills. It ought to be a never-ending process in answer to a never-ending demand. Coaching benefits the participant by instilling work-related skills and knowledge, familiarising them with the organization's aims, and maybe contributing to the achievement of the agency's or group's goals. With the constant changes in the goals and methods of companies, coaching changes the personnel. The shortages of novel appointments can be alleviated by providing them with the necessary training The extension of the appointees' vision and viewpoint is facilitated through coaching.

It prepares those who have previously served in the military for advanced roles and more difficult responsibilities, enhances employee competency, and aids

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in the development of employee faith and credibility. Another key part of people management is advancement. 'Promote' is based on the Latin verb 'promovere,' which meaning 'to advance.' In terms of responsibility, prestige or prominence, ability, and money, progression refers to a person being moved to a job that is higher than their current one. The demand for advancement is influenced by a number of factors By boosting the service areas of its employees, a management can keep control over their service areas.

It might tempt skilled individuals if the organization offers them the potential to advance as from bottom to the top. A strong advancement policy helps employees feel connected and aids to planning and exercise persistence. and recommendations for the organization's customs and pacts to be strengthened.

Work payment Structuring

A major role of personnel administration is the expansion of a tight labour payment system.

Work compensation must be set up in such a way that the organization's labourers feel appropriately compensated and the group's resources are best utilised. Undermentioned are the necessities for the expansion of a rigorous pay system:

(i) the pay edifice should be modest and reasonable;

(ii) the pay of a position should be connected to the obligations and duties involved to that post ;

(iii) it should take into reflection the credentials and knowhow agreed;

(iv) it should be all-inclusive and satisfactory to allow the worker to have a sense of the total rewards and to preserve a certain criterion of subsistence;

(v) it should take into credit the analogous incomes rewarded in substitute professions.

A comprehensive pay structure's typical tasks are directness and appropriateness. Payment plans that are well-managed have a positive impact on the entire firm. Workers are happier at work, collaboration and loyalty are higher, creative production is higher, and value is higher. In the absence of such tactics, incentives are set spontaneously on the basis of haphazard and erratic judgements.

This leads to a slew of inequity, which is one of the most dangerous causes and poor self in a company. Though both economic and non payment formulae are common in organizations, it is the former that is the most straightforward component through which people become captivated in the company, convinced to stay, and encouraged to engage in behaviour that benefits the business.

Every company should structure its employee compensation in such a way that no employee feels underpaid. Additional payouts, such as housing rent grant, commuting stipend, relaxation allotment, holiday, festival loan, and so on, can be paid to employees in addition to the basic labour compensation.

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Furthermore, pay measures must be reviewed on a regular basis in light of price increases or increases in revenue for the company.

Welfare of Employees

The well-being of workers is among the most important functions of people management, and a respected personnel system always stresses employee well-being. A solid personnel policy, appropriate recruiting and promotion processes, effective teaching approaches, and other factors contribute to the workers' physical and mental well-being, which is critical for effective performance. These circumstances must also be asserted. Enthusiasm of employees and strengthening of their confidence at different stages aid in preserving these conditions. Every type of health-care package in an organization is solely for the purpose of maintaining these circumstances. Staff advancement courses boost self-esteem, which aids in the creation and maintenance of a positive attitude toward work and the workplace. Holidays, various sorts of time off, educational facilities, dining facilities, and a reduction on leave trip costs are all included in these plans.

Security and physical shape plans, allied health coverage plans, regular medical examinations, and appropriate working environments, such as appropriate lighting, airing, space, and apparatus, are all used to maintain a worker's corporeal state. These are the strategies used by the employees to maintain their health. Maintaining control and adhering to a set of rules in the workforce also helps to create a healthy work environment, which is essential for employees' well-being.

The consequences for breaking rules, performing badly, or being late vary greatly. The most typical types of disciplinary measures include endangering or reprimanding, transfer to other responsibilities, a term of absence from duty, downgrade to a lesser rank or post, and dismissal from the military.

Tough punitive actions are essential because they improve job efficiency, cultivate employee motivation, and keep the unproductive out of the business. An organization, as a model employer, provides a wide range of public assistance and indemnity services to its employees. These can take the form of specific solid paybacks. Certain of these remunerations provide financial protection against specific threats such as illness, injury, joblessness, and revenue loss due to retreat. A variety of other benefits provide more free time, increased income, and a better work environment.

These benefits address the bodily, mental, fiscal, recreational, and social needs of the employees. Employees' well-being is also dependent on a suitable superannuation scheme. The firm must ensure that its employees have a stress-free and trouble-free retirement. Superannuation can occur at any age between 50 and 65. Appropriate retirement allowances attract talented people to the firm, they facilitate the promotion programme, and the competence of employees increases as a result of these advantages.

In complement to annuities, superannuated personnel are entitled to various benefits such as loans to cover price increases, health benefits, provident accounts, household pensions, and journey indulgences. The basic purpose of all of these

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services is to provide needed maintenance processes and autonomy from special duties to employees in their senior years. Efforts must be made to develop counselling to assist retired employees in making the most use of their time and resources.

Foreign expertise can also be used by the company in areas such as financial planning, strategizing for a secondary line of business, and so on. A well-thought-out pension strategy must always influence a group's conceptual design.

Another important component of employee welfare policies is the handling of employee concerns. The focus of the personnel and the bosses should not be on a fight. Over the years, there has been a growing awareness of the employees' common desires and benefits. To untangle the employees' snafus, employers require a variety of tools and connections. Workers' grievances should be addressed quickly and methodically by special divisions within the organization. The organization must provide overall operations to its staff.

It must inspire in the employees a desire to work. The whole staff system inculcates self-esteem, that essence, that state of mind that manifests itself in fidelity, enthusiasm, cooperation, fulfilment in work, and devotion to duty. Employees must feel secure, accomplished, and a sense of belonging in the organization. An organization can create appropriate welfare systems and foster a favourable work environment for its employees by conducting market research and implementing appropriate recruitment, selection, promotion, training, and labor remuneration policies.

Check Your Progress

1. What is the meaning of Personnel Administration?
2. What is the scope of Personnel Administration?
3. What is the primary function of Personnel Administration?

3.3 CIVIL SERVICES IN INDIA

The rise of public service providers in India is hardly a product of contemporary India nor, as is commonly assumed, a result of the British regime's involvement in the country. Even if it lacked a good working agenda or official provisions, there is empirical proof of a civil service architecture in ancient India. Furthermore, there was no consistency in the civil service, as any change in the government caused variations in the civil service. For the first time, the British hosted the civil service tenure and plan as we know it. The present-day civil service is the result of several changes made by the East India Company and the Imperial Crown.

3.3.1 Civil Services Prior to the East India Company's Arrival

There is insufficient information on the creation of Indian government services or their management prior to the Mauryan age in Indian history, which began around 321 B.C. The Arthashastra of Kautilya, carved in 300 B.C., is a

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comprehensive exposition of administration and management. 'Amatyas' and 'Sachivas' are said to have acted as major legitimate power during the Mauryan period. Officials from the Administrator's Office were among those who served in this role. The greatest authorities in the administrative system were the 'Mantrins,' who were picked from the 'Amatyas.'

Civic governance was believed to be under control of the 'Mantrins' during the Gupta dictatorship. During this time, a new bureau was established to oversee international policy. Recruitment to these professions was conducted in the early eras based on inheritance and home experience. Staffing on the basis of an exposed competitive plan was not acknowledged in India during that time, but it had been popular in China since 120 B.C. The administrative method was centred during the Mughal period. There was no inconsistency in the government - military control.

The military division oversaw the public sector, which was organised around military establishments. In India, the Mughal state combined unique characteristics of the Arabic organizational scheme with specific conventional Indian managerial exercises. Indirect reference to their global management exemplifies the prevalence of this alien element in Mughal management. Two civil activities were sharply classified during the early stages of the Arab state, primarily in Egypt: stewardship and coffers. The Superintendent (nicknamed 'Amir') was only in charge of the military and police departments. Aside from him was the fund's overseer (dubbed 'Amil'). These two captains provided a practical means of giving unbiased commands and maintaining stability.

This was also the relationship between the 'Subedar' or provincial overseer and the 'Diwan' or area income head in the Mughal regime. Civil Services, as we know it now, grew in stages throughout the East India Company's and the British Imperial Queen's reigns.

3.3.2 The East India Company's Civil Services (1675-1875)

Phase of Formation

The development of India's civil service stretches back to the first part of the 17th century, when chosen British merchants arrived to India for business purposes underneath the banner of the East India Company.

The most efficient and regulated civil service in British India was the 'Sealed Civil Service,' which comprised of a unit of male family members who performed on the East India Company's work and were acknowledged as its 'civil employees.' These officers were unique from the marines and army generals in the company.

Home servants for the firm were virtuously sellable mediators known as 'factors,' who were maintained in the care of transactional centers put up along the shore. These 'factors' were not leaders or superintendents, but rather people who knew something about Eastern commerce. The syndicate established a steady degree of posts in 1675. As a result, a teenage boy was hired primarily as an apprentice with the goal of eventually becoming a 'writer' who, after five years of service, may be promoted to a 'factor.'

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The 'factors' might be advanced to 'Junior Merchants' after three years of working, and then to 'Senior Merchants' after yet another three years of working. These officials were engaged in commercial transactions. Initially, the impact of employment on these pillars was bestowed with the Court of Committees; nevertheless, in 1714, it was established that the schedule in the company would be made by way of the Court of Directors' suggested proposition.

So every writer was forced to sign a contract or give a guarantee to the firm. It was a long text that covered a wide range of circumstances, including truthfulness, honesty, diligence, and caution, and it obligated the authors to recognize, save, and carry out personally every order of the corporation and the Court of Directors. As a result, they were known as joint declaration civil servants. Until 1833, when a narrow competitive element in the diversity of corporation writers was offered, this benefaction code worked in various styles and arrangements.

1765-1853 - The Mercantile Service Assuming an Operational Agency's Role

The clause stayed a simply marketable clause for nearly a century and a half. As commerce grew, administrative obligations grew as well, and the firm's civil service assumed more administrative functions beginning in 1760. By 1765, the phrase "civil servant" was being used in the company's records. The Mughals' grant of Diwani to the Corporation in 1765 was yet another watershed moment in the leadership's regional purchase and consequent increase in the organizational obligations of the enterprise's civil servants. In 1772, the executives of the company determined to work as diwans themselves and appropriated over the administration. Moreover, the civil service looked-for to be rationalised, as there existed the difficulty of the sealed helps being involved in non-public business and corruption.

The Regulatory Act of 1773 established a clear distinction between the firm's government and corporate concerns, resulting in the recording of unattached workers. The company's interactions were to have been kept away from the revenue and regulatory management, which would be handled by a separate set of servants. All civil personnel responsible for tax collection or judicial administration were also prohibited from engaging in private dealings under the Act. Only individuals with lucrative connections were allowed to conduct private transactions. It made it illegal for civil workers to accept gifts from the general public.

The benefaction criterion, which was widely used in the recruiting of servants, was also applied to service improvements.

The Pitt's India Act of 1784, which dealt with civil service, stipulated that the sealed civil officers be appointed to the Governor General's Assembly. The monarch empress was given the power to eliminate or invoke any of the corporation's domestics. For the first time, the Act established age limits for new candidates in the company's provision.

The Charter Act of 1793 can be said to have made a vital role in the development of India's civil service. It said that any vacancy in any of India's civil workplaces "must be filled from among the civil officials of the sector appropriate

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to the Administration in which such vacancies occurred." The Act barred unknowns from entering the facility, notwithstanding the fact that they enjoyed benefaction in England. By making the civil service a locked and unique service, the Act aimed to increase public trust in it. The maximum age limit for candidacy to the role of author has been raised to 22 years old.

Governor General Wellesley established the institution at Fort Williams in 1800 with the goal of training public workers. The Board of Directors, on the other hand, did not agree. In 1806, the Board of Governors agreed to certify a training institution in Haileybury, England, which was given formal standing by the Charters Act of 1813. The writers selected by the Company's Court of Directors were required to complete two years of training at the organization and pass an evaluation before being approved as writers.

European classical languages, morality, political economy, common antiquity, eastern vernaculars, and other subjects were included in the educational areas.

Later in 1857, the Academy was abolished. But though they had no profit-making jobs following the Charter Act of 1833, their titles of wholesalers, issuers, and so on survived until 1842. This Deed, which outright prohibited employment and business, signalled a significant shift in the civil service. It resembled the shape of a small competition check. In the 1830s, there was a need for a depth politicians and officials as a replacement for the Company's sponsorship. A system of public competition based on examination and adequate enlightenment and training of civil officials was identified.

Under any circumstances, Lord Grenville's proposal of competitive bidding, which he made for the first time in 1813, could not begin to emerge. On the 10th of July, 1833, Lord Macaulay responded to the Charter Act in the British Parliament, saying, "*It is intended to launch the rule of contest in the elimination of composition, and from this alteration I cannot but foresee the happiest effects*." A section was added to the company's Charter Act declaring that appropriateness would be the criterion of appropriateness for the civil services from now on, irrespective of race, faith, or pigment.

Even though the Charter Act included an endowment in this regard, the plan of getting public bidding did not come into effect until 1853. All offices created on or after April 1854 were to be free of the historical pressures, morals and ethics, of the Board of Governors in proposing applicants for admission to the College of Haileybury. The Act provided for the employment of colleagues of India's sealed civil service on the basis of a real competitive test to be held in London. Sir Charles Wood, the Head of the State Board of Control, appointed a five-member Committee, guided by Lord Macaulay, to advise on the steps to be followed in order to give effect to the Act of 1853, which, at least in theory, threw fully accessible interaction in the Indian Civil Service to competition without partiality.

The committee established clear age limits for admission to Haileybury College.

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It was proposed that the minimum age limit be raised to 18 and the highest to twenty-five. It was in favour of public officials entering the service at a young age, but it also stated that they should have expected the best, most open-minded, and comprehensive education that the country could provide at the time.

It placed a premium on overall education, as well as the consolidation of knowledge, which comes before teacher would be able or instruction in any skill.

The Group welcomed the selection of applicants based on the results of a competition test and emphasised the importance of completing a trial phase before finalising the candidate selection.

It isn't in favour of the University at Haileybury's continuation. It further stated that the exam should be arranged in such a way that it protects the diversity of candidates by providing detailed rather than superficial information.

The Commission of Control recognised these endorsements, and rules were included that led to the written test and the selection of civil service candidates. In 1856, the very first examination under the supervision of the Executive council was held. The civil service underwent significant changes in the years that followed.

3.3.3 Imperial Civil Service (1858-1917)

After the company's administration expired in 1858, the Indian government was placed directly under the Crown. The Government of India Act of 1858 gave the Queen the power to influence larger partisan engagements. In practise, her dominions were conducted out by the Secretary of State for India, a Cabinet Minister, who was to be assisted by an under-administrator and a fifteen-member board. The Secretary of State in Council received the powers and responsibilities of the Board of Control and the Court of Directors.

The Government Service Board in London (founded in 1855) was tasked with conducting qualifying tests for positions in Her Majesty's civil service. When the year 1858 arrived, a new era in India's history of public services began. The scheme for reserving specialised positions for sealing service employees was started. The Indian Civil Service Act, 1861 set out some primary positions to be supplied from the sealed service.

This continued until Liberation, and it is still a part of the inheritor service, the Indian Administrative Service, to some extent.

All of these jobs were arranged in a systematic manner.

It further stated that any individual, Indian or European, may be chosen for any of the offices listed on the agenda attached to the Act, provided he had spent at least seven years in India. A person selected under it had to pass an evaluation in the lingua franca vernacular of the area in which he worked, as well as continue to be subject to departmental tests and other credentials as imposed by the establishments.

All itineraries were to be sent to the Sec of State, and if he did not approve them within twelve months, they were declared null and void.

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The provisions of this Act didn't even appear to satisfy the Indian public's growing demand for Indianisation of services.

The Act came close to becoming a "dead letter" in part because of the established order's reluctance to give it effect, and largely because of the difficulty in carrying out the Act's employment obligations.

Skilled Indians began to make a push to keep their jobs in the Closed Civil Service. The British were disappointed when they were unable to implement the declarations made in the Government of India Act of 1833 and the Queen's Announcement of 1858. The Act stated that no Indian would be barred from pursuing any status or service under the East India Company because of his faith, place of birth, ancestry, colour, or any combination of these factors. The benevolent collection barred Indians from participating in the service.

Although the Charter Act of 1853 established a public competition, requirements such as the fulfillment of ability criteria for participation and the holding of tests in London prevented Indians from competing..

In 1870, the British Assembly passed an Act allowing any Indian (with established morality and ability) to be appointed to any employment or the civil service, without reference to the Act of 1861, which prohibited specific selections for the sealed service.

It also failed to create the desirable motion, as the jury was split on whether to extend all civil work opportunities or to establish a proportion of Indians and Europeans in higher positions.

In 1879, new regulations were detailed that established the Legitimate Civil Service, which stipulated that a fifth of all sealed civil service roles be filled by locals. Only Indians qualified for this position, which was chosen by the regional administration with the approval of the Government of India and the Sec of State.

Unfortunately, the legal structure failed to achieve the dedication for which it was designed.

With the Indian National Congress ratifying a decree allowing concurrent civil service tests in England and India at its first session in December 1885, the pressure for Indianisation grew even stronger.

The British government chose to ponder the question of whether or not Indians should be admitted to the walled civil service or to bureaus traditionally reserved for the service's affiliates.

Aitchison Commission

In 1886, a group led by Sir Charles Aitchison was formed to prepare a strategy for Indian access to every section of the public service.

It was planned to examine into the issue of Indian hiring not only in jobs that are traditionally reserved for employees of the closed civil service, but also in jobs that are unsealed and involve lower-rank administrative positions.

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The idea of changing the manning model for the walled civil service was vetoed by the Commission.

It proposed abolishing the Based on the constitution Civil Service and dividing civil services into three categories: Imperial, Regional, and Subsidiary. The area duty was a specific type of long-term Indian government duty.

It also advised that the list of planned employment kept in escrow by the Act of 1861 for members of the closed civil service be reduced, and that a certain number of positions be transferred to the local civil service.

The Mandatory Civil Service was abolished, as proposed by the Commission. The term of closed civil service was also eliminated, and the nation's civil services were divided into three levels: imperial, regional, and subsidiary. The greater positions were merged into the imperial civil service, and the Secretary of State in Convention was in charge of populating it. The provincial civil service was named after the designation of the region to which it was assigned. The unsealed service's subordinate rank orders were arranged as a subsidiary service. The process of conducting entrance examinations for the civil service in England continued because the Commission approved it convincingly.

It was thought that because the Indian Civil Service was the only permanent English-certified element in India, examinations in England were necessary to reinforce English governmental views and practises. The desire for Indianization resurfaced, and the pressure to have simultaneous assessments in England and India grew stronger. In 1912, a Public Service Commission chaired by Lord Islington, the Governor of New Zealand at the time, looked into the issue of Indianization once more. The Commission estimated that Indians made up only 5% of the civil service today. "Two distinct conduits of entry to the Indian Civil Service itself, one in England (open to everybody equally) and one in India (open to lawful Indian citizens exclusively)," the Commission recommended.

It attempted to implement a policy of promoting Indians to higher positions by allocating 25% of all positions to them, i.e., 189 out of 755 were to be filled by them.

It proposed categorising the services provided by the Indian government into two categories: Class I and Class II. Despite this, the Commission did not envisage any major changes to the civil service administration's structure In addition, it took close to four years to produce the study. As a result of the time difference, the intended efforts were deemed insufficient by the reasonable public attitude in India.

3.3.4 The Government of India Acts of 1919 and 1935 Established Civil Services

The British Government's new rule of "swelling connection of Indians in each and every separate unit of the administering, expansion of individual courtroom with a view to the wide ranging ability to comprehend of responsible Government in India as a vital remnant of British Empire" was announced in 1917 by the Secretary of State for India in the House of Commons. The then Viceroy expressed boosting the staffing of civil services in England by setting a particular fraction of

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staffs from India in their united declaration on Constitutional alterations a year later, in 1918.

The share for higher posts was set at 33%, with a one-and-a-half percent growth each year. They advocated for an increase in the share of jobs in other service providers in India. They were in favour of making schedules available to all government departments, regardless of ethnicity, and supporting a unique competitive test in India.

The Government of India Act on Legislative Improvements of 1919 recommended classifying activities into three groups: all-India, provincial, and subordinate. As a result, any Imperial service operating in the territories at the time, whether in reserve or moved departments, was referred to as the 'All India Services.' Special safeguards were provided to members of the All India Services in terms of removal, wages, pensions, and other perks. The Act recommended the establishment of a National Commission entrusted with recruitment for the military as a protection against party influence. The Civil Service Commission oversaw the first competitive test, which took place in 1922.

The Indian candidates who were chosen based on the consequences were required to serve a two-year probationary period in an English institution of higher education.

The Lee Commission

In 1923, a Royal Commission on Exclusive Civil Services in India was appointed under the chairmanship of Lord Lee, amid a great deal of political turmoil in India over the negative British response concerning Indianisation of services and in light of the numerous complex difficulties regarding public service personnel.

The Commission proposed dividing central services in three categories: (a) All India (b) regional, (c) central, and (d) national. The central services dealt with Indian states and international affairs, as well as the supervision of the state railway lines, postal and telecommunications, levies, auditing and bank documents, and technical and mechanical divisions. According to the Commission, the Secretary of State should preserve the functions of design and evaluation of the All India Services in separate administrative arenas. The Lee Commission's most important suggestion addressed facilities that operated in shifting venues, with extra staff and jobs to be established by concerned community management teams. As a result, these activities would be limited to specific regions.

All rights of the officials of the All India Services were to be retained by the present affiliates, but regional governments were given the ability to choose only when new vacancies arose. The Commission limited the appointment of Secretaries of State to the Partisan Department, Imperial Duties Department, and Ecclesiastical Department in the central services. The Government of India was to make all of the remaining central service selections. Twenty percent of high-class roles will be filled by regional service recommendation, according to the Commission. The Commission recommended the founding of the Constitutional Public Service

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Commission to maintain higher staffing standards by controlling the application of benefaction (as the Government of India Act of 1919 suggests).

The goal of the Civic Service Commission was to staff employees for the All India, main, and regional services, as well as other partially-judicial functions related to chastisement, control, and strengthening of the services. It also generated detailed recommendations on a variety of service-related issues such as pay, annuity, vacation, housing, and so on. In terms of Indianisation, it was suggested that out of every hundred jobs in the Indian Civil Service, forty percent should be filled by heterosexual Europeans, forty by straight Indians, and twenty by promotion from the provincial service with the goal of having half of the land captured by Indians and the other half by Europeans in fifteen years.

The British government recognised the Lee Commission's recommendations. After the All-India Services were stopped in the relocated departments, the Indian Service of Engineers, Indian Civil Service, Indian Medical Service, Indian Police, and Indian Forest Service were the only All-India Services that survived (With the exception of Burma and Bombay).

In India, the Public Service Commission was created in 1926, and it oversaw the exam for public service employment in 1927 in cooperation of the Public Service Commission in England.

The Government of India Act, 1935 (Indianisation of Higher Civil Services etc.)

The Act of 1935 established regional independence under the supervision of responsible Indian Ministers, while safeguarding the civil rights and freedoms of civil service members.

The both Governors and the Head Of state were solely responsible for defending the civil service's claims and perks.

It was established that a public servant could not be dismissed from his position by an authority lower than that of the officials who had appointed him.

The salaries, endowments, and compensation packages were not contingent on the legislature's approval. The Act also proposed the formation of a Federation Public Service Commission and a Government Service Council for all of the areas, however two or more regions might harmonise to form a Joint Public Service Commission. Only three services, the Indian Civil Service, and Indian Medical Service, Indian Police Service, were to stay as All India Services after the Act established regional independence. All other All India Services (Veterinary Service, Academic Service, Indian Farm Service, Engineering Service, Forest Service) were regionally based, with employment and management falling under the jurisdiction of the provincial council. The assisting affiliates were kept on active terms, and the service specifications were completely protected.

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3.3.5 Civil Services in The Post-Independence Era

As soon as the country gained independence, the civil service underwent a metamorphosis. There are three types of public services: All India Services, Central Services, and State Services.

Services are available across India

The Indian Constitution recognized just two All-India Services: the Indian Police Service and the Indian Administrative Service. The old Indian Civil Service was replaced by the Indian Administrative Service, while the Indian Police Service was replaced by the Indian Police Service. In 1966, the Indian Forest Service was founded as a new all-India service.

The federal government employs and trains members of the All India Services, which are similar to the central services, except they are assigned to different states.

They work for the state government to which they are assigned, and their service status is governed by the states as well, with the exception that punitive cases against them can only be brought by the Head of the State of India in consultation with the Union Public Service Commission.

They also serve on delegation for the federal government, and after a stable tenure, they are expected to return to their home states. The All India Services Agreement was signed into law in 1951.

The federal government detailed a new set of laws and oversight regarding the All-India Services as a result of the influence bestowed by sub-section (1) of Section (3) of this Law, since the lengthy policies at assured sites had shown to be unnecessary.

Services at Centre

These services are responsible for the handling of major issues and are under the Union Government's control. Indian Audit and Accounts Service, Indian Foreign Service, Indian Postal Service, and others are among them. State Services

These are services that are exclusively under the control of state administrations and are primarily responsible for managing state affairs. Nonetheless, promotion from the state programs accounts for 33 percent of jobs in the All-India Service. The valid design of partitioning issues into Union, State, and Concurrent is replicated by this three-fold arrangement of services. As a result, this is a distinguishing feature of our federal architecture.

Administrative Reforms Commission on Civil Services Recommendations

The Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) was established in 1966 as a result of the establishment of the Department of Administrative Amendments in 1964. Its objective was to focus on "the necessity to protect top standards of effectiveness and honesty in the public sector, and to turn public administration into a superb tool for achieving societal and economic growth while also being sensitive to the people." The Commission's twenty records, which received all commendations, represented ground-breaking efforts at: adjusting organizational

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order and discipline or processes to the varieties of development roles or tasks; - refining efficiency, accomplishing economy, and cultivating organizational principles; - maintaining a balance between present and future needs, as well as between state-of-the-art transition and organizational stability;

The ARC, with the assistance and guidance of three main learning groups, made a passionate case for civil service competency and specialisation. It established permissions for civil service squad structure, unique schemes of achievement evaluation and advancement, the Civil Service Court of Law, and drill, among other things.

One of the main recommendations, which was set to have a big impact on the central government's human resource management plan, was the development of a central employee's agency in the form of an individual Needs of Workers reporting directly to the Prime Minister. This organizational restructure was expected to standardise and simplify human resource practices from a primary component to a secondary component with equal probability.

3.3.6 Bureaucracy and Civil Service in India

The term "civil servant" was coined in the same way as the terms "military servant" and "police officer" were coined. While the latter two are concerned primarily with the security of the nation from external and internal threats, a civil servant is only engaged with civic and quasi affairs of the state. He is acting in a civil role, not a military, judicial, or police position. Army personnel, court officers, law enforcement officers, and a variety of other scientific officers such as surgeons, architects, and draughtsmen are not civil workers, to be clear.

A government servant's primary responsibility is to uphold the rule of law of the nation. Lower clerical workers and senior administrative staff make up the majority of civil servants. The department's political chief is intimately related to the advanced administrative personnel. The junior office workers assists and toils under the direct supervision and direction of the administrative staff.

Civil servants who are well-trained, competent professionals and a lengthy body of professional authorities who have selected government programme as a vocation serve the residents of a state. "It is this large volume of men and women," F. A. Ogg says, "that converts legislation into activity through one end of the state to another and puts the central government into regular communication with the state's officer corps."

Basic Features of Civil Service

As mentioned by Herman Finer, Civil service is "*a professional body of officials, permanent, paid and skilled. It means that it is primarily a body of professional administrators as distinguished from politicians who are elected on party lines. They have adopted civil service as their life career and through training and experience become skilled in their profession*." According to the words of Gladden, "*The requirements of the civil service are that it shall be impartially selected, administratively competent, politically neutral and imbued*

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with the spirit of service to the community." The basic characteristics of the civil service worth mentioning are as follows:

Professionals

The greatest distinguishing feature of civil services is that they are a trained and skilled class of officials. Civil employees, like other people who work in different fields, have the job of running the government. As per B. K. Dey, characteristics of "*a professional group of public officials are:*

(a) an organized body of knowledge and its various disciplines which are available to its members;

(b) establishment of norms of competence for not merely initial entrance but also subsequent elevation in the service and consistent effort to secure general acceptance of these standards;

(c) the need for development of such basic skills through training opportunities for the existing and prospective members of the profession;

(d) a well-developed sense of dignity and worth as also the professional prestige attached to the appropriate segment of public service;

(e) a code of ethical conduct, the violation of which by any member will serve to debar him from the profession; and

(f) an effective organization for the advancement of these objectives."

Hierarchy

All public officials are organised into a neat structure in which each is subservient to another, greater in rank than himself, and the lesser officers are supervised by the superior officers. Each official in this structure has a fixed residence with well-defined responsibilities, pay, and benefits. Through a well-organized chain, the person at the bottom is wholly accountable to the person at the top. The commands of the senior official must be followed by all officials.

Legal Basis

The civil service system is continuously delivered with a legal basis. This may be largely customary and uncodified, or in the form of governmental regulations as in Great Britain, or it may be set out in substantial detail in a written constitution for the party-political jurisdiction. Generally, it has a constitutional base either in an intricate civil service code or in a gathering of civil service laws.

Personnel Agency

In the majority of the countries there is a stipulation for a personnel agency or agencies that are charged with the duty of looking after the civil service system. Customarily the British practice is followed by a large number of countries in this respect, where the task of choosing a civil servant is delegated to the Civil Service Commission and that of other workers matters to the coffers. In India, the Union Public Service Commission and the States Public Service Commissions are made accountable for the staffing of Central and State civil servants correspondingly.

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Other personnel subjects are assigned to the Home and Finance ministries of Central and State governments.

Established Procedure of Work

In a industrialized civil service system, well-established dealings are fitted for the conduct of common personnel communications such as selection, advancements, performance evaluation, reparations, and so on. These consistent methods provide impartiality in the choice of applicants to the civil service and also help in providing equal dealing to all those already in service.

Impartiality and Anonymity

Civil employees must influence state laws without favouritism or subjectivity toward any individual or group of individuals in society. They should be politically apolitical and assist the administration without regard for the cabinet's political affiliation. They must work without any admiration or guilt going to the minister. They ought to maintain a high criterion of conduct and serve the nation neutrally, honestly and namelessly.

Roles of Civil Service

It is not easy to draw a sharp division between the roles of the political decision making and the civil servant. Numerous policy decisions which are approved by the political command are nearly formulated by the civil servants. Nevertheless, there is a change in the kind of the two operations. The political decision making has the exceptional and exclusive duty of taking duty for policy. The main role of civil service is to work for the managerial arrangement in accordance with the policy founded by the political decision making. Its jobs may be distributed into the following categories.

Advice

One of the most important functions of the public sector is to provide recommendations to political decision-makers. Ministers rely on the counsel of their top staff, who are repositories of data and structured expertise on the subjects they oversee. Many problems develop throughout the process of management, which are normally resolved first by the public sector and then relayed to the political leadership, if at all, for approbation or merely knowledge.

Ramsay Muir has stated this purpose of rendering advice to the ministers in a forceful though overstated style. According to him, ministers spend most of the time creating their positions safe and talking on platforms. The civil servants, on the other hand, dedicate much of their time to the analysis of problems of the office. Hence, they have comparatively much more knowledge of the multifaceted compound working of the department whereas ministers lack this special understanding and thus are unable to take sensible decision on various problems which come for their deliberation. Civil servants put before the ministers their suggestions, reinforced by persuasive arguments and facts. The minister, except he is a man of high quality and have a high imposing power, can do nothing but give

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his acquiescence by officially signing his name at the place recommended by his so-called secretary.

Programme Forecasting

Forecasting is a responsibility of political decision-makers in a broad sense; for example, the Minister for Finance is responsible for planning and periodic changes to the revenue structure; the Minister for Food and Agriculture is responsible for agricultural price and food policy; the Minister for Industries is responsible for industrial policy; and so on. However, there is one area where civil officials play a role in planning, and that is the realm of delegated law.

As we all know, the legislature need an Act in broad words to carry out and implement stringent norms. The civil servants who put that law into execution determine the precise steps to be taken so as to bring to completion a policy or a law already agreed upon, to the extent that the policy decision is unclear or vague, programme planning may truly touch policy though in belief its drive is only to affect policy. Programme planning includes a detailed systematic study of the job to be done. The success of any new policy will ultimately depend upon good programme planning.

Production

In the widest definition of the phrase, civil service entails the provision of services. Its primary goal is to produce. Things created can be tangible, such as tonnes of fertiliser and stretches of asphalt pavement, or intangible, such as the resolution of legal issues or the instruction of kids. An agency in charge of management requires work metrics in order to determine if his organization is efficiently run, whether his subordinate individuals are able, and whether efficiency and output levels are rising or declining. He is responsible for safeguarding the most efficient use of staff, both in terms of urgent initiatives and long-term potential. He also oversees his subsidiary employees. Supervision is a tremendously problematic and delicate task. The instantaneous test of achievement is production. The supervisor must nurture attitudes that are favourable to cooperation, energy and faithfulness.

Organization and Methods

One of the most important roles of the public sector, particularly managers, is to improve working practises in order to eliminate waste and wasted effort and ensure the most efficient use of available resources. This task is carried out with the help of units devoted to what has become known as organization and methods work (commonly referred to as O&M). The establishment of civil service has become an essential part of the modern state. It performs assorted wide-ranging and numerous roles. The civil servants gather facts and figures, commence research, counsel the minister who is fresh to his job and make strategies to satisfy the wants and requirements of the people. What the civil service actually does is to advise the ministers in an categorical though exaggerated style. According to him, ministers devote most of the time making their positions secure and talking on platforms. The civil servants, on the other hand, devote much of their time to the study of problems

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of the office. Hence, they have relatively much more familiarity of the complex working of the department whereas ministers lack this superior knowledge and thus are unable to take sensible decision on various problems which come for their consideration. Civil servants put before the ministers their propositions, buoyed by convincing arguments and facts. The minister, unless he is a man of high talent and competence and have a high authoritative power, can do nothing but give his agreement by officially signing his name at the place recommended by his so-called secretary.

3.3.7 Classification of Services

Position Classification in US A

The Indian scheme of classification of public services may be called as a rank classification system while the system predominant in the USA is a position classification system. Rank classification is founded on the features of those embracing particular kinds of jobs, and the foundation of position classification is jobs. In position classification, a category of position involves of all jobs which are adequately equal in duties, responsibilities and qualification necessities to justify holding the same examination for satisfying vacancies in the class. Briefly, position classification can be described as assemblage of like positions into a class. O. Glann Stahl submits some stages or steps in the enlargement of a position classification:

(a) evaluating and logging the duties and other distinctive characteristics of the position to be classified;

(b) Positions are grouped into classes based on their commonalities.;

(c) defining values or specifications for every category of sites that will show their nature, define their borders, and serve as a director in allocating actual positions to the class, as well as in recruiting and exams; and

(d) fitting by allocating individual positions to the classes thus labeled.

The position classification system has many merits. First, the analysis and classifying of positions tend to avoid discrepancies in job specifications. Secondly, it delivers line of advancement and aids in starting standards against which employee functioning could be calculated. Thirdly, due to delegated realization of duties, the schooling needs could also be precisely diagnosed. Fourthly, it promises equal pay for equal work.

Nevertheless, the position classification system aches from certain limits. It is argued that duties and responsibilities of different posts cannot be clearly recognized or measured, particularly in developing societies.

Another problem that arises is that duties undergo change with alteration in the society. And lastly, exact job description requires considerable skill which is missing in developing societies. The Administrative Reforms Commission in its account on Personnel Administration has fortified for the acceptance of position classification system in India, but so far it has not been trained in the Indian Administration System.

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Hiring of Employees: Spoils Versus Merit System

It is necessary to establish a merit-based personnel system in order to have a solid personnel system. Three alternatives to the merit system existed previously: the selling of positions, the microenvironments system, and the spoils system.. Penning about the history of the French Personnel System, Herman Finer views: "*In France until revolution, almost every office, central or local excepting the dozen or so highest offices in the kingdom, were attainable only by private purchase, gift or inheritance. All public offices were a species of private property, and a voluminous jurisprudence governed their transmission*." Trading government positions to the potential buyer may seem strange now, but it was allowed in France at the time on the grounds that it generated revenue and income to the state, allowed the average citizen to attain positions, and removed the public offices from bias and politics. In England and the bulk of other countries, the patronage system worked.

Beneath it, the authority nominated individuals based on personal or political considerations. The spoils system first appeared in the United States, where it originated. It signifies that public office comes with perks to be enjoyed by the political group that wins the election. Whenever a fresh party was in power, it fired all of its predecessor's staff and filled the gaps with its own sweethearts.

This practise is also known as "hiring and firing" of public employees. The most vigorous reason that was progressed in favour of patronage was that the government could not put its strategies into operation with the supreme efficiency unless its key employees were in functioning sympathy with its political viewpoint and programme.

Defects of the Spoils System

The 'spoils system' carries in a number of ills in administration. Summing its evils, Herman Finer says, "*Sheer inefficiency was the first result, an increase in public costs second; the creation of a class of office seekers, third; political corruption, the fourth; a standing battle between the Head of the state and Senate for the control of appointments and removals a fifth; and a terrible waste of time and labour on the part of the Head of the state and heads of departments, coupled with the real pain of refusal of applications for office, the sixth*."

The sweeping effect of this system is upon the partisan life of the country. It produces a profound dilapidation into the life of representatives and "*tends to place the contest of political parties on a materialistic plane of struggle for selfish advantage rather than one for the achievement of ends looking to public welfare*." The soul of public service is curbed and its place is occupied by selfish wellbeing and political trickery. The employees make an unlawful use of their offices to endorse the welfare of their political parties or that of political rulers to whom they are obligated for their appointment. National interests are thus totally ignored. Anything like a expansion of a true espirit de corps and wish to excel is unbearable as the further upgrade of employees depends on the political stimulus that they can apply. This system unfastened the eyes of American people when Head of the state

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Garfield was killed and murdered by a disappointed job-seeker and the Congress approved the Pandleton Act that made a commencement in the merit system in 1883.

The Merit System

Contrary to the spoils systems, the merit system pushes clear of the problems of the spoils system. The reward device in which an employee's employment and working circumstances are solely determined by his inherent basic qualities, which include his academic and operational credentials, personal talents, and physical fitness. Staffing is done under this method using an open competitive assessment exam administered by a general human assets agency. Citizens are not differentiated based on their political allegiance. Civil workers are politically apolitical, and promotions are made strictly on the grounds of ability.

Advantages of the Merit System

The merit system is clearly and visibly superior to the spoils system. It means "*a purification of political life, the doing of justice between citizens in regard of their advancement, the authorization of the principles of durability of tenure, and that of making the government services offer lasting careers to their employees, and it eliminates the enticement from government employees to waste the powers of their offices for opinionated and personal ends."* The right man is placed in the right place and justice done by delivering equal probabilities to all citizens to contest for any office of the State. Thus, the merit system stretches practical effect to the self-governing principles of the 'equality of opportunity and equality of treatment for all.'

The merit system occurred in China since 186 BCE and despite the fact that the world has changed dramatically, it would be a stretch to suggest that influence and rewards systems have completely gone or that the meritocracy system has been broadly accepted. In our country, political appointments, that is, selections to the posts of ministers, parliamentary secretaries, chief commissioners, governors, ambassadors, etc. are separate to the merit system. Under Article 320 of the Indian Constitution, the Head of the state and the governors are authorized to reject by guideline from the horizon of the Public Service Commissions of their particular jurisdictions such posts as they think essential.

Hiring in the mechanical wording of administration means enticing proper and suitable types of candidates for particular jobs. The safeguarding of right and capable persons for administration contain the following issues: (a) position of the appointing power; (b) approaches of hiring; (c) credentials of employees; (d) methods of ascertaining qualifications; and (e) managerial arrangement for defining of qualifications.

In modest words, cataloguing is the procedure of separation of things or persons on the foundation of shared features. In staff's management sorting means assemblage of numerous policies on the foundation of their obligations and concerns. Ranks having alike responsibilities and charges are formulated in one class. A class has been demarcated by Stahl as "*a group of positions sufficiently*

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alike in their duties and responsibilities to justify common treatment in various employment processes".

The worth of ordering of services cannot be overstated. Classification fetches some tidiness into the scheme and makes for undeviating handling of all the people who are assembled together on particular standards. It likewise makes conceivable explanation of discrepancy rights provided to certain marked groups. The obligations, responsibilities, attribute requirement, suitability conditions, wage, rank, even power to be bestowed, all hinge on, to an abundant degree, on the fitting system of grouping. Hence it has substantial practical worth and cogency. As per Finer, "upon proper classification depends the efficiency of hiring, the possibility of creating a rational advancemental system, and the equitable treatment of people working in different departments".

Ordering of services is vital because it regulates the working dominion of the services and the type of the duties to be settled as also the occupations to be executed by the officeholders of dissimilar groups within the services. It enables recognition of various tiered layers and purposeful sections of the services at any provided time. Grouping is an administrative tool of great significance, which, if managed properly, can produce contentment to the representatives, bureaucrats and employees.

Throughout the pre-independence regime in India, there was a categorization of professions.

The civil services in India were organized on the British model as a result of British rule. Similarly, during the British period, the system for categorising services underwent various changes. Let us consider the categorization of goods in the pre-independence era for a moment.

Classification of Services into Sealed and Unsealed

Until almost the end of the nineteenth century, high-class professions in India were almost entirely manned by Europeans, the majority of whom fit into what was known as the "Sealed Services."

Civil officials chosen for duty in India in England were had to sign contracts with the Company "by which they promised themselves not to engage in commerce, not to take gifts, to pledge for pensions, and so on."

The Authors were required to highlight specific agreements and events between the organization and himself.

These were encapsulated in a supplemental document titled 'Covenant,' and the term 'Sealed Civil Services' was coined as a result. In the early phases, primarily since 1781, the East India Company's objective was to backfill all civil offices in India on favor of the sealed civil workers arriving from England.

All civil positions under the direction of a councillor must be filled by sealed citizens enlisted in England, according to the Charter Act of 1793.

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However, the Company's limited source of confined people was unable to meet the growing demands. As a result, those who did not fit into the sealed civil service, which included people from England, were picked to assist in subordinate capacity, and they were known as those fitting into the "Unsealed Service," as opposed to the sealed civilians.

The unsealed service was mostly made up of Indians.

Gradually, the spread of western knowledge in India, aided mostly by Lord Macaulay's efforts, reawakened among Indians the desire to work in the higher posts reserved for the Closed Civil Service. The Charter Act of 1833 stated that there would be no official positive ineligibilities dis the hiring of Indians in any setting.

The Charter Act of 1853, for example, opened up all positions in the Closed Civil Service to public competition. However, challenges emerged as a result of the conducting of competitive tests in England, which effectively excluded Indians from competing, with the exception of a few unusual circumstances. Then, in 1858, the Government of India Act transferred control from the Company to the Crown, and Queen Victoria's declaration assuring "free and unbiased admittance of Indians to places in Her Majesty's Service" sparked fresh demands among the people of the country..

The Aitchison Panel proposed a three-tiered classification system for services.

The Public Service Board (also known as the Aitchison Commission) was created in 1886 under the leadership of Sir Charles Aitchison. Its purpose was to evaluate the method by which 'natives of India' were admitted to the highest levels of the civil service - the Sealed Civil Service - either under the Government of India Act, 1858 or the Statutes of 1870. It proposed a three-tiered service classification system:

(i) The old Sealed Service would be renamed the "Imperial Civil Service of India," with candidates selected through a competitive exam held in England. They were chosen by India's Sec of State.

(ii) In each and every state, a domestic civil service named the "Provincial Civil Service" was announced as being established, encompassing all posts not designated aside for Sealed Service branches. It proposed eliminating lower-level roles from this institution and enhancing at the top a few highly compensated positions kept in reserve for Sealed Civil Service affiliates in general. Staffing for this program was to be accomplished in each region using distinct techniques tailored to each region's needs.

(iii) The third tier was the "Subordinate Civil Service," which was to be established by transferring the civil service's subordinate ranking assignments.

The commands of the Secretary of State on the Aitchison Commission statement were exemplified in a decree of the Government of India issued on 21st

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April 1892. The old strategy of categorising items as sealed or unsealed was abandoned.

The "Imperial Civil Service of India" and the "Provincial Civil Service," which were named after the areas they were responsible for, were established.

The higher services were made up of Imperial and Provincial Services, as well as Subordinate Services and Low-grade Services, which included secretaries, typewriters, accountants, manual employees, cleaners, office boys, and messengers.

The grouping of sophisticated civil services was founded on the basis of their personnel, not on any rational scheme of duties or roles. In reality, the Royal Commission on Public Services in India, often known as the Islington Commission, noted this inconsistency and proposed a new ordering that included two service divisions: Class I and Class II.

Under the Government of India Act, 1919, changes were made to the classification of services.

Following the passage of the Government of India Act, 1919, the Imperial Services, or high-class services as they were known, were divided into two divisions based on the specialties administered, such as fields that were under the direct administration of the Indian central government and issues that were primarily organised by regional governments.

The former were classified as Central Services, whereas the latter functioned primarily under the regional governments came to be branded as the All-India Services, as these were employed by the Secretary of State to labour in every part of India. Because the Government of India Act of 1919 established regional diarchy, it was resolved to preserve these services not only in "reserved" but also in "transferred" zones, with the Secretary of State in Council continuing to enrol and manage them. The essential conditions of employment for all of these service occupations were specified, established, and guaranteed by the Secretary of State, and they were the Sec of State Services, with the prerogative of use finally given to a greater rank in London. Following the Government of India Act of 1919, changes were made to the service structure. The Imperial or high-class services were separated into All-India Services and Central Services, a division that has remained in place to this day. According to the Civil Services Rule Book of 1930, India's public services were divided into I All-India Services, (ii) Central Services, Class I, (iii) Central Services, Class II, (iv) Provincial Services, (v) Specialist Services, and (vi) Auxiliary Services.

Devolved parliaments were given responsibility of the Provincial Agencies. Some technical areas comparable to engineering were included in the business services. The Central Services are divided into four categories: Class I, Class II, Secondary Resources, and Reduced Services.

The main distinction between both the Class I and Class II Services at the time was that the Governor-General in Assembly oversaw all primary operations for the

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former, whilst a subordinate power was permitted to establish the employments for the latter.

The "gazetted" status was usually reserved for Class I and Class II bureaucrats, while 'subordinate' and 'inferior' officials lacked such a mark.

The Subordinate Services included employment with administrative, judgement, or out-of-doors duties, whereas the sub-standard services included positions such as office boys or couriers, with all-in monthly compensation of Rs. 301 at the time.

The first Central Earn Commission investigated the matter in 1946, which marked a crucial turning point in the process of merging services. It detected an omission from the report of the operations as "subordinate" and "inferior" on the basis of its being derogatory, and proposed that it be replaced by arithmetical labour. It was proposed that these two services be designated as Class III and IV, respectively. Technical activities were also included in the classification, therefore there is no longer a distinct category of technical services. As a result, the government advocated for a four-tiered classification of services: I, II, III, and IV.

Since Independence, the Civil Service has been classified.

After Liberation, civil services were divided into three categories: All India Services (common to both the Centre and the States), Central Services (for solely Central subjects), and State Services (for purely State subjects) (for administration of subjects under State jurisdiction). The Central Government recruits and trains the All-India Services, but they are sent to different States for employment, just as the Central Services. They bind state governments, and their provisioning circumstances are similarly governed by states, with the exception that punitive prosecution against them may only be undertaken by the President of India in consultation with the UPSC. They frequently aid the central government with delegation, and after a solid pre-determined time, they are expected to return to their individual nations. The new service occupations are governed by legislation and rules developed in collaboration with state governments and the Union Public Service Commission (UPSC).

India has made the creation of the Indian Administrative Service (IAS) and the Indian Police Service (IPS) constitutional (IPS). As a result of the decision reached at the Premiers' Conference in 1946, this was accomplished on the evening before the country's independence. As a result, the Indian Forest Service was established as the third All India Service.

Central Services

(a) The Union's Civil Services are divided into four groups as follows:

    (i) Class I: This category includes posts in the Central Health Service, the Indian Foreign Service, the Railway Service, and the Central Secretariat Service, among others.

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(ii) Class II: This category includes positions such as Telecommunications Traffic Service, General Administration Steno Service Grade I, and Telegraph Engineering Service, among others.

(iii) Class III: This category includes posts in the Posts and Telecommunications Accounts Service, the Central Secretariat Bookkeeping Service, and other similar positions.

(iv) Class IV: This group includes office boys, cleaners, and gardeners, among others.

(b) Central Service in General. Fundamental civil roles of any segment not integrated in any other National capital Civil Service are assumed to be covered by the General Central Provider of the comparable class, and a management assistant selected for any such job is assumed to be a member of that service unless he or she has previously been a member of any other crucial civil service of the comparable class.

Civil Service of the State

These are service occupations that are exclusively under the control of the state administration and are primarily responsible for managing state affairs.

Nevertheless, in recent times, numerous vacancies in the All-India Corporation have been filled via advancement from the Government Civil Systems. The statutory concept of concurrent topics, central subjects, and state subjects is appropriately echoed by this three - tier structure of services, viz., All-India, Central, and State. This is an unique feature of India's federal structure that has not been seen anywhere else.

Pay and Conditions of Service

A suitable pay structure is the prerequisite of an efficient personnel system. In the United Kingdom, Royal Commissions/Committees—Northcote-Travelyan Commission (1854), Anderson Committee (1923), Tomlin Commission (1931), Priestley Commission (1953-55), Fulton Commission (1966–68) and Megaw Committee (1982) were selected to go into the pay structure and state of affairs of the civil services.

In India as well, various pay commissions were established during the British rule. In the post-Independence period, as many as five Central Pay Commissions have been constituted at the national level since 1946. The states have also been hiring their own Pay Commissions Committees. The Fifth Central Pay Commission was chosen in 1994 with Justice S. R. Pandian as its Chairman. It presented its report on 30 January 1997. Some of the states have been consenting the sanctions of the Central Pay Commission as did Haryana in case of the recommendations of the Fifth Central Pay Commission. The state of Punjab has employed as many as four Pay Commissions beginning with 1968. The Fourth Pay Commission was appointed on 21 July 1994 with Justice S. S. Sandhawalia as its Chairman.

Various committees and boards had expressed principles to be followed in determining the pay structure and conditions of service of civil servants. Anderson

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Committee (1923) had observed: In our view, there is only one rule in which all the agents of duty, cost of living, marriage, children, and social position etc., are comprised. The employer ought to pay what is essential to recruit and to keep an efficient staff. Priestley Commission spoke of 'an efficient civil service fairly remunerated' expressed more completely as the maintenance of a civil service known as efficient and staffed by members where payment and conditions of service are thought reasonable both by themselves and the community they help. This model can in fact never be unconditionally achieved but the goal must be to handle it as closely as possible.

Principles of the Pay Structure

The salient principles of pay structure and conditions of service of civil servants may be enunciated in brief as follows:

1. **Requirements of a pay system:** There are three major obligations of a sound pay system: inclusiveness, unambiguousness and adequacy. All-inclusiveness implies that the broad designs of pay scale that have been accepted for the civil services will be uniform ubiquitously in comparable areas.

   Comprehensibility means that a sound pay system should usually give a total and correct picture of remunerations of a post rather than being disjointed into a number of stipends. Suitability means that the civil servant must sense that his emoluments are satisfactory with regard to his skills, instructive qualifications, experience and obligations and responsibilities, and that they are analogous to his peers outside.

2. **Market Value Principle:** This belief rests on supply and demand considerations. In the interpretation of the Islington Committee, the State should pay no more than what is essential to entice employees of the right quality, in the first instance, and to preserve them in such a degree of comfort and self-respect as well as keep them well-organized and above lure while in service. This principle is also called the hiring-retention principle. In India chiefly, where unemployment and extreme poverty are widespread, the principle has been described as abusive. Anyhow, it is a virtuously economic criterion which still has some significance in the present trend of liberalization of the economy and the approval of market forces.

3. **Fair Comparison Principle:** This belief means that the civil service pay should be a reasonable comparison with the current compensation of outside staff working on broadly analogous work taking account of changes in other conditions of service.

4. **Internal Relativities Principle:** Pay structure is also to take acquaintance of interior relativities—vertical and horizontal. The former envisions different pay edifices for the supervisor and for those he oversees, and the latter imagines a claim to likeness or equality with allied or parallel jobs within the service itself.

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5. **Principle of State as a model employer:** This principle embraces that the government should give to its employees salaries and wages much advanced than that what other good employers pay for comparable work. The State has to keep a equilibrium between the economic authenticities within the country vis-a-vis the social determinations. It is obvious that government employees are not to be elevated to the level of a advantaged class and employment within be made a high-wage key.
6. **Capacity to pay Principle:** The capacity of the employer to pay its employees is a pertinent, if not the dominant, factor. Even the International Labour Organization had, in 1968, openly listed the ability to pay of the employer as one of the essential basics of pay structure along with the need of the workers and the wages for analogous work. What would be correct with respect to private or corporate employment would be correct to some extent also with respect to State employment as well.
7. **Equal pay for equal work:** Article 39 of our Constitution delivers equal pay for equivalent work for both men and women. The object is one of the Directive Principles of State Policy which are no more devout wishes or moral decree. The principle of equal pay for equal work is not a measly democratics logan but a legal statutory goal which is attainable through constitutional cures by the enforcement of constitutional rights enforceable in the court of law.
8. **Minimum and maximum work payment:** Another noteworthy principle for planning a pay structure is the, deliberation of the minimum work payment at the base level and the highest at the apex, and the difference ratio between the two should not be permissible to get out of hand.
9. **Per Capita income and the pay structure:** Per capita income of a state ought to have a straight linkage to the fixing of the pay edifice of its civil services. Accordingly, pay scales in Punjab are usually higher than those of the Central Government and most of the other states and the staff organizations necessitate that these should be further risen.

Though there is a measure of truth and relevance in each of the grander principles of pay structure, yet the fixing of pay structure and their review from time to time may not be appropriate virtuously on academic consideration.

Check Your Progress

4. What is the origin of civil services in India?
5. What was the significance of 1919 and 1935 Acts for civil services in India?
6. What is the classification being followed after independence in civil services in India?

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3.4 UNION PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

Union Public Service Commission (UPSC) inhabits an essential place in our statutory structure and its connection with the regime is dense. It is an autonomous statutory body for unbiased contemplation of service concerns of government workers. It has vital statutory responsibilities and duties but has only an advice-giving role, while the definitive power lies with the administration. In a elected representative system, the choice commission has to endeavour in the direction of an effective and cost-effective administration and construction of public service preserving the standards of a representative government. In a people's well-being-oriented state, the purpose of service to the people all the more confounds the mission of personnel administration. The triumph or failure of a system is judged by the capacity of the organization in personnel management to attain the above objectives.

3.4.1 Constitution of UPSC

The composition of India envisions three groups of Public Service Commissions. The Union Public Service Commission is to oblige the requirements of the services of the Union, a Joint Public Service Commission for the service jobs of two or additional States and a State Public Service Commission (SPSC) for the public services of a State. Even as UPSC and SPSCs are statutory bodies, a Joint Public Service Commission is to be formed by an Enactment of Parliament.

Composition, Appointment and Terms of Members

The UPSC is made of a Chairman and other affiliates of the Public Service Commission. The Chairman and other affiliates of the Public Service Commission (Union or Joint) intend to be selected by the Head of the state and in the situation of a State Commission by the Governor of the State. The constitution does not set-up the figure of affiliates of the Commission, which is given, for the Head of the state to establish. Partial of the affiliates of the Commission ought to be people who have held Bureau under the Government of India or of a State at minimum for ten years. The Chairman and affiliates of the UPSC embrace Office for a period of six years or up until they arrive at the age of 65 years any of which is earlier. However a member's office may be concluded earlier if (i) he quits his Office in inscription to the Head of the state or (ii) he is eliminated from Office by the Head of the state.

An affiliate may be eradicated from Office by the Head of the state if he is a pronounced bankrupt, or engrosses in any paid service outside the obligations of his Office or, is in the judgement of the Head of the state is sickly in cognizance or physique. He/She cannot be separated from Office on any other basis apart from if the Supreme Court discovers him culpable of demonstrated misconduct on an allusion made to it by the Head of the state. The expression 'misbehaviour' has been described in the Constitution. An affiliate will be believed to be culpable of misbehaviour if (i) he is engrossed or involved in any bond or deal made in the name of the Government of India or of a State or (ii) if partakes in any way in the revenue of such bond or pact in collective with the other affiliates of an amalgamated company.

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3.4.2 Functions

The jobs of the UPSC as stated under Article 320 of the Constitution carry similarity to those of the Centralised Public Service Commission as spelled out in Government of India Act 1935. These roles may be largely categorized into three groups, viz., (1) regulatory; (2) executive and (3) the quasi-judicial.

1. **Regulatory:** Among its regulatory responsibilities, the UPSC advises the government on issues such as I hiring methods and (ii) philosophies to be followed in the creation of jobs, raises, and shifts from one use to another. In contrast to the regulatory authority given on the United States Civil Service Commission (USCSC), the UPSC in India has less such powers. The UPSC's authority is only consultative. Article 320 (3) of the Constitution clearly states that the Commission's role is to advise the government on all matters relating to civil service manning, elevations, and relocation. Consequently, contrasting the USCSC, the UPSC cannot formulate rules and conventions on personnel themes which will be compelling on all government realms. Even though particular jobs of the UPSC are often pronounced as being monitoring ones but in actuality these are essentially advisory tasks.
2. **Executive Functions:** The Commission has a precise statutory responsibility of running examinations for selections to the services of the Union. Within this obligation the UPSC handles numerous written tests for diverse groups of post per annum, in addition to the holding of cross-examines for choice of candidates for particular categories of positions. Again, the Commission's jurisdiction is somewhat confined to gazetted officers, who represent a small percentage of the total number of government employees. This means that the Commission's decision-making ability is limited to only 1.9 percent of the Central Government's total workforce. Another executive responsibility of the UPSC is to present an account of the Commission's work during the previous year to the Head of State every year. The Head of the state is obligated to present the report in front of both houses of the Parliament with a note clarifying the cases, if any, where the guidance of the Commission was not received or admitted and explanations for such turn-down.
3. **Quasi-judicial Functions:** The UPSC's quasi-judicial authority is limited in scope and size. It has no meaningful appellate power in reality. It can only serve as a guide for disciplinary actions taken against employees. According to the Constitution, the ruling management must consult the Commission on the following issues:
   (i) All punitive actions taken against a government employee, such as condemnation, denial of raises or advancement, reduction to a lower grade, mandatory retirement, elimination or expulsion from service, and so on.

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(ii) Compensation claims for allegations levelled against a worker in judicial proceedings stemming from actions taken in the performance of his duties.

(iii) Assertions for the payment of a pension for damages suffered by an employee, as well as any doubts about the amount of any such compensation.

The UPSC obtains its functions, excepting the Constitution of India, from other foundations too like (a) the acts made by the Parliament, (b) rules policies, regulations and directives of the decision-making bodies, (c) standards and customs. The legislature can bestow additional powers on the UPSC relating to Union or State services through law, according to Article 321 of the Constitution. And in case it is considered essential, the Parliament can position the personnel system of any regional mandate, corporal body or municipal institution contained by the dominion of the Commission.

As per Article 318 and 320 of the Constitution, the Central Government via specific guidelines and directives delegates particular jobs to the Commission. Moreover, the Head of the state may outline now and then through guidelines, the concerns in which the Commission not necessarily be consulted. The Commission also decides on certain tasks that have been assigned to it based on principles, even though they are not mentioned in the Constitution. Staffing for the Defence Forces is outside the Commission's purview under the Constitution, as the protection service is not part of the Civil Service. Nonetheless, the Commission has been conducting written tests for the selection of experts and specialists for a group of highly qualified scientists and technicians who are delegated to the Central Government, technical institutions, national research laboratories, institutions of higher education, and other organizations since 1948. These purposes are being fulfilled by the UPSC on the footing of customs and standards only.

3.4.3 Advisory Role of UPSC

Despite the fact that the Commission has been assigned with significant statutory responsibilities and purposes, it has been apportioned merely an advice-giving and review role. The Federal Public Service Commission's rank was consultative in nature under the Government of India Act 1935. It was thought at the time that conferring unwarranted authority on the Commission would lead to it interfering with decision-making influences. The UPSC's sole mission is to advise the administration, and there is no legal obligation for decision-makers to accept its advice.

The fundamental question is whether the Commission can realistically carry out its objectives while providing recommendations. Consequently, the difficulty is whether a duty formed on the restricted advice-giving foundation would order the protection of the people and of the services to the point which is required, if it works realistically. However there is a perspective that Public Service Commission's position ought to be consultative in nature. This query was discussed

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in constituent Assemblage Meeting also and the Constitution fabricators provided an advice-giving role to the Commission.

It may be thought that beneath the Constitution, there are particular issues considering which the government is constrained to take the recommendation of the Commission. Whichever is the disruption of this prearrangement it would be considered unauthorized. However, the government is beneath no commitment to agree to the counsel of the Commission. Simultaneously, the introduction of a new Article 323 in the Constitution imposes a constitutional limitation on the Commission's counsel's refusal to agree. In the event that the Commission's recommendation is not accepted, the government is required by this article to present a letter to the legislature clarifying the reasons for the rejection. Furthermore, in dealing with the Commission's counsel, the Ministry or Department's influence has been purposefully limited, so that the instruction cannot be vetoed unless it has the backing of the Cabinet's Employments Committee. Without the Committee's approval, no case can be grabbed by any management department contrary to the Commission's advice. Because of these internal and external checks, the number of instances of non-agreement with the Commission's advise has been minimal.

Check Your Progress

7. What is the composition and tenure of UPSC?
8. What is the main function of UPSC?
9. What is the primary advisory function of UPSC?

3.5 HIRING

The most important action in the administrative structure is hiring. The process of hiring determines the character and competence of civil officials. The usefulness and value of the government and organization to the public is dependent on a solid hiring strategy. If the hiring process is disorganised and ineffective, lifeless, inept, and unproductive people will be admitted to the public service, rendering management permanently feeble and unproductive. Even finest strategies of training and advancement are unable to recuperate the ability and competence of incorrectly recruited individuals and make them brilliant and resourceful. It is, consequently, essential that the hiring rule ought to be rigorous and it should be executed objectively and professionally.

Hiring is the access juncture of the individuals in the civil services. It is crucial to a robust public service. As stated by Stahl, hiring is *"the cornerstone of the whole public personnel structure"*. In the contemporary eras, because of scientific development, administration has become growingly multifaceted, complex and convoluted. It necessitates the finest, the gifted, the brilliant and the most competent persons to the administration. Furthermore, in recent years, civil service has become the most important career service employment. The hiring plan is more important than any other aspect of the professional service.

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In ancient India and China, where philosophies of virtue and aptitude system and competitive exams were championed, the necessity of a detailed hiring regulation was understood. In recent years, nearly every country has embraced the ability system for public worker manning.

3.5.1 Meaning of Hiring

The expression 'hiring' is devoid of a particular meaning. In the view of some authors like L.D. White, connotation of the term 'hiring' is restricted to entice the appropriate and suitable candidate for the position to be met. A number of other writers opine that hiring is the complete procedure of filling the available unoccupied posts, commencing from billboard to the choosing and positioning of the selected individuals in the free post. In the terminology of J.D. Kingsley, *"Public hiring may be defined as that process through which suitable candidates are induced to compete for appointments to the public service"*

Accordingly, we can opine that hiring is a fundamental part of the broader course of 'selection', which comprises the procedure of examinations, dialogs and documentation etc. The whole procedure of satisfying the vacancies in the government services appear to be extensive than hiring. Hiring, on the other hand, is commonly accepted as the mechanism by which persons are recruited into the services to fill vacant positions.

In both private and public administration, hiring is a civic movement. However, it is important to remember that in the public sector, recruiting is governed by legislative requirements and governmental attitude. In the case of private administration, there are no such limitations.

3.5.2 Principles of Hiring

Prominent basics of hiring are:

1. All workforce's practice, viz. staffing, training, vocation preparation and growth, accomplishment assessment, etc., are related and ought to be valued in entirety; not fragmentary, for comprehensive enhancement of organizational practice. As a precondition to all-encompassing personnel administration, design and progress of hiring strategies and processes ought to be in harmony with nation-wide personnel course of action and the extensive organizational, municipal and national, socioeconomic objectives including *'authoritative allocation of values'* to be done by the governing leaders. In this background, predicament regarding *'liberty'* and *'equality'* claims may not at all times be effortlessly doable. The allusion here is to fairness necessities vs. excellence contemplations in public service.
2. The hiring procedure ought to be related with the organization-wide workforce or personnel strategy for reasons of frugality and prepared accessibility of personnel with associated inferences for organizational competence. The development of the course of workforce development is

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from micro to macro, anticipated as a sequence of circular rings moving towards the outside.

3. The mesh for hiring ought to be hurled wide to stretch out broadest in fulfilment of 'the best available' endowment, to the degree feasible.
4. Administration ought to inspire workforce contribution in preparation and application of hiring tactics to make them tangible.
5. The hiring procedure ought to be prudently schemed, ordered, guided and disciplined. POSDCoRB portrays definite administrative happenings as it does the full (at consecutive large scale ranks), structural, or at the rank of the state.
6. Hiring ought to engage fair and objective measures to construct the assurance of the public, especially potential employees. Lawful facet ought to also be watched for. Both structural and individual welfares ought to be delivered through receptive and benign policy.
7. Least time and capital amount ought to be suffered. For instance, means and measures which help speedy disposal of requests should be utilized. All practices used should safeguard economy in addition to efficiency as also precision with respect to purposes of the labour or practice.
8. Hiring organizations ought to display constructive attention in integrating notional postulates outlined as ideal. Scholastic and realistic spheres ought to adjoin successfully.

3.5.3 Process and Techniques

The procedure of staffing, usually, entails a number of stages which may be concisely specified as:

1. Summonsing of the jobs/ positions,
2. Finalizing the provisions and attributes and other qualities of hiring policy,
3. Fabricating of the application documents,
4. Billboard of the posts/ tests etc.,
5. Inspection of submissions,
6. Conducting of tests, interviews, other assessments etc.,
7. Accreditation,
8. Choice,
9. Assignment, and
10. Positioning.

The diverse techniques of Hiring pursued in India are as follows:

- Advancement
- Straight Hiring
- Delegation

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- Allocation
- Reengagement
- Short Term Agreement

Hiring strategy may comprise a pledge to comprehensive values such as satiating positions with the best capable individuals. It may incorporate several concerns such as degree of raise upgrade from within, outlooks of readiness in recruiting its old workers, hindrances, marginal groups, women workers, job-sharing employees, networks and family unit of present employees. It may likewise include the organization system to be advanced for applying hiring plan and procedures. A well thought-out and pre-calculated hiring strategy, founded on business goals, analysis of state of affairs and the corporate wants, may escape rushed or imprudent decisions and may go a extensive way to staff the organization with the appropriate sort of personnel. A decent hiring strategy has got to include the following components:

- Organization's purposes - both short stretch and long stretch.
- Recognition of the hiring wants.
- Desired causes of hiring.
- Standards of choice and favourites.
- The price of staffing and monetary inferences of the same.

A hiring strategy in its extensive sense includes a promise by the employer to (i) discover the best capable people for each one job; (ii) keep the best and most favourable of those appointed; (iii) propose encouraging prospects for life-time operational careers; and (iv) deliver programmes and services for private progress on the job.

3.5.4 Problems of Hiring

The hiring action is believed to charm the precise people at the exact time. It is related with inviting those whose individualities, concerns, and predilections are most probable to be in step with the organization and who possess the abilities, knowhow, and capacities to accomplish sufficiently.

Numerous companies think that charming and retaining staff is principally a fiscal factor. Prizes and paybacks are the two rudimentary aspects that entice individuals to labour for a company and these come in two arrangements: (i) concrete (for instance monetary), and (ii) subtle (for instance guidance, career trails, operational environment). Yet, in the staffing procedure, people typically state too much stress on the matter of work payment, overlooking from time to time that it is more significant to discover the true contender for the job and that the procedure starts with exhausting the appropriate employment methods.

Hiring drills fluctuate from one administration to another. Certain organizations take recourse to unified hiring and certain others to dispersed hiring. Individually the schemes have their virtues and disadvantages. Therefore, the

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administration has to consider both the virtues and disadvantages of each scheme before taking a concluding judgement about consolidating or dispersing the hiring.

Aside from gazing at diplomas and knowhow, other temperament qualities like keenness to study and familiarize, freedom and ingenuity are just as valuable. Moreover, having a plausible and rational mind, they have to be keen to attempt and not to be frightened of disappointment.

Usually, organizations do not face trouble in discovering satisfactory workers for labour-intensive, ecclesiastical, transactions, and all-purpose types of work. Nonetheless they frequently do have a difficulty in getting the professional and executive aptitude they need. The rising difficulty and erudition of technology has meant that swelling numbers of specialists and directors are wanted to proceed our modern organizations.

The far-sighted answer to the scarcity of personnel in these arenas is for reserved organizations, administration, and the social order in general to start programmes that will conduit more youthful men and women into these arenas and to provide more monetary sustenance to students and scholastic institutions. In the immediate term, the organization confronted with a dearth of capable talent should take recourse to an uncompromising recruiting struggle through such methods as publicity, campus staffing, and acquaintances with organization referring firms.

Manpower bosses have to frequently check and adjust means of hiring and supplies of manpower. Any procedure or resource which is greatly effectual at present may turn out to be quite unsuccessful later on in sight of altered situations. Nevertheless, the majority of managers miss the mark to grow a long-range recruiting agenda via careful estimation. A sturdy hiring plan requires evaluation of each cause and each one method from the position of the comparative abilities of the personnel it has delivered. For every main group of jobs, the current personnel can be assessed footings job success. The assessment process consists of evaluating the current employees in terms of their job accomplishment, fixing the foundations prevailing from which “good” and “poor” workers descend and that of the technique used.

Manpower bosses ought to also try to advance their hiring system. The consequences valuation or glitches confronted throughout the staffing procedure may themselves specify the requirement for the upgrading of the programme. A technique to advance recruiting is to peek into the enterprise as a contender would and taking suitable actions to advance its appearance. Moreover, hiring action ought to be combined with the human resource tactics of the organization.

Check Your Progress

10. What is the meaning of hiring?
11. What is the main process followed in hiring to public offices?
12. What is the primary problem faced in hiring activity?

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3.6 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. People management is the branch of administration that deals with people at work and their relationships within an organization. It encompasses the entire range of a group's interactions with its human capital, from hiring through retirement.
2. Human management encompasses all aspects of the organization of people in positions of authority. Personnel administration's main goal is to prevent actual human resource consumption in the pursuit of administrative objectives. Staffing, skill teaching, promotion, state of service, people welfare, manager-worker interactions, and identity and motivation processes are all aspects of people management that must be addressed.
3. Hiring, training and advancement is the primary function of Personnel administration.
4. The present-day civil service is the result of several changes made by the East India Company and the Imperial Crown.
5. Succeeding the Government of India Act, 1919, alterations were made in the service edifice. The high-class or Imperial Services were divided into All-India Services and the Central Services - a convention that has persisted to this date. The Act of 1935 presented regional independence under liable Indian Ministers, the civil liberties and freedoms of the affiliates of the civil services were prudently sheltered.
6. Civil Services, after Independence, have been categorized into three types-All India Services (common to both Centre and States), Central Services (for purely Central subjects) and State Services (for administration of subjects under State jurisdiction).
7. The UPSC is made of a chairman and other affiliates of the Public Service Commission. The Chairman and other affiliates of the Public Service Commission (Union or Joint) intend to be selected by the Head of the state and in the situation of a State Commission by the Governor of the State. The Chairman and affiliates of the UPSC embrace Office for a period of six years or up until they arrive at the age of 65 years any of which is earlier. However, a member's office may be concluded earlier if (i) he quits his Office in inscription to the Head of the state or (ii) he is eliminated from Office by the Head of the state.
8. The jobs of the UPSC as stated under Article 320 of the Constitution carry similarity to those of the Centralized Public Service Commission as spelled out in Government of India Act 1935. These roles may be largely categorized into three groups, viz., (1) regulatory; (2) executive and (3) the quasi-judicial.

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9. The purpose of the UPSC is simply to counsel the administration and the decision-making is underneath no lawful responsibility to admit its guidance.
10. Hiring is the complete procedure of filling the available unoccupied posts, commencing from billboard to the choosing and positioning of the selected individuals in the free post.
11. Staffing usually entails a number of stages, which can be summarised as follows: (1) Summoning of the jobs/positions, (2) Finalizing the provisions, attributes, and other qualities of the hiring policy, (3) Fabricating of the application documents, (4) Billboard of the posts/tests, (5) Inspection of submissions, (6) Conducting of tests, interviews, and other assessments, (7) Accreditation, (8) Choice, (9) Assignment, and (10) Positioning.
12. The main problem in hiring is that hiring drills fluctuate from one administration to another and there is difficulty in getting the professional and executive aptitude needed.

3.7 SUMMARY

The demands on staffs, at all levels, in terms of well liberation of their obligations grow as the obligations, actions, and programmes of organizations, whether public or private, multiply.

As a result, people's administration's responsibility is to provide a steady base of voters who can contribute to an organization's success while also dealing with the mounting fears of advancement.

People management entails planning, developing, concentrating, coordinating, and evaluating the appropriate labours of individuals inside a company. Personnel are required to achieve the goals of 'line' and 'staff.' In such cultures, the work of people management becomes increasingly difficult. Staffing must fulfil the key tasks of employee inspiration and confidence since it deals with people all the time.

It must meet the growing demands of the public as well as the expanding potential of its employees. People management encompasses all aspects of the organization of people in positions of authority.

Personnel administration's main goal is to prevent actual human resource consumption in the pursuit of administrative objectives.

Staffing, skill teaching, promotion, state of service, people welfare, manager-worker interactions, and self-esteem and inspiration processes are all aspects of people management that must be addressed.

It must develop relationships with the immediate, intermediate, and outer environments in order to become operational and well-organized. The rise of public service providers In India is hardly a product of contemporary India nor, as is commonly assumed, a result of the British regime's involvement in the country.

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Even though it lacked a strong functioning agenda or formal regulations, there is proof of the presence of a civil service superstructure in ancient India.

However, for the first time, the British hosted the civil service tenure and the plan as we know it.

The present-day civil service is the result of several changes made by the East India Company and the Imperial Crown. The main turning points in civil service development in India are Advent of The East India Company; Imperial Civil Service (1858-1917); Civil Services Under the Government of India Acts, 1919 And 1935; Civil Services in The Post-Independence Era.

Union Public Service Commission (UPSC) is an autonomous statutory body for unbiased contemplation of service concerns of government workers. It has vital statutory responsibilities and duties but has only an advice-giving role, while the definitive power lies with the administration. The composition of India envisions three groups of Public Service Commissions. The Union Public Service Commission is to oblige the requirements of the services of the Union, a Joint Public Service Commission for the service jobs of two or additional States and a State Public Service Commission (SPSC) for the public services of a State.

Hiring is a fundamental part of the broader course of 'selection', which comprises the procedure of examinations, dialogs and documentation. The diverse techniques of Hiring pursued in India are as follows: Advancement; Straight Hiring; Delegation; Allocation; Reengagement; Short Term Agreement. The main problem in hiring is that hiring drills fluctuate from one administration to another and there is difficulty in getting the professional and executive aptitude needed.

3.8 KEY TERMS

- **Superannuation:** The retirement of a member of staff, particularly with an annuity. In other words, money set aside by employer over employed life for the worker to survive on when he/she retires from work.
- **Manpower:** The sum of persons working or existing for work or service; The total sum of every one of the available wage earners; the workforce.
- **Human Resources:** The department that is responsible for discovering, checking, recruiting, and training vacancy candidates, and overseeing employee-welfare programs.
- **Unionism:** The strategies and exercises of trade unions, predominantly those related with shielding and advancing the rights of workers.
- **Imperial:** Concerning the United Kingdom as notable from the ingredient fragments; of or concerning the Commonwealth of Nations and British Empire.
- **Sealed:** Come to an understanding by lease, charter, or legal indenture.
- **Unsealed:** Not obliged by or consistent with a covenant or agreement.

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- **Quasi-Judicial:** Non-judicial body which can decode law. In other words, referring to, or implementing powers or functions that bear a resemblance to those of a court of law or a magistrate.

3.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What is meant by personnel of an organization?
2. Why is personnel administration an important part of public administration?
3. What is the nature of personnel administration in India?
4. What is the scope of personnel administration in India?
5. When did the civil service concept originate in India?
6. What happened when East India Company took over the civil service management?
7. What was the main highlight of Government of India Acts, 1919 and 1935?
8. What is the classification of services in Indian civil service?
9. What is UPSC?
10. Who all comprise the members of UPSC?
11. Whom does the UPSC give advice to?
12. What is the meaning of hiring?
13. Outline two main principles of hiring.
14. What is the process of hiring?
15. Identify a main problem in hiring activity for public service.

Long Answer Questions

1. What is the main rationale for the institution of personnel administration in public administration? Do you think it serves an important function?
2. What is the nature and characteristic of personnel administration? Is it in line with the changing times?
3. Give a detailed account of the evolution and development of personnel administration in India.
4. Analyse critically the function of Personnel Administration in terms of manpower planning, work payment structuring, hiring, training and advancement and the welfare of the employees.
5. The British developed a civil service system in India that is still being followed. In light of this, give the detailed account of the evolution of civil service in India.

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6. Do you think the classification of services for public personnel hiring is reflective of the needs and requirements of the society or is it too hierarchical?
7. Describe in detail the composition, tenure and functions of UPSC.
8. On what grounds the advisory role of UPSC is justified? Do you think this needs to change?
9. The process of hiring is complex and convoluted for public services in India. Do you agree?
10. Analyse the various principles followed in the process of hiring in India.

3.10 FURTHER READING

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Unit IV Control over Administration

Learning Objectives:

By the end of this unit, learners will be able to:

- Apprehend the various reasons for the control over administration
- Attain an in-depth knowledge of the meaning and nature of administrative responsibility and accountability
- Analyse the various ways in which legislature affects the administrative functioning
- Describe the scope and significance of parliamentary control in administration in India
- Familiarize with the origin and development of Judicial control in India
- Identify the various categories or classification of legal remedies in India
- Understand the application of rule of law through control of judiciary over administration
- Grasp the concept of corruption in general parlance
- Examine the meaning and significance of anti-corruption in bureaucracy
- Comprehend the basic knowledge about the prevalence of corruption in India
- Gain knowledge of the processes and techniques that the central vigilance commission adopts

Structure:

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Parliamentary Control

4.2.1 Role of Parliament in Administration

4.2.2 Means of Parliamentary Control in India

4.3 Judicial Control

4.3.1 Means of Judicial Control

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4.1 INTRODUCTION

The question of Managerial competence is becoming increasingly important in modern socialist democracies, where civil officials are not only responsible for implementing government policy, but also for initiating and devising it, and for using competence and discretion in the course of their tasks. Obliviousness, dispiritedness, and insensitivity to the people's interests, impertinence displayed them, intentional disruptions in the approval of their work, biased transactions, special care to those with partisan bolster and other methods and members of the community, and, last but not least, bribery, that has become a frequent occurrence have all contributed to the government's poor image in the gaze of the citizens.

In Actual operational control, consequently, it is necessary to give protection against the administration's misuse of authority. Administrative responsibility can be described as the obligation of the officials to give a suitable account of the implementation of the powers or responsibility bestowed in them to somebody to whom it is owing. In the absence of delivering the same leads to some kind of penalty. As per L.D. White, *'Administrative responsibility consists of the sum total of the constitutional, statutory, administrative and judicial rules and precedents and the established practices by means of which public officials may be held accountable for their official action.'* Pfiffner makes a distinction between the terms "responsibility" and "accountability" He claims that accountability refers to the right and specific position of duty, whilst liability is a very personal moral trait that has little to do with official status or authority. The term "responsibility" refers to a public servant's sensitivity to public desires, but "accountability" refers to the particular technique and procedure by which the public servant's obligation is carried out. As a result, responsibility is individual and emerges from inside. Accountability, on the other hand, is detached and operates independently of interior emotion.

Internal control and external control are the two main forms of administrative control. Internal restrictions are those that have been integrated into the authority structure on its own and operate in concert with the operational mechanism's development. External controls, on the other hand, are those that operate from above and may include arrangements for administrative responsibility to legislature, governance, the courts, and the general public.

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4.2 PARLIAMENTARY CONTROL

4.2.1 Role of Parliament in Administration

'Management,' in the manifestations of a myriad of authorities and agencies cooperating, is now regarded a crucial component in a nation's public management.

The fundamental issue of diverse individual well-being lies at the centre of all governance concepts, whether retained in historic Indian philosophies or laid down in the Directive Notions of State Policy. 'Swaraj and excellent administration' were considered synonymous in India throughout the independence fight. The people's aspirations and the ideas of the liberation movement were entrenched in India's Constitution after independence. The founding architects of the Constitution were certain that people's rights, equality, social fairness, and overall happiness should be prioritised in government.

In order to realise these concerns, governance need an ethical commitment that is vital to all human situations. As a result, the legislative and judicial functions become increasingly vital in advancing governance excellence. The legislative and judicial branches of government are the state's two most essential institutions, each having significant responsibilities and a critical opportunity to participate in guaranteeing that everybody has legal representation.

Legislative is a broad phrase that encompasses a variety of specific terms such as parliament, congress, and national gathering. It goes by a variety of names in different nations. Cortes in Spain, Diet in Japan, and Jatiya Sangshad in Bangladesh, for example.

Parliament is the name given to the union's assembly of elected representatives in India. The Indian Parliament was built on the principle of bicameralism, which means that there are two Chambers or Compartments in the legislature.

When India adopted a federal system of government, the framers nearly unanimously agreed on the construction of two Chambers, one depicting the public as a whole and other the connected units, to establish a balance between visible view of people and the portrayal of components as such.

Democratic republic and authorized representatives are neither wholly foreign to Indian soil, nor are they of recent origin. Following the arrival of the British, India's legislative organizations grew organically. Following the fight of independence, the British government recognised the need to strengthen relationships with the people (1857). The Indian Councils Act of 1861 was a small but significant move in the right direction. Following that came the Indian Councils Acts of 1892, as well as the Government of India Acts of 1909, 1919, and 1935.

These British Indian trials, however, had two major weaknesses. To begin with, these organizations were selected (previously primarily nominated) based on a highly controlled Property and training are the cornerstones of a franchise.

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Secondly, they have parliamentary independence from the Governor-General and the Governors' decision-making authority. The Indian Constitution went into force on January 26, 1950, creating a mature parliamentary form of administration.

The Constituent Assembly was called the Interim Legislature of India, and it continued to operate until a new Parliament was constituted to satisfy the needs of the new Constitution.

After the first national elections in 1952, the main elected Parliament was created in May 1952.

In a parliamentary democracy, the people's dominion is enshrined and preserved by the legislature.

Because of its duty as a keeper of the people's sovereignty, the parliament is the most significant body in the state. The Indian legislative, namely the Parliament, holds a prominent and crucial position in the country's legal framework. It has carved itself an unusual position in the people's respect and admiration as the environment by over time, individuals communicate and comprehend their goals, express their worries, and seek answers to their problems.

It is an organization that has been specifically designated by the people. Lord Bryce (1921) underlined the role of legislature in his essay "Modern Democracies." Legislators, he conceded, are an important component. of the political infrastructure in democracies, but he felt that the "*dignity and moral impact of representative legislatures*" were decreasing as a result of party conclaves and the emergence of coercive organizations.

All the more so, former Indian President K.R. Narayanan (1992) recognized that State legislature lawmakers are intertwined and the fundamental organizations, To cite him: "*Parliament and Legislatures constitute the head and front of the body-politic in India. They are the institutional embodiment of the audacious experiment in democracy – launched by the founding fathers of our republic*…"

Michael Ameller has highlighted that "*in a democratic set up, parliament lays down basic principles which the executive has to apply and which the judiciary has to use as its frame of reference*" (37th Commonwealth Parliamentary Conference Commemorative Volume). Therefore, it is possible to believe that the legislature, out of the three structures of the State – executive, legislature, and judiciary – is superior to the other two components, the executive and the judiciary.

The Indian Constitution produces for a deliberative Assembly consisting of the Chairman and two Chambers known as the Rajya Sabha (Council of States) and the Chamber of People (House of Peoples) (Lok Sabha).

The President of the Republic is an important member of the parliament.

The Leader was built in line with legislative principles and processes as part of the Legislature.

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The President's position in the legislative process is safeguarded by declaring him a member of Parliament, despite the fact that he is not a citizen something like the legislature.

Secondly, he must be involved in the parliament since he is the chief executive and his judgement power coincides with his legislative power. The Indian Legislature is founded as the definitive parliamentary body as a result of the British philosophies of supremacy of law and representative government, yet its powers are not totally comparable to those of its British counterpart. It is a multifunctional company. that performs a number of responsibilities and functions. Parliament's primary job is legislative.

The objective of producing laws used to be what distinguished the legislature as a distinct department of government. Despite the fact that the legislature has taken on extra responsibilities as a result of the intricacies of contemporary government, the house of representatives is still in charge of establishing laws.

Its most significant activity hasn't changed.

In terms of legislative control, we realise that the lower Chamber, i.e., the Lok Sabha, plays a key role, particularly in regards to money bills. When it comes to money bills, the Rajya Sabha has almost little influence and merely serves as a sounding board. These bills can only be proposed in the Lok Sabha, and once approved by the House, they are sent to the Rajya Sabha for review.

The Rajya Sabha is India's upper house of parliament. It has been granted fourteen days to take up the bill. The Rajya Sabha has the option of approving it, changing it, or rejecting it. If the Rajya Sabha approves the measure, it will be forwarded to the Leader of the nation for his assent. If it is altered or prohibited, it returns to the Lok Sabha to be re-evaluated and picked by a modest majorities before being forwarded to the Leader of the nation.

When it comes to ordinary bills, the houses have comparable authority when working together. The Lok Sabha or the Rajya Sabha are the two houses in which these measures can be introduced. A measure that has been adopted by the Lok Sabha can be changed or scrapped by the Rajya Sabha. If the Lok Sabha objects to the Rajya Sabha's act, the content is brought before both Houses in a combined session and by a simple plurality, the proposal is passed.

The Lok Sabha's authority is more directly connected to the Rajya Sabha's than the Rajya Sabha's. The Lok Sabha's determination wins in conflict situations.

A measure enacted by both houses of Congress is forwarded straight to the Head of state for signing. Both Houses have co-equal powers when it comes to constitutional change. The Law cannot be changed except if the Rajya Sabha agrees to change it as well. The holding of a joint sitting has nothing to do with constitutional amendment legislation.

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The House of Commons as a Leadership Development Center

Legislature is crucial in top leadership employment and development, and it contributes authoritatively to the political structure in doing so. "Parliament is the hiring and education ground for ministers," writes Kashyap (1988). Legislature is like a factional battleground, where the weak and unsure are exposed, while the strong find the challenge exciting and thrive. Top government posts and other management roles in mainstream society are often reserved for those with skill, drive, and tenacity.

While serving on several panels, partners of parliament gain extensive expertise in a variety of disciplines and develop into capable ministers. The Prime Minister's choice of ministers is aided by the work of various members of parliament and bodies. As a result, leadership consistency is preserved.

Parliament's Role in Social Planning

The function of Parliament in societal management is similarly significant. In a growing country like India, several policies will be implemented with the goal of changing the country's state in a variety of ways. Only if this transformation is achieved through via new policies and procedures will be developed through a consensus-building approach. Future changes be fair and meaningful. The parliament provides a forum for various services and issues in the polity to be brought together on a shared platform where they may engage in face-to-face debate and discourse. New variants are created in this manner, and a unique value - ethic is produced.

Representational Role

Legislature is a type of government that represents the people. Its supporters come from all around the country and have a wide range of interests. It is the vehicle through which the masses' desires and objectives, as well as their concerns and obstacles, are expressed. It serves as a forum for the general public to express their opinions on societal concerns, as well as for the administration to explain its stance on these topics and the plan of action it proposes.

Kashyap puts it this way:, "*Parliament represents the changing moods and needs of the people. It is not only a microcosm and mirror of the people, but also a barometer of their mood and pulse*"

The legislative body has always pushed for the people's reason, both as a governmental body and as a voice of the people. The legislature always has been a highly alert, attentive body that reacts swiftly to every occurrence, and its lawmakers are both vigilant and thrilled when issues of public importance arise before the House. In today's world, where management's activities and plans have an impact on people's lives and well-being, Parliament's position as a redressing of user complaints, protests, inequities, and breaches becomes increasingly crucial.

Intellectually Stimulating Function

The legislature can use the universal manhood franchise model to educate the broader people about progressive principles and philosophy.

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Politicians and their parties are allowed to attend polls in every community, which is an excellent job of raising basic knowledge.

In order for the system to function as an efficient tool of governance, the election system, the functioning of parliament, as well as other parts of democracy encourage people into becoming enthusiasts and to examine and critique political groupings and management.

Rajya Sabha's distinctive capabilities

The Constitution has given the Rajya Sabha several special powers in addition to the following roles and objectives of the house of commons, which are fulfilled by both Houses. In line with its status as the State assembly, the Rajya Sabha performs these duties independently.

As per Article 249 of the Constitution, the Rajya Sabha can declare that it is in the public interest for parliament to pass legislation on an entailed by the state list if two-thirds of its representatives are present and voting.

Similarly, the Rajya Sabha has the ability under Section 312 to decide on the creation of an All-India Services by a two-thirds democratic majority on a resolution. The Lok Sabha participates in each of these tasks after the Rajya Sabha has concluded its job, and the Parliament somehow doesn't split, assign, or distribute the Rajya Sabha's jurisdiction in deciding what action is required in either situation.

As a result, we recognise that the twin Legislatures, although being founded on different ideas and having separate powers and functions, are synchronised chambers. In all domains, the two Houses have co-equal authority and status, with the exception of financial concerns and the Cabinet of Ministers' responsibilities, which appear to be solely within the Lok Sabha's jurisdiction.

Likewise, the Rajya Sabha has sole authority over the authorities outlined in Articles 249 and 312. In important areas such as the prosecution of the President, the removal of the Vice-President, changes to the constitution, and the removal of Supreme Court and High Court justices, The Rajya Sabha has the same power as the Lok Sabha.

Furthermore, every Presidential decree, crisis declaration, and declaration of the state's core equipment being shut off must be submitted to both houses of Congress.

In addition, contemporary researchers have examined at the house of representatives in a larger context, notably in connection to individuals and political system, as well as the traditional legislative components.

The general assembly, based on these novel viewpoints, is one of the groups that mobilise popular trust and accepts their policies. This is why political promises made during election season constrain not just the administration, i.e. the governing party, as well as the electorate. They comprise a set of prospects about the upcoming course of government strategy and these prospects lay the basis of

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agreement and reception, for pertinent government programmes in imminent endorsing good governance. Legislature has a crucial role in replying to the ambitions of the people and pledge of public functions in the application of accepted policies and programmes.

As a result, Parliament exercises control over revenue, expenditure, borrowing, and financial statements. For the imposition of new taxes or increases in the tariffs of existing taxes, the withdrawal of money from the National Account for public spending, and the solicitation of loans, law-making board is empowered. The Public Accounts Committee examines public financial records and has them evaluated by a legal specialist who is not involved in decision process.

In Indian setting, the subsequent four doctrines of financial restraint are being adhered to:

(i) The management, acting via Ministers cannot procure money by monies, getting a loan or otherwise without the power of Parliament; suggestions for spending necessitating extra funds must originate from the cabinet.

(ii) The second belief is the Power that vests in the Lok Sabha which has the undivided domination of the Money invoices. These must initiate in the Lok Sabha which has the lone power to award money by way of levies or lends and to sanction spending. The Rajya Sabha may discard a funding but not append to it.

(iii) The need for endowments ought to hail from the Government. It is not the Lok Sabha or any State Assembly that may well poll a grant apart from on a request for endowment from the Government.

(iv) Accordingly, the government should be the one to propose a new levy or a rise in the number of an existing tax. Adjournment Debates, Questions, Debates on Enactment of Acts and Amendments, Legislative Committees—Public Accounts Committee, Estimates Committee, Committee on Subordinate Legislation, and Committee on Assurances—are all used in India to exercise legislative control.

4.2.2 Means of Parliamentary Control in India

1. Question Hour: The first hour of each Parliamentary day is set up for questions, which is an efficient control mechanism. The government as a whole can be alerted and on high alert if questions are asked A question is an excellent way to focus public attention on various parts of the administration's intentions and operations in a fun way. A member can elicit a question from the Minister by a variety of administrative activities, but the member cannot compel the Minister to respond. Again the Spokesperon may also forbid certain queries. A question is posed with the intent of getting information, gaining ministerial verdict on a matter, or just criticising the administration on ostensibly weak channels. While many of the questions are minor, a few of them do great harm to the administration.

For example, the 1956 Life Insurance Corporation episode, which resulted in the Finance Minister's written statement, arose from a response to a query. This is a

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well-known, widely utilised, and widely employed means of ensuring accountability.

Associates have been fostering high-status items through their queries from time to time. Concerning the significance of the Question Hour, **A.S. Rikhy**, Deputy Secretary, Lok Sabha Secretariat, wrote,

"It is through question hour that government is able quickly to feel pulse of the nation and adopt its policies and actions accordingly. Questions bring to the notice of Minister many an abuse which otherwise would have gone unnoticed."

Continuing further he said,

"It is through questions in Parliament that the government maintains contact with the public since the members are enabled thereby to initiate the grievances of the public in executive or administrative matters. Questions enable ministers to gauge the popular reactions to their policy and administration."

Expressing about the value of question hour, **C.R. Attlee**, Prime Minister of England had observed:

"I always consider that question time in the House is one of the finest examples of real democracy. The effect of questions to the Minister and still more questions asked publicly in the House is to keep the whole of the Civil Service on their toes."

Likewise, **Hugh Gaits**, a well-known leader of the British Labour Party, had commented:

"Anybody who has worked in a Civil Service department would agree with me that if there is one major thinking which leads civil servants to be accessible, conscious, timid and careful, to keep records which outside the civil service would be regarded as unnecessary, it is the fear of the Parliamentary question."

N.V. Gadgil, the Governor of Punjab, had said,

"By questions and debate, administration is kept under constant and continuous review. The most trivial detail may be fraught with enormous consequences as the Opposition utilizes its whole time in spotting the executive's weak points and once it catches them, it has boundless opportunities to hammer them constantly."

2. Adjournment Debates: This is a method for postponement motion is a tool for keeping everyday routines in check, but it might be used to start a discussion in the Parliament on any specific issue of public importance. If the presiding officer permits, an immediate discussion on the issue mentioned takes occur, thereby adjourning the House's usual business. In this regard, it has been noted that perhaps the Chairman has a habit of not using the words 'serious urgency and of significant concern' liberally.

3. Debates on Enactment of Acts and Amendments: The several interpretations of a law provide opportunities for assembly members to assess the

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measure's overall policy. The study might also be used to persuade the government to change its judgement. In 1951, the administration, for instance, reversed the very controversial Hindu Code Bill. Similarly, if Legislature is consulted about a correction, in the Act, the participants will have another opportunities to talk the same issues..

4. Budget Discussion: With the presentation of the Budget, Parliament has better chance of argument on the budget suggestions. Legislators in the parlaiament possess numerous opportunities of debating the budget, on the subsequent occasions:

(a) Following the staging of the budget, broad-spectrum dialogue takes place. At this juncture the conversation concerning the financial statement as unabridged or any query of values concerned therein.

(b) Voting on permits specifies the second occasion. Debate at this phase is limited to a single category of the Request, and if break is motioned to be redeployed to the particular points extended therein, the debate is adequately piercing and may be fixated on specific points.

(c) Debate regarding the fiscal issue offers an infinite chance to discuss the whole management. As per the expression of G.V. Mavlanker, "It is an accredited belief that any theme can be debated on the Finance Bill and any complaint ventilated. The belief being that the citizen ought not be named to pay, except he is given, via Parliament the completest leeway of representing his opinions and passing on his grievances."

5. President's Speech: Head of the state attends the twin houses of legislature gathered with us at the inauguration of the Budget hearing. The lecture is made by the regime and each agency of the regime answerable for the share relating to it. The President's Communication largely explains in simple terms the chief policies and actions with which the administration would be concerned in the period directly forward. The legislators in each house get an occasion to evaluate the complete sphere of management on the basis of the assumed acts of lapse and warrant.

6. Parliamentary Committees: Legislative expert bodies and groups - Committee on Public Undertakings, Estimates Committee, Committee on subordinate legislation, Committee on assurances, Public Accounts Committees - are instruments of power over administration. Some of these committees use full and significant control, and the expert body on giving securities take on a study, of possibilities, guarantees, deeds, etc., agreed by the Ministers now and again, in the discussions in the legislature house, it details on:

(i) the scope to which such guarantees, contracts etc., have been executed and

(ii) where employed, whether such execution has taken place inside the least time required for the determination. The presence of this kind of a expert body makes Ministers more cautious in making assurances.

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7. Audit: Parliament practices control over public spending via the Comptroller and Auditor General who inspects all Government accounts to make sure that the money established by legislature surpasses without a additional vote and money consumed fits in to rules. The answerability of the ruling regime to rule-making in the arena on fiscal administration is thus safeguarded through the accounts of the Comptroller and Auditor General who has correctly been explained in the manner of leader, thinker and acquaintance related to the rule-making.

Revenue Under Authority

Statutes of the Budget is in no way comprehensive until an endowment has been made for assembling the obligatory dues as needs to be extracted from the people. For this reason, a finance bill is consigned in front of the legislative assemblies. This bill exemplifies the fiscal policy or revenue offers for the fiscal year that is, it comprises all the prevailing taxation arrangements with alteration or without alteration. This exercise is quite in harmony with the renowned standard of democracy that *"no tax shall be levied or collected except by authority of law"* as exemplified in the constitution as specified in the article no. 265. Consequently, though the enactment of the Appropriation Bill sanctions the Funds from the Federation Account will be seized by the government. The enactment of the Finance Bill sanctions it to accumulate taxes. The Finance Bill is the invoice exemplifying the Annually, Lawmakers must accept the public economic (taxation) proposals for the following fiscal year. It is subjected to a general and section-by-section examination. Changes may indicate the deletion or reduction of any tax, but they do not always imply the introduction of a new tax or an increase in the magnitude of an existing tax. The Bill, after being updated by the Legislature and deliberated by the Rajya Sabha, is sent to the Head of state for his signature, after which it becomes an Act. A cash measure is a measure that deals with taxes. a loan of, or spending. Budget tenders are positioned before both the Houses of Parliament at the start of the budget term. The ability for money bills is with Lok Sabha and it is for that reason, the Lok Sabha that ensues with Bill. The treasury presents his annual financial statement to the Lok Sabha, which is followed by a detailed debate on the earnings statement as a whole document in both Houses. No expenditure is exempt from the general discussion.

However, the discussion will just be limited to documenting and imbuing a reappraisal and critique of the Agency's management, and users will have the opportunity to speak up about people's issues. A Money Bill, though, varies from the Finance Bill in the subsequent esteems:

(a) A Money Bill relates solely to tax policy, borrowing or outlay. While Finance Bill has a wider coverage in that it contends with other substances as well.

(b) A Money Bill is a Bill sanctioned to be such by the Speaker of the Lok Sabha.

(c) A Money Bill ought to be reverted by the Rajya Sabha to the Lok Sabha inside the duration of 14 days of its acceptance with its endorsements. if

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some, which the Lok Sabha is not guaranteed to agree to. Difference over a Finance Bill, though, is determined at a combined session by a bulk of the total quantity of members who are existing and taking part in an election.

Control Over Public Expenditure

The work of the legislature does not finish with the balloting of grants for public spending. It has likewise to establish that the funds allowed are exhausted accurately and parsimoniously according to its path. The Parliament has to gratify itself that the

1. funds have been employed to intentions approved,
2. within the expanses seized, and
3. that waste and luxury have been circumvented.

As a result, the Auditor general of India conducts an unbiased examination of all administrative answers, followed by a Legislative sub-examination Committee's of his testimony. The combined accountability of political decision to Parliament is a necessary feature of Parliamentary democracy. The most important authority that Parliament wields over the government is its control over the monetary reward system.

The executive could really not expend funds without the approval of Parliament. Inspection by the Comptroller and Auditor General of India as part of Parliament's spending power is only thorough if it can ensure that the reserves were used for the resolutions for which they were authorised. The need that the accounts be reviewed by an autonomous sovereign, namely the Comptroller and Auditor General of India, protects this. He examines all expenditures by the federal government and the states, determining if the ready money recorded in the accounting transactions as being been spent was lawfully available for and legitimate for the resolutions for which it was spent. He double-checks the Centre's and States' alternative reasons. He submits his evaluation report to the Head of state and Governors so that it may be prepared ahead of time for the Legislature and other state legislative bodies. He keeps track of any underutilised or squandered resources. He expresses himself clearly on matters of accounting and finance opinion that are in dispute, transactions in which significant losses have occurred or may occur, spending on new services, and deviating from recognised standards and benchmarks.

The Constitution has given the Comptroller and Auditor General of India an autonomous position in order to ensure a systematic assessment and full report to Parliament. Because the Legislature is just too large an entity to hold a deliberate mechanical discussion on the C.A.G.'s findings, it sends them to certain committees for thorough examination. A few valuable committees of this type are deliberated below:

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The Public Accounts Committee (P.A.C.)

The Comptroller and Auditor General's review account is presented to the House of Commons. The Public Accounts Body, a special committee of Parliament, is in charge of evaluating the review account.

Rule 143 involving the Control of Committee on Public Accounts stipulates:

1. The Committee will be responsible for reviewing the Government of India's appropriation accounts as well as the Comptroller and Auditor General's account as a result of Public Accounts to gratify itself:
   (a) that the concerned amount shown as expenditure in the accounts was legally available and related to the provision or resolution. which they have been used.
   (b) that the outlay settles to the power which rules it, and
   (c) that every single re-appropriation has been completed consistent with the requirements made in the Appropriation Act, or underneath rules enclosed.
2. It shall be the responsibility of the Committee on Public Accounts;
   (a) to examine such transactions, manufacturing, and profit and loss financial information and asset values as the Head of state may have required. and the C.A.G.'s reports on that.
   (b) to consider C.A.G.'s account in cases where the president may have required him to maintain or examine the accounting statements of retailers and supplies.

The Public Accounts Committee's conclusions on the C.A.G.'s assessment statement are delivered to Parliament, along with endorsements for government action when necessary.

As a result, the Public Accounts Committee is the mechanism in place to ensure that the administration is liable for expenditures approved by Parliament.

The Estimates Committee

The Parliament has been able to strengthen the executive's accountability with regard to outlays voted by it by using the Public Accounts Committee procedure. The Parliament submits the Finance Ministry's estimates to a detailed scrutiny through the Estimates Committee mechanism before they are presented to the Parliament.

The purposes of the Committee are to:

1. account what economies, enhancements in organizational competence or administrative amendment, coherent with the policy implicit in the estimates may be accomplished,
2. recommend substitute policies so as to bring about efficiency and frugality in administration,

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3. scrutinise whether the money is well planned within the bounds of the policy inferred in the estimates,
4. recommend to the Parliament the stages wherein the projections will be staged. The Committee chooses some departments each year, scrutinizes their working in great aspect and makes the propositions on organizations, economy etc. comprising policy problems.

The Committee on Public Undertakings

The COPU's check of Public Enterprises is in the nature of an assessment of the operation of Public Undertakings, which includes important areas such as policy implementation, agendas, organization, financial performance, and so on. The Committee mulls over a section of the C.A.G. document on governmental enterprises that has been forwarded to it. COPU sends the report to the Parliament with its own comments once it has been evaluated.

The records of this committee, in conjunction with the reports of the C.A.G., provide a very functional instrument of Parliamentary authority over government spending.

Parliament's Direct Control

By evaluating the testimonies of the Public Accounts and Estimates Committee, the Parliament exercises up-front oversight over public expenditure. The Committees' findings and the Auditor General's accounts have sparked extensive discussion. The government must respond to any expenditures incurred. As a result of the previous discussion, it is clear that the Parliament supports funding to the government for expenditure, although it will take time to realise that:

(a) outlay is consistent with the rules agreed,

(b) there is frugality in expenditure, and

(c) there is no scam, misappropriation or misuse.

Check Your Progress

1. What is the role of parliament in administration?
2. What is meant by adjournment motion?
3. What is the purpose of question hour?

4.3 JUDICIAL CONTROL

The Court's Role in Governing

Inside the framework of the legislative representative democracy and multiculturalism, the court plays an essential role in the country's government. The judicial is an essential part of governance, and the greatest assurance of social well-being is a robust and independent court. The Indian legal system was undoubtedly seen as a continuation of the socialist revolution, keeping the rights-based approach to men which the Indian population had endured for so long under colonial period, which has yet to be enlarged.

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Historically, the Indian court system has had an illustrious background. The majority of our liberation warriors have been lawyers.

The fact that so many veterans of the independence struggle went on to become lawyers showed that they understood the necessity of a strong regulatory policies in India.

The writers of the Indian Constitution envisaged a justice process that was unencumbered and unrestricted by judgement and legislative authority. India chose a single judicial system, and the writers of the Constitution obviously meant to present specific judicial reforms by building a separate judicial system with the Supreme Court at the helm.

The court plays a critical role in the democratic oversight of a representative democracy that is equal to none.

The court is given prominence of position by the Charter, which entrusts it with legal challenge of legal and executive operations as well as the enforcement of the Constitution's essential rights.

In actuality, because of its function in passing judgement on the actions of those two organizations, as well as its capacity to decipher constitutional provisions, the judiciary has a substantial beneficial significance. The judiciary, as the entity responsible for delivering justice to society, occupies a unique place among the three state organs. Fairness is considered a reasonable precondition of any civilisation since it is natural instinct to anticipate justice and to be inclined towards injustice.

Justice demands that everyone upholds society's command structure and forbids anybody from meddling with it.

Independence of Judiciary

To a large measure, the promotion of democratic accountability through the court is dependent on its autonomy. The very first prerequisite of justice is an independent, unbiased, and capable judiciary. Because judges must dispense justice not only among persons but also between a state and citizens, judicial independence entails autonomy from the authority in power.

The Indian Constitution mandates the formation of a judiciary that is autonomous, impartial, and unbiased. Justice Chandrachud stated that the judiciary's independence is essential "*cardinal feature*" and saw that the "*judiciary which is to act as a bastion of the rights and freedom of the people is given certain constitutional guarantees to safeguard the independence of judiciary*". The judiciary's independence, according to Justice Bhagwati, is a method of eroding the Constitution's confidence.

The core creed of our founding constitution is fearless justice. Certain provisions in the Constitution are designed to ensure the autonomy and objectivity of the judiciary. The choice of judges is one such condition. The Constitutional provisions governing the appointment of Supreme Court judges state that only

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Indian citizens who have (a) served as a judge of a Federal Court or of two or even more such courts in succession for at least five years; or (b) served as a civil rights activist of a High Court or of two or even more such courts in succession for at least ten years; or (c) are illustrious jurists in the President's opinion can be appointed. These conditions demonstrate that no ordinary individual can be a judge.

To put it another way, Supreme Court judges can be extraordinarily competent persons. Written tests are used to decide choices in the lower courts. The candidates who pass the examinations are selected.

We also realise that at this moment, selections are made solely on the grounds of performance. Second, they are provided with job security. They can continue in office until they are 65 or 62 years old if they are chosen (Supreme Court and High Court respectively). Only on the basis of proven wrongdoing or incompetence may they be removed from their job through an accusation procedure. This prosecution procedure is so arduous that almost no judge has been removed from office as yet.

Once the procedures accusing Justice Ramaswamy for monetary misdeeds were introduced, the decision could not be accepted due to a lack of mandatory backing in the Parliament. Finally, following superannuation, Supreme Court justices are prohibited from practising law first before court of power within India.

Fourth, they are compensated well and have recourse to every single apartment and other perks and bonuses.. After their appointment, neither their salaries, grants, or privileges, nor their rights to a hiatus or annuities, can be amended to their disadvantage. During a severe budgetary crisis, judges' pay may be reduced.

Fifth, the judges' acts and judgments in their approved book are impenetrable to scrutiny. Furthermore, until a motion asking for a judge's dismissal is on the table, the judge's actions cannot be considered in parliament.

The Supreme Court, on the other hand, has been acknowledged as having its own basis and total control over it.

It also has the authority to appoint judicial officers and agents, as well as set their conditions of service.

All of these procedures were put in place to protect the independence and impartiality of the judges. As Ambedkar declared at the Assemblage, the founders' purpose was to establish a court and give it enough authority to act beyond dread of the executive or anybody else.

When it came to the Supreme Court justices in the Draft Constitution, the then-Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru taught the same thing.

He made an observation.: "*It is important that these judges should be not only first rate but should be acknowledged to be first rate in the country, and of the highest integrity, if necessary, people who can stand up against the Executive and whoever may come in their way*."

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H.R. Gokhale, the then-Minister of Law, had a similar viewpoint on the impartiality of the court. While addressing in Parliament, he got the impression that the administration is highly focused and keen to ensure that India has a free and resilient judiciary, and that adjudicators would act in accordance with their pledge sans fear, malice, favouritism, or indulgence.

The Highest Court's Responsibilities and Duties

The job of the judiciary is just as vital as the other two representatives, the legislature and the executive. Certainly, the judiciary's mission is to conduct out legal discussion, and it is their obligation to keep a close eye on democracy's working in line with the Constitution.

In the Constituent Assembly, Sir Alladi Krishnaswami Ayyar stated that, "*The Supreme Court under the Constitution has extensive powers, more than the uppermost court, in any other federation. The disapproval, if at all, can merely be that the controls of the Supreme Court are not extensive enough, but that they are excessively wide*" (Discussions in the Constituent Assembly, 1949).

The Highest Court's varied duties and responsibilities are outlined below.

Authority at First Instance

This focuses on issues that are adamantly opposed and brought before the Supreme Court. In any dispute "*between (a) the Government of India and one or more States; or (b) the Government of India and any State or States on one side and one or more other States on the other; or (c) two or more States*" it has exclusive fashionable jurisdiction.

Purview of the Appellate Division

The institution in charge of evaluating and evaluating the decisions of inferior courts and committees is referred to as this. This jurisdiction includes both litigation petitions from the High Courts that are promised by these courts and those that are approved by the Supreme Court in the absence of such assurances. Typically, these petitions are made in situations involving a substantial matter of law of national importance, constitutional interpretation, or death penalty imposed by a High Court.

Regional Directive

The Highest Court has been given the authority of recommendation authority per Article 143. So when President sends a matter of public concern to the Supreme Court, the Court renders a ruling to the President. The Supreme Court might very well potentially decline to offer the President its opinion. The guidance is not obligatory on the President.

Supreme Court as a Court of Record

Consistent with Article 129, the Supreme Court would be a Tribunal of Testimony with all of the A Court's powers include the ability to punish itself for disdaining itself.

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It has the same authority as a Court of Record in terms of punishing anyone who are convicted of perverting the course of justice.

Special Permission to Appeal

The Supreme Court was given this power under Article 136. It may provide special authorisation to challenge any decision, rule, resolution, sentence, or command made by any court or system of laws in India in just about any cause or circumstance, at its choice.

Jurisdiction by Writ

Personal and basic rights are safeguarded by the Supreme Court. It has the authority to declare a law passed by any parliament meaningless if it violates the people's fundamental rights as protected by the Constitution. It has the power to issue writs such as Mandamus, Prohibition, Habeas Corpus, Certiorari, and Qua-Warranto in order to enforce basic rights.

As a result, in the face of ever-increasing government acts and flexible powers placed on a plethora of administrative institutions and public authorities, the requirement to defend and safeguard citizens' rights becomes significant and urgent.

In rising nations where the state plays a critical role in development, the court bears a special responsibility to provide social justice for the most vulnerable members of society.

However, it must be admitted that the courts cannot interfere with administrative actions taken with their consent, even if such actions are unreasonable. They only act when someone asks for their help.

Involvement of the judiciary is obstructive in nature and limited in scope. Commonly judicial involvement in administrative activities is limited to the following cases:

(a) Non-existence of Jurisdiction: When a civil servant or governing center acts outside or outside of their jurisdiction or influence, the courts have the ability to declare such acts null and invalid. In all courtroom, for example, the competent authority is acknowledged for making decisions and conducting acts in accordance with organizational norms and practices. If any power or human other than the skilled power takes action, the court's intrusion can be required under the stipulations of deficiency of dominion.

(b) Error of Law: This group of circumstances ascends when the official Misunderstands the law and imposes citizen duties that are not covered by the law. In legal jargon, this is referred to as misfeasance. In such instances, the courts have the authority to intervene.

(c) Error of Fact: This class of cases is a outcome of error in finding cases and events taken on foundation of wrong suppositions. Any person who has been harmed by a public official's erroneous decision can seek redress in the courts.

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(d) **Error of Procedure:** "Due procedure" is the foundation of governmental act in a democratic system. Accountable government denotes a government by process. Administration technique ensures accountability, honesty, and fairness. When it comes to the implementation of administrative procedures, public authorities should follow the legal process. If the prescribed approach is not used, courts might intervene and the validity of administrative actions can be questioned.

(e) **Abuse of Authority:** If a public official practices his/her authorization spitefully to Court intervention can be sought if a person is injured or if authority is used for personal benefit. It's referred to as misconduct in legal terminology. The courts have the authority to intervene in administrative acts of wrongdoing to redress them.

4.3.1 Means of Judicial Control

The forms and methods of judicial oversight over administration differ across countries, depending on the constitution and legal system in place. In general, there are two legal therapeutic systems in opposition to administrative violations of people' civil freedoms. The Rule of Law scheme is one, while the Administrative Law system is the other. The Rule of Law states that everyone, regardless of socioeconomic or cultural differences, is governed by the very same legislation and the common law of the nation, whether they are a government official or a private citizen.

The officer cannot take protection behind state independence in obligating errors in his official ability. The principal advocate, A.V. Dicey stipulated that perhaps the Rule of Law is responsible for ensuring that all people are treated equally before the law and that all people are subjected to the same law.

In Britain and other former colonies, including India, the rule of law system is a success. It is also widespread in the United States and many other self-governing countries. The tribunals system is based on the notion that administrative acts are handled by separate law and courts. This approach is mostly used in France.

Judicial Review

The judicial review suggests the influence of the judges to inspect the legitimacy and constitutionality of administrative actions of bureaucrats and also the decision-making instructions and the legislative depictions. This is a very important kind of judicial constraint. This strategy is prevalent in countries where the Constitution is most revered, such as the United States of America, India, and Australia. In India, appellate study was restricted by certain constitutional provisions as well as an Act establishing the convergence of administrative judgments in select areas.

Nevertheless, it can be specified that the Legislature in India, unless the Constitution specifies otherwise, a sovereign body cannot disregard judicial review in specified instances. Generally, the authorities do not interfere with good management activity unless it is invalid and void in terms of its scope or form.

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The courts can use this technique of monitoring administrative acts within the scope of parliamentary decrees, just as they do in the United Kingdom, where judicial review is not important. Because of the parliament's dominance in the United Kingdom, many management acts and judgments are exempt from judicial oversight by the courts themselves, a practise known as 'judicial self-limitation.'

It should be emphasised, however, that leading to a shortage of power, administrative activities may be disputed. In the United States, judicial review refers to the whole field of administrative action. In practise, however, the court of law in the United States has restrained their impact in several ways via abstinence and self-discipline Courts, for example, seldom scrutinise some types of decisions, particularly those involving administrative wisdom. Even if it isn't expressed, the courts' authority over judicial review is potentially enormous.

Statutory Appeal

The offended party will have the right to petition the courts or a refinement approach committee operating as a court of law, according to decrees enacted by Parliament and State Assemblies. Occasionally, legislative ratification itself may deliver judicial interference in particular matters.

Suits Against the Government

There are several restrictions, changing from country to country, as respects putting on record suits in opposition to the government for its predetermined obligation. Under written law of contracts, the stated duty of the Union and State Governments is similar to that of a separate citizen, subject to any constitutional situations of limitations that the Parliament can manage under the constitution. The State is only responsible for the byzantine activities of its officials in non-sovereign functions. In the United Kingdom, the Crown Matters Act of 1947 holds the government responsible for the actions of its public officials, subject to specific exceptions. There is no clause in the constitution in the United States of America, with a few exceptions, to punish the government for felony offense or crime. In contrast, the obligation of the State for the unlawful performances of its officials is completely founded.

Criminal and Civil Suits Hostile to Public Officers

The status of public officials' private culpability for actions taken while acting in their official capacity varies by nation. In India, civil procedures can be taken against a civil servant for anything he does in his official capacity after two months' notice. Prior authorizations of the state's head, i.e., the Head of state or the Governor, are required before criminal charges against an official for conduct taken in his official position. Even when it comes to their personal activities, some officials, such as the Head of state and the Governor, are immune from legal action. Ministers, though, do not relish such protection. The Royal leader in Britain and President in the U.S.A. are also safe from legal accountability.

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4.3.2 Legal Remedies Under Rule of Law

In supplement to the already discussed measures of court oversight, there are the unique solutions of Habeas Corpus, Mandamus, Prohibition, Certiorari, and Quo Warranto court rulings. These are known as extraordinary remedies because the courts grant these writs, with the exception of Habeas Corpus, in their discretion and as a matter of right, and only when no other appropriate settlement is available. A writ is a court order requiring compliance on the part of individuals who are the target of the writ.

These edicts are available in India under the Constitution's provisions. And although the Highest Court is only entitled to issue these writs, decrees, edicts, or instructions for the purpose of enforcing Basic Rights, the High Courts are also authorised to issue these writs for the purpose of enforcing additional and other rights. In the United Kingdom, these are known as Entitlement Writs, and they are issued on account of the King as a source of impartiality and fairness. In the United States, they are given in part by ordinary law and in part by decree.

(a) Habeas Corpus: Habeas Corpus exactly entails *to have the body of.* This writ is an instruction dispensed by the court hostile to a person who has incarcerated another to make available the latter to be present before the court and succumb to its orders. If it is discovered that the person is illegitimately or without authorization detained, he will be set liberated. An ally or a family member of the incarcerated person may also request for this writ on his/her behalf. This document represents a significant garrison of individual autonomy and might be considered the cornerstone of personal liberty. If it is determined that the individual is being held illegally, this writ is established as a topic of a right to something plain and clear-cut. However, given India's wealth of natural resources, its use is limited. Preventive Detention Act.

(b) Mandamus: Mandamus accurately denotes command. In case a public official fall short of doing an act, he will be obliged to accomplish the act via this writ since it is a function of his public duties and so interrupts an individual's entitlement. It is an operational writ in terms of judicial power over bureaucratic deficiencies. In India, this can also be released to force a court or judicial tribunal to use its authority.

(**c**) **Prohibition:** It is a legal writ released by a higher court to a lower court, stopping it from appropriating jurisdiction, which is not bestowed with it. Whereas Mandamus controls activity, Prohibition orders dormancy. This summons can only be issued versus adjudicatory entities, officials, or organizations in order to prevent a subordinate court from using surplus jurisdiction. Its significance as a method of judicial oversight over administration is restricted in and of itself.

(d) Certiorari: Whereas Prohibition is precautionary; Certiorari is equally precautionary and healing. It is an order issued by a higher court for the purpose of sending the record of acts in a case from a subordinate court

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or quasi-judicial authority to the higher court for the purpose of determining the legality of the activities.

(e) Quo Warranto: Factually, Quo Warranto entails *'on what authority'*. When any person acts in a 'public office' in which he/she is not allowed to act, the court by the release of this writ, shall look into the authenticity of the person's appointment to that position. If He/she will be expelled from that office if the asserted allegation is not sufficiently proven. It is, therefore, a powerful weapon in the fight against snatching of 'public offices'.

There is one more writ, the writ of Injunction, in addition to the units. There are two forms of it: mandatory and preventive. Preventive injunction resembles the writ of Mandamus, whereas obligatory injunction resembles the writ of Prohibition. This writ allows a public person to be restrained from doing something that might cause irrevocable harm to the rights of individuals. Whereas Prohibition is a writ accessible contrary to judicial authorities, Injunction is a writ, which is released in opposition to managerial and administrative officials.

Judicial Activism

Judicial involvement refers to the judiciary's involvement into the realms of lawmaking and decision-making. It occurs mostly as a result of the government's other structures' inaction. Court system outreach is a strategy of providing relief to the underserved and harmed individuals. In competition with the legislative and the administration, court system involvement is providing a foundation for governance. Court system direct action is the transformation of rulings into decisions that are in harmony with the time's tone and beat.

In short, judicial activism occurs when the Supreme Court and other lower courts behave as campaigners, compelling specialists to engage and, on occasion, instructing the state on policy and procedural problems, rather than exercising judicial restraint.

When we examine the causes of activist judges, we can observe that in recent centuries, judicial activism has mostly resulted from the inability of the executive and parliamentary institutions to operate. Second, it has arose as a result of apprehension that the legislative and government have failed to provide the goods. Third, it occurs because the entire system has been swamped by futility and passivity.

The infringement of basic humanitarian rights has also prompted legal action. Finally, judicial activism has taken on new significance as a result of the misuse and abuse of certain of the Constitution's mandates. Kashyap (2003), discourses that moreover there are certain other circumstances that lead to judicial activism. These are:

"*(i) Once the legislature stops to release its responsibilities,*

(ii) In case of a suspended parliament where the administration is very feeble and unbalanced,

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(iii) When the administrations neglect to defend the basic privileges of the citizens or deliver an honest, well-organized and fair system of law and administration,

(iv) Once the party in control abuses the courts of law for concealed motives as was completed during the disaster period, and

(v) Finally, the court may on its own attempt to increase its jurisdiction and deliberate on themselves more purposes and influences."

Public Interest Court Cases: A Breakthrough in Judicial Activism

A complaint filed in a court of law for the protection of a public interest, such as pollution, violence, or road safety, is known as public interest litigation. Due to public interest litigation, judicial activism in India has grown in importance. It isn't mentioned in any decision or deed. The objective of the public at large has been implicitly considered by judges. The judge must be convinced that the individual filing the PIL has a substantial interest in the matter.

PIL was initially utilised in India to alleviate the poor's misery and uneducated who, because to poverty and ignorance, were unable to seek justice through the courts. Directive Principles of State Policy were given primacy by the Constitution (Twenty-fifth Amendment Act, 1971), They became actionable as a result of this. The desire for courts to expedite governance by considering public interest litigation petitions in order to ensure compliance with constitutional and legal norms has grown.

PILs are brought for a variety of reasons, including preserving ecological balance, pushing local governments to comply with legislative responsibilities to provide civic facilities, and violation of fundamental rights.

It has offered opportunities to people, social groups, customer rights activists, and others, as well as providing legal access and conveying a public interest viewpoint Directive Principles of State Policy were given primacy by the Constitution (Twenty-fifth Amendment Act, 1971), which made them enforceable.

PILs are filed in a number of instances, including maintaining ecological balance, forcing municipal authorities to comply with statutory obligations to provide civic facilities, and vandalism of basic rights.

It has provided individuals, social groups, consumer rights advocates, and others with an opportunity, as well as eased access to the law, as well as a public interest perspective.

Justices P.N. Bhagwati and V.R. Krishna Iyer figured prominently in protecting the nation's highest court's ability to pursue legal options in cases involving public interests. The urge for courts to advance administration by considering PIL petitions to guarantee adherence to constitutional and legal standards has intensified. PIL has been seen as a blessing since it is due to the modest expenses involved in bringing the action, it is a reduced legal recourse.

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A PIL, on the other hand, has a few flaw instances as well. Because of the low court fees, there has been an increase in the amount of frolicsome lawsuits filed. Honest, sincere claims faded into the background, and privately motivated interests began to take precedence in PIL cases.

As a result, the Supreme Court has offered a variety of options for pursuing the PIL.

Currently, Just writ pleas submitted by a wrongly accused person, a general populace individual, or a socioeconomic activist group for the execution of the legitimate or lawful moral codes of a person in people caring or a class of people who are finding it tough to reach the jury for solution due to either because of poverty, incapability, or a sociologically or financially deprived position are considered by the court.

PIL is a fantastic remedy that is also reasonably priced.

As observed by Justice Bhagwati in the instance of Asiad labourers,, "*now for the first time the portals of the court are being thrown open to the poor and the downtrodden. The courts must shed their character as upholders of the established order and the status quo. The time has come now when the courts must become the courts for the poor and the struggling masses of this country.*"

4.3.3. Limitations of Judicial Control over Administration

The efficacy of judicial control upon administration is restricted by many aspects. Some of these restraints are:

(a) Insurmountable volume of work: The judiciary is not competent to handle with the size of work. Annually, the courts are capable to complete only a portion of cases produced before it. Thousands of cases have been impending in Supreme Court, High Courts and Lower Courts for ages together for lack of time. There is an expansion in the cases of lawsuit without a proportionate development of judicial machinery. The old saying of *'justice delayed is justice denied'*, still has a sway. This extreme postponement in the provision of justice disheartens several to contact the court. The sentiment of powerlessness, thus, ends in refutation of justice to countless people.

(b) Post-mortem kind of judicial control: In the majority of the cases the judicial interference comes only afterwards when enough harm is done by the administrative activities. Though the courts correct the wrong done, there is no device to recompense the distress the citizen has experienced in the process.

(c) Exorbitant costs: The judicial process is expensive and only wealthy can afford it. There is some reality in the critique of pro-rich prejudice of judicial scheme in India. Consequently, only wealthy are capable enough to pursue the defence of benches from the administrative exploitations. The deprived are, ordinarily, the abandoned victims of the administrative

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insensitivity and judicial indecision. As V.R. Krishna Iyer indicated, 'the gateways of justice are not available to the poor'.

(d) Unwieldy procedure: Many legal processes are outside the understanding of ordinary man. The bureaucratic oppression scares many from moving toward the courts. Albeit the measures have a positive aspect of safeguarding fair play, in large amounts it refutes the whole process.

(e) Statutory confines: The courts may be statutorily prohibited from implementing dominion in particular spheres. There are numerous administrative actions, which cannot be studied by courts.

(f) Specialised kind of administrative activities: The extremely mechanical nature of some administrative actions operate as a further curb on judicial control. The adjudicators, who are only legitimate specialists, may not be capable to adequately value the mechanical insinuations of administrative actions. Consequently, their rulings may not be reliable.

(g) Lack of familiarity: In developing countries, the majority of the people who are underprivileged and uneducated are unaware of judicial solutions and the function of the courts. Consequently, they may not even move toward the court to remedy their grievances. The courts which can arbitrate only when it is pursued may be powerless in this situation. The general denial of people also results in denial of justice to them.

(h) Wearing down of autonomy of judiciary: There is executive meddling in the working of judiciary. The value of judiciary typically hinges on the attribute of the judges. The Law Commission made numerous advices to safeguard the judicial values of the bench. The proposition to produce Judicial Commission with accountability for judicial employments deserves grave thought. In of late years, there are countless accusations of corruption against judges. This weakens the respect and the efficacy of the judiciary.

Check Your Progress

4. What is meant by the judicial review?
5. What is the writ of mandamus?
6. What is the writ of prohibition?

4.4 CORRUPTION IN BUREAUCRACY

Corruption is described in a different way by numerous advocates. Consistent with David H. Bayley, corruption is a wide-ranging word concealing misapplication of power by means of deliberation of private gains which ought not to be financial. As outlined by Roberts C. Brooks *"Corruption is the intentional misperformance or neglect of a reorganized duty or the unwarranted exercise of power with the motive of gaining some advantage more or less directly personal"*.

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J.S. Nye opines, *"Corruption is a behaviour which deviates public officials from the normal duties. This includes behaviour such as bribery, nepotism and misappropriation".*

In short, corruption is the thoughtful and intended misuse of one's rank position or assets, straightforwardly or indirectly, for individual enlargement, whether it is in expressions of material improvement, augmentation of power, esteem, or impact beyond what is lawful, to the disadvantage, or, the consequence of other persons, or the community, in entirety.

4.4.1 Bureaucratic Discretion and Formal Rules

A widely prevalent thought amongst government workers is that the purported "inner face" (or the unwritten rules) upkeeps the "outer face" (which signifies the bureaucratic guidelines, or the "rulebook"). Industrious executives comprehend that organizations working wholly by the "rulebook" will have problem aiding the public concern exactly since regulations aren't always followed at all times accurate and practical. The inner face benefits to decide when it is agreeable to make use of alternatives in the welfares of both the customer and the organization. From time to time, though, a bureaucrat with a favourite project or favourite position unbendingly places document over products, modus operandi over profits or paltriness in the midst of people. Informally, some bureaucrats agree to be proper. Enterprise becomes a muddy word. All instructions are trailed openly, deprived of any shortcuts. All processes are carried out accurately, even if it is ridiculous and absurd.

If the unauthorized rules are not there to "grease the wheels," the administrative mechanisms lock. Orders, documents and lines pile up. The productivity of public organizations descents and customers obviously grow enraged, but unreliable dishonest bureaucrat yields and goes along. Bureaucrats resolute to help the public good will disrespect instructions that is probable to consequence in their consumers and citizens being apprehended pathways of hazard. Many unprincipled instructions — to pass contaminated food, to endorse defective products, or to verify hazardous drugs — are spoken instructions without a document that can be prosecuted track. Consequently, unprincipled bureaucrats characteristically will not be capable to make an issue of moral public servants who select to manifestly neglect such orders. Nonetheless, if corrupt bureaucrats are in charge persevere in their requests, it may be feasible to halt them by maintaining that they put their instructions in writing. Otherwise, then perhaps the best protection is allusion to the agency-specific "rulebook," in addition to the wider rules enclosed by programs of ethics, the procedures of the Geneva Conventions, government guidelines, and industry ideals. It is by means of good ruling and choice that organizational behaviour can probably most effectively be changed. By functioning via conventional channels, an individual can make respectable usage of a mainly less utilized property — choice. Prudence is a forceful, however noiseless tool for rectifying organizational damages. Because instructions Commanders from afar must be consulted. Implemented by soldiers stationed far below, nearly every single government employee is a person who has flexibility in making some

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judgments. No instructions manual can forestall every likely scenario, so bureaucrats ought to advance considerable executive skills. Frequently their most operative strategies is not to act: They can fantasize they never obtained a modification in instructions and pause to see if anyone observes their inactivity, or they can just say a policy is being held up because of a delay in alteration on technical bases until the present the policy expert has been replaced.

As an illustrative example of sound judgement in decision making, the U.S. Department of Labor secretary George Shultz commanded the Internal Revenue Service to "do nothing" in reaction to Nixon advocate John Dean's unlawful directive to examine the president's "enemies list." Those who sense that their co-workers, customers, or check books are being abused have a diversity of remedial strategies at their disposal. The dated acknowledgement for an assurance a day or two past terminations can by chance be considered to the client's advantage —and to the bureaucrat's satisfaction in terms of a sincere "thank you." Nevertheless, receiving a privilege or gift in repay shifts the action from kind-hearted to immoral. An employed welfare mother who is no longer allowed funds for conveyance to a job as a result of new laws in its place be permitted a superior payment in another group so as to keep her working instead of observing her enticement to work ruined. A job candidate might be provided suggestions about accomplishing a submission rather than having it banned for inadequate information. An upkeep supervisor might silently fix a customer's minor problem (no price, no document trail), though the call was overruled in short order by the manager with a short fuse. In all such cases, supple common-sense conquests over bureaucratic stiffness.

In case the top establishment administration has not heard privately to logic, possibilities are they will have to receive public oppositions to their organization's irrational actions. Policies are seldom carved in full enough particularizing to fully incapacitate policy implementers. A popular proverb among administrators in American capital is that the "D.C." after "Washington" refers to "Discretion Central." For instance, Reagan administration, despite the fact that the administration had mandated a reduction in the size of school luncheons, a "objective" bureaucratic decision to count sauce as a vegetable sparked a major fire under the entire school lunch phasedown effort. When Washington ordered schools not to feed kids who had failed to line up fresh re-eligibility papers, a decision through one administrator to feed remnants to pupils drew front-page news, confusing the order-givers and forcing them to become order-purchasers.

4.4.2 Corruption in India

In India, corruption is all-encompassing and omnipresent. There are very scarce actions in the country that are professed to be uninhibited from this disorder. The World Economic Forum Survey, 2003, graded India 45th out of 49 countries on the uprightness of its officials. The Corruption Perception Indices (CPI), published by Transparency International, has also portrayed India as amongst the maximum immoral. The reports prepared by Transparency International India on the position of corruption in the country, in December 2002, and, 2005, likewise come to the similar inference.

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Generally, corruption in India can be separated into dual groups. In the first group is grand pilfering, where those in control take hundreds of millions in bribes in public purchasing, and in various deals and agreements. The second group contains of what might be termed trivial corruption where the common man wages for the public services to which they are in every respect entitled. There is plenty indication to display that corruption has slackened economic development and poverty mitigation enterprises in India. It has unfavourably disturbed the national safety arrangement, too. The most distressed by corruption are the underprivileged and the most susceptible groups. These groups are deprived of their fair entitlements, as they do not have the capitals to pay enticements.

4.4.3 Sources of Corruption

In the word of Wilson, *"men steal when there is lot of money lying around and no one is watching"*. K Santhanam Committee opines that *"corruption can exist only if there is someone to corrupt and capable of corrupting"*. The Punjab administrative reforms commission has itemized the sources of corruption mentioned below.

1. Absence of appropriate education and guidance of civil servants
2. Low wages
3. Insufficient and unsatisfactory supervision
4. Partisan benefaction of officials
5. Intricate and tardy procedures
6. Assortment of funds via officials
7. Insolvent public opinion
8. Reluctance of people to object to the corrupt

Other sources of corruption are listed below.

Burdensome administrative process: This is a foremost source of corruption. In a third world country like India, administrative measures processes and practices are bulky and slow and tardy. This is furthered by the adverse approach of the bureaucracy and red-tapism. The records transfer from one desk to another as every person desires to evade the accountability of acquiring decision. This effects in postponements in administrative engagement, and the concern to circumvent suspensions urges the growth of deceitful exercises for example giving swiftness money to corrupt officials.

Social environment: The social setting has an influential influence on state bureaucracy. Administrative ethos is a portion of the entire civilization of the society. In Indian society the links of household, class, people, religion and constituency are still very robust. Public servants are consequently incapable to forego their group faithfulness for the sake of the nation. This outcomes in corrupt exercises like preferential treatment, partiality discrimination, casteism, etc. India is experiencing the method of modernization. Older standards are decomposing and

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being substituted by money-oriented motivations. The attainment of wealth by any way has become the principal reason which rears corruption.

Permits, authorises, and allocations: The power to warrant and check regulations has gotten the government the handle of 'license, permit, and quota raj'. This state has delivered enough chances for corruption, subornation, and riches through fraudulent wealth.

Public Skepticism: Because of its cynicism, the general population turns out to be a source of corruption. People's tolerance for corruption is a fact of life; and the perception that those accused of political or bureaucratic corruption will, without exception, go unpunished and continue to accumulate more power, status, and wealth has led to a situation in which even the most determined efforts to combat corruption have failed to make a significant impact.

System of governance: The system of governance in India is also liable for corruption.

4.4.4 Corruption in Civil Services

Departure from usual ideals of lack of truthfulness takes numerous shapes in the shape of dishonesty, benefaction (based on socialism, sectarianism, preferential treatment and favouritism) and unwarranted influence. Kickbacks, nepotism, exploitation of power or influence, black marketing, racketeering and related other practices are not all that is intended by corruption. In point of fact, anyone spoiling public money falls short of integrity.

Under legal terms, 'corruption' is defined as follows in Section 161 of the Indian Penal Code: *"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 type of corruption that is seldom reported is extravagant, wasteful, and overly generous use of public cash.

Excessive public expenditure amounts to laying an unreasonable obligation on the general public by allocating public monies to non-essential decisions or dedicating more than necessary to basic goals.

4.4.5 The Central Vigilance Commission's Task

The Central Vigilance Commission has jurisdiction and oversight over problems that are under the Central Government's decision-making authority.

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Its jurisdiction therefore extends to all Central Government employees, as well as personnel in public enterprises, corporate personalities, and other organizations, dispensing with any matter that falls within the Central Government's decision-making authorities.

The commission also has jurisdiction over the Delhi Metropolitan Council and the New Delhi Municipal Committee.

To begin, the Commission has decided that only gazetted authorities and personnel of commensurate rank would be included in its purview.

Operations

1. It conducts an inquiry of a commercial transaction where a government worker is claimed or presumed to have acted dishonestly or corruptly.
2. It calls for an investigation or scrutiny into any complaint that a public servant used or refused to use his or her influence for improper or fouled purposes, as well as any complaints of corrupt practices, wrongdoings, lack of veracity, or other types of derelictions or offences on the part of the public servant.
3. It requests information from companies in order to employ a single transaction and control over their security and anti-corruption efforts.
4. It can file grievances under its direct control for additional action, which could include any of the following:
   (i) asking the Central Bureau of Investigation to enumerate and investigate a regular case, or
   (ii) delegating the inquiry to the Central Bureau of Investigation or the organization concerned.
5. It may begin evaluating administrative processes and practises to the degree that they relate to the protection of administrative honesty.

The Commission submits a yearly accounts to the Ministry of Home Affairs detailing its activities, with special attention paid to any requests it has made that have not been acknowledged or followed up on. The Ministry of Home Affairs presents this report beside each House of Parliament.

The Central Vigilance Commissioner, who is appointed by the President by permit under his or her hand and seal, leads the Commission. He or she serves in office for six years or until he or she hit the age of 65, whatever comes first. He/she cannot be removed or adjourned from office unless it is for the purpose of removing or delaying the Chairperson or a supporter of the Union Public Service Commission. Following superannuation, he/she cannot take any additional service underneath the Central Government or the State Government.

Along with him/her, the Commission involves one Secretary, one Official on Special Duty, one Chief Technical Commissioner, Seven Commissioners for Departmental Enquiries, two under-Secretaries and nine Technical Commissioners. The Chief Technical Commissioners' Organization has been relocated to the

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Central Vigilance Commissioner. The Central Vigilance Commission is obligated for its being to the executive resolve. It is not a legal legislative body. Its purposes are advice-giving, but 'advisory' in the similar logic as those of the 'public service commission'. The autonomous and self-directed status of the commission, its widespread jurisdiction, and the element that it specifies in its yearly report which Administrative Establishments have not acknowledged its guidance, make the commission an operative tool in that all grievances of corruption or lack of uprightness on the part of public servant are rendered with satisfactory and owed attention.

CVC's Jurisdiction

CVC Act, 2003

- Members of All India Service functioning in relation with the matters of the Union and Group A bureaucrats of the Central Government.
- Administrators/Officials of the level of Scale V and above in the Public Sector Banks.
- Officers in Grade D and above in Reserve Bank of India, NABARD and SIDBI.
- Chief Executives and Executives on the Board and other officers of E-8 and above in Schedule 'A' and 'B' Public Sector Undertakings.
- Chief Executives and Executives on the Board and other officers of E-7 and above in Schedule 'C' and 'D' Public Sector Undertakings.
- Managers and above in General Insurance Companies.
- Senior Divisional Managers and above in Life Insurance Corporations.
- Officers extracting salary of Rs.8700/- p.m. and above on Central Government D.A. (Dearness Allowance) pattern, as on the date of the notification and as may be revised from time to time in Societies and other Local Authorities.

The Lokpal and Lokayuktas Act, 2013

- The Act has modified some endowments of CVC Act, 2003 whereby the Commission has been authorized to lead introductory inquiry into grievances mentioned by Lokpal regarding officers and officials of Group 'B', 'C' and 'D', in addition:
  - Group 'A' officers, for which a Directorate of Inquiry for building initial inquiry is to be erected in the Commission.
- The opening inquiry reports in such subjects referred by Lokpal regarding Group A and B officers are needed to be directed to the Lokpal by the Commission.
- The Commission is also instructed to instigate further enquiry (after preliminary enquiry) into such Lokpal allusions in respect of Group 'C' and 'D' administrators and choose on additional course of action counter to them.

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The Whistleblowers Protection Act, 2014

- The Whistleblowers Protection Act, 2014 enables the Commission as the able authority:
  - to obtain complaints involving to revelation on any accusation of corruption or headstrong misapplication of power or wayward misuse of freedom of choice against any government employee and to examine or root an inquiry into such expose,
  - and to offer suitable safeguards against persecution of the person creating such grievance and for problems associated with it, and attendant thereto.

Procedure

Individual complaints are accepted by the Commission. It also collects information about depravity and misconducts or misconduct derelictions from numerous sources, for example, media reports, data given by the members of parliament in their communications made in parliament, audit protestations, information or explanations in the reports of parliamentary committees, Audit Accounts and data coming to its familiarity via Central Bureau of Investigation. It appreciates the help of voluntary associations like Sadachar Samiti and conscientious citizens and the media.

The Commission frequently receives grievances relating to issues descending within the ambit of the State Governments. Wherever contemplated as appropriate, such grievances are transported to the observation of state vigilance commissioners involved for required action. Similarly, concerns received by the State Vigilance Commission in subjects falling under the purview of the Central Government are forwarded to the Central Vigilance Commission for appropriate action. The Central Vigilance Commission has the subsequent replacements to cope with these complaints:

(a) It may assign the matter for investigation to the administrative Ministry/ Department involved.

(b) It may demand the Central Bureau of Investigation (C.B.I.) to make an interrogation.

(c) It may require the Director of the C.B.I. to list a case and scrutinize it.

Removal

The Central Vigilance Commissioner can be withdrawn from his/her authority solely by a directive of the President on the position of confirmed waywardness or ineffectiveness after the Supreme Court, on an allusion made to it by the President, has, on review, specified that the CVC/ VC, as the situation may be, have to be withdrawn. The President may push back CVC/ VC from office, and if believed to be necessary, forbid him/her from joining the office throughout investigation. The President may, by command, detach from office the CVC or any VC, if CVC/VC, as the request may be:

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1. is announced an insolvent; or
2. has been imprisoned of an offence, which in the estimation of the Central Government, comprises moral improbity; or
3. involves, during his/her term of office, in any remunerated service external to the responsibilities of his/her office; or
4. is, in the estimation of the President, out of shape to endure in office by logic of indisposition of mind or body; or
5. has developed such fiscal or other interest, as is probable to mark prejudicially his/her roles, as a CVC or a VC.

Limitations

1. It is merely a counselling body. Central government departments may or may not give attention to its advice.
2. It does not have sufficient means to cater to the quantity of complaints that it accepts. It is a very insignificant arrangement with partial staff force, as compared to central government organizations it is supposed to oversee.
3. It cannot on its own guide CBI to undertake investigations of any officer with the rank of Joint Secretary or higher. The affected department has to assign acquiescence for the same.
4. It does not have commands to record criminal instances. It can trade only with vigilance or punitive cases.
5. It has guiding controls over CBI. Nevertheless, it does not have the control to necessitate any dossier from CBI or to instruct CBI to probe any case in a specific manner. CBI is under directorial control of Department of Personnel and Training (DoPT), which suggests that the rights to select, move, and suspend CBI officers rest with DoPT.
6. Employments and Nominations to CVC are meanderingly under the rule of the central government albeit the head of the Opposition (in Lok Sabha) is a member of the Committee to choose CVC and VCs.

In sum, it seems that CVC is not as sovereign and free as such institutions are expected to be.

Initiatives

The undermentioned initiatives have been selected by CVC:

- Increasing Workplace Vigilance
- Commission Work Computerization
- International Cooperation in a Modern Preventive Vigilance Framework
- Anti-Corruption Strategy for the United States
- Taking Advantage of Technology to Prevent Corruption
- Public Procurement Integrity

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- Campaign to Raise Awareness
- Whistle-blowers are catered for.

Vigilance Awareness Week

Set in motion by the Central Vigilance Commission, Vigilance Awareness Week (VAW) is commemorated every year in the last week of October and concurs with the birth anniversary of Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, a man of high honesty. The CVC notifies all the departments and administrations to commence activities pertinent to the topic both inside and external to their organization or department and outreach events for the public and citizenries.

4.4.6 Corruption as it Unfolded and Exists in India

The colonist history and the highhanded orientation of Indian administration ensued in the adverse insolence of citizens towards the administration. The breach between the functioning of administration and the anticipations of the people also fashioned a negative image of administration. The democratic - ambitions of the people and totalitarian attitude of administrators shaped strains between the two. The illogicalities in the social condition have stemmed in inequalities. There is prejudice in the dealing of citizens by organization. The social fissure between the civil servant and the resident whom he is likely to serve also is a reason for antagonistic connection between the two. The well-educated town middle class civil servant is anticipated to aid the poor and uneducated rural citizens. As a result, there is a socio-psychological divide between them. Next, there are the enduring postponements in getting things done, and countless rules and guidelines that are not effortlessly understandable to normal citizens. The collective effect of all these issues is the heaping up of public complaints against administration. Some of the collective Objections against the management may be itemized as under:

1. **Inadequate Redressal Mechanisms:** Disappointment in the administration's willingness to respond to public complaints.
2. **Delay:** Failure to act at the appropriate moment.
3. **Favoritism:** Doing or not doing things to please those in positions of authority or people who matter.
4. **Discrimination:** Ignoring the legitimate grievances of impoverished and powerless persons.
5. **Impoliteness:** Using obscene language or engaging in other forms of misbehaviour.
6. **Neglect of Duty:** Failing to perform what the law requires.
7. **Incompetence in achieving the objectives.**

Along with the above-mentioned shared complaints there may be precise grievances connecting to particular administrative sections or agencies. For instance, people have many complaints against the police taking recourse to third degree means like beating, torturing, unlawful imprisonment or annoyance of accused and witnesses. Manufacture of evidences, connection between the forces

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and the criminal world are some additional areas of public objections against police management. The complaints against agricultural management may be mostly connected to the value and quantity of contributions and amenities delivered to farmers. While there may be several particular objections against individual administrative organizations, corruption is the most commonplace among the lot.

Vigilance machinery in the States and Districts

The vigilance system at the state level holds different views from state to state. The majority of the states have a State Vigilance Commission. There is moreover a unique police institution to cope with cases of corruption in both the state administration and the state public activities. The Commission grants Annual Report to the State administration and the similar is located before the State Legislature. At the regional level, there is a District Vigilance Officer. The District Collector hires one of his gazetted bureaucrats as District Vigilance Officer.

Lokpal

The Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC), which was founded in 1966, recognised the difficulty of resolving public complaints and issued its first tentative report on the subject, titled "Problems of Redress of Citizens' Grievances."

The ARC applauded the creation of the Lokayukta, an Ombudsman-style institution.

The earliest organization for the redress of public grievances, the Scandinavian body of Ombudsman, was formed in Sweden in 1809.

The basis of the Ombudsman is based on the idea of administrative accountability to parliament. The organization refers to an officer selected by the legislature to treat complaints against managerial and judicial action. The characteristics are:

- They should be visibly independent and unbiased.
- Their examinations and processes should be conducted in secret and remain consistent in nature.
- Their appointment should be nonpartisan to the degree feasible, and their position should be comparable to that of the country's highest judicial representative.
- They should be able to deal with challenges in the elective field, such as acts of injustice, dishonesty, and favouritism.
- Their records should not be subjected to judicial intervention
- They should have the greatest amount of discretion and control in obtaining information relevant to their tasks.
- They should not expect any benefit or financial benefit from executive management.

Centered on the recommendations of ARC, many efforts were made from 1968 straight on for the founding of Lokpal at the Central level. The Government of India announced bills for this determination in the legislature for many years and

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newest being in 2001. The Lokpal bill presented in 1977 carried in the Prime Minister in addition to associates of Parliament under its horizon. Though the 1985 bill omitted the Prime Minister from the authority of Lokpal, the bill on Lokpal presented in Parliament lately has brought in Prime Minster once more under Lokpal's authority. Ill-advisedly, these bills could not be approved by Parliament.

Lokayukta

The Ombudsman founded at the stage of States in India is distinguished as the Lokayukta. Scores of state managements have created the office of the Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta. Orissa was the first state to license ombudsman law in 1970 and also the first to eliminate the institution in 1993.

The selection of the Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta is completed by the Governor who is the decision-making mind in the states.

The Lokayukta Acts stipulate that the Governor shall select Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta in discussion with the Magistrate of the State's High Court and the frontrunner of the opponent in the legislative assembly.

Terms and Conditions of Office

The Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta have been given a five-year term. The Assam Act, on the other hand, suggests a greater age restriction of 68 years.

The Lokayukta's position is equal to that of a Chief Justice of a High Court or a judicial officer of the Supreme Court of India, and that of an Up-Lokayukta to that of a magistrate of a High Court or, in any other scenario, to that of an accompanying secretary to the Government of India.

The Lokayukta or Up-Lokayukta has been forbidden from becoming a member of parliament in order to preserve independence and neutrality It is unlawful to maintain any links to political parties.

They have been declared ineligible to hold another bureau within their respective state governments after relinquishing office. The reelection of the Lokayuktas is clearly prohibited by all legislation. The Governor has the authority to remove the Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta from office for misbehaviour or incompetence. The mechanism agreed upon for the removal of the Lokayukta is virtually identical to that provided for in the Indian Constitution for the removal of judges of the High Court or the Supreme Court.

Authority

The Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta have been granted the authority to inspect any activity taken by or with the agreement of a minister, secretary, or other public official on a broad or specific level. As a result, the Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta can inspect all administrative procedures from the level of ministers to the bottom echelons. Other authorities, including as the Chairman of the Zila Parishad and other local bodies, have been included to the Lokayukta's sphere of influence.

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Procedure of Investigation

Subsequently to making initial investigation where the Lokayukta or Up-Lokayukta suggests to conduct investigation, he advances a copy of the grievance to the officer and to the proficient authority concerned. Any proceeding just before Lokayukta and Up-Lokayukta must be handled with caution, and the identity of the accuser or the person complained against must not be exposed at any point throughout the inquiry.

The Seventh All-India Convention of Lokpals, Lokayuktas, and Up-Lokayuktas, held in Bangalore in January 2003, highlighted the following: A Lok Ayukta Act is required to restore uniformity to the institution and to make it consciousness of the political administration.

The appointment of Lok Ayuktas might be based on the recommendations of the Chief Justice of India in consultation with the Chief Justice of each High Court if Parliament established a law. This will ensure tenure, salary and pay protection, and a clear strategy for their removal. The workers assigned to the Lokayukta should be safeguarded. Insofar as it is related to government employees, the Lokayukta's accounts should be made mandatory. Lokayukta should present a yearly report on their activities, which should be made public, and Lokayukta should be easily accessible to the public.

Check Your Progress

7. What is the meaning of corruption?
8. Give two sources of corruption.
9. Who leads the Central Vigilance Commission?

4.5 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Parliament employs control over income, spending, getting a loan and financial statement. Law-making authorization is obligatory for the charge of new taxes or for the surge in the tariffs of prevailing taxes, for the removal of cash from the United Fund for public spending and for soliciting of loans.
2. The means of adjournment motion is an instrument of daily routine control, and may be exploited for nurturing a conversation in the House on any precise question of pressing nature and of public prominence.
3. Question hour is an effective means of concentrating public thoughtfulness, in a fascinating manner, on diverse aspects of administration's plans and activities.
4. The judicial review suggests the influence of the judges to inspect the legitimacy and constitutionality of administrative actions of bureaucrats and also the decision-making instructions and the legislative depictions.
5. Mandamus accurately denotes command. In case a public official fall short of doing an act, which is a function of his public responsibility and

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thus disrupts the entitlement of an individual, he /she will be ordered to complete the act via this writ.

6. It is a legal writ released by a higher court to a lower court, stopping it from appropriating jurisdiction, which is not bestowed with it.
7. Corruption is the thoughtful and intended misuse of one's rank, position or assets, straightforwardly or indirectly, for individual enlargement, whether it is in expressions of material improvement, augmentation of power, esteem, or impact beyond what is lawful, to the disadvantage, or, the consequence of other persons, or the community, in entirety.
8. The sources of corruption are many, such as – 1) Absence of appropriate education and guidance of civil servants and, 2) Low wages.
9. The Special Investigation Committee is headed by the Special Investigation Director, who is nominated by the President by a permission signed and sealed by him.

4.6 SUMMARY

The question of administrative responsibility is taking on ever intensifying importance in the modern welfare states.

Actual Operational control is, consequently, required to provide protection against misapplication of power by the administration.

There are various means of parliamentary control in India such as Question Hour; Adjournment Debates; Debates on Enactment of Acts and Amendments; Budget Discussion; President's Speech; Parliamentary Committees; Audit; Control Over Taxation; Control Over Public Expenditure.

In emerging societies where the state is performing an essential role in development, judiciary has a particular answerability to guarantee social justice to the disadvantaged segments of the community.

The shapes and techniques of judicial control over administration change from country to country, conditional upon the sort of the constitution and the scheme of law. Generally talking, there are two schemes of legal therapies in contradiction of administrative infringements on the civil liberties of citizens. One is termed the Rule of Law scheme and the other is termed the Administrative Law scheme

The judicial review suggests the influence of the judges to inspect the legitimacy and constitutionality of administrative actions of bureaucrats and also the decision-making instructions and the legislative depictions.

In addition to the means of judicial control previously deliberated, there are ones of Hathe unusual solutions in the character of injunctive as Corpus, Mandamus, Prohibition, Certiorari and Quo Warranto.

Corruption is the thoughtful and intended misuse of one's rank position or assets, straightforwardly or indirectly, for individual enlargement, whether it is in

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expressions of material improvement, augmentation of power, esteem, or impact beyond what is lawful, to the disadvantage, or, the consequence of other persons, or the community, in entirety.

There are various sources of corruption such as Burdensome administrative process; Social environment; License permit quota Raj; Public cynicism.

The Central Vigilance Commission has authority and controls regarding issues to which the decision-making powers of the Central Government cover. Its authority thus, spreads to all staffs of the Central Government and the workers in public endeavours, corporate figures and other organizations dispensing with any issue descending within the decision-making authorities of the Central Government.

4.7 KEY TERMS

- **Invoice:** An invoice is a time-imprinted business-related record that lists and records a transaction concerning a buyer and a seller.
- **Endowment:** An endowment is a gift or contribution of money or property to a not-for-profit organization, which expends the ensuing investment income for an exclusive purpose.
- **Adjournment:** To interrupt indeterminately or until a later specified time
- **Enactment:** The action of putting something into activity, in particular the act of crafting something into a law.
- **Legal Suit:** Put on record and approach the courts against a complaint (or petition) demanding for legal remedy by judicial engagement, frequently called a "lawsuit."
- **Vigilance:** The excellence or state of being watchful and attentive.

4.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What do you mean by administrative responsibility?
2. What kinds of control exist over administration?
3. What are the means of parliamentary control over administration in India?
4. What is control over taxation? Who exercises it?
5. What is control over public expenditure? Who exercises it?
6. Briefly explain judicial review.
7. Elucidate in brief the writs available as legal remedies.
8. What does corruption refer to in administration?
9. What is the composition of Central Vigilance Commission?
10 Mention the functions performed by Central Vigilance Commission.

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Long Answer Questions

1. Analyze the need and relevance of administrative responsibility in modern welfare states.
2. Why is our administrative system inflicted with the malaise of lack of responsibility and accountability that warrants external control?
3. Illustrate with examples the situations you have observed when administration is not responding to the needs of the people.
4. Do you think our legislature is exercising adequate and effective control over administration?
5. Do you agree that most of the control over administration relates to the financial aspect?
6. Is the judiciary being a protector and guardian of the people in exercising control over administration through judicial review?
7. Analyse the prevalence of corruption in India in general and in the bureaucracy in particular.
8. What would you suggest to eradicate corruption from bureaucracy in India?
9. Examine in detail the functioning and impact of the Central Vigilance Commission in India.
10. Why do you think is there corruption despite the presence of CVC? Would you propose any changes in the system?

4.9 FURTHER READING

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Unit V Administration of Planning

Learning Objectives:

By the end of this unit, learners will be able to:

- Apprehend the various reasons for the need of financial administration
- Attain an in-depth knowledge of the meaning and nature of public budgeting
- Analyse the meaning and evolution of budget as a public financial instrument
- Describe the different kinds of budget that exist as financial administration
- Familiarize with the steps involved in the enactment of the public budget
- Identify the various processes in the execution of the public budget
- Understand the meaning and significance of planning
- Grasp the functions of a planning machinery for a nation's development
- Examine the origin and evolution of planning commission in India
- Comprehend the basic functions served by planning commission in India
- Gain knowledge of the planning machinery at state level in India
- Assess the existence of planning machinery at district levels in India

Structure:

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Meaning and Kinds of Budget

5.2.1 The Concept of Budget

5.2.2 Different Types of Budgeting

5.3 Budget: Enactment and Execution

5.3.1 Enactment of Budgetary Proposals

5.3.2 Execution of Budget

5.4 Machinery for Planning

5.4.1 Planning Machinery at Central Level

5.4.2 Planning Commission

5.4.3 Planning Machinery at the State Level

5.4.4 Planning Machinery at the District Level

5.5 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'

5.6 Summary

5.7 Key Terms

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5.8 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises

5.9 Further Reading

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Public accounting and financial administration are concerned with assigning restricted resources to challenges that governments and other public organizations confront. Like one establishes a personal budget to trace one's income and expenses, same way businesses design budgets to assist in decisions touching profits and losses, and public organizations use budgets to help in forecasting and management. Public organizations ought to cautiously and responsibly run and handle large amounts of money and other resources—taking in levies and other proceeds, acquiring goods and services, financing surplus reserves, and handling debt wisely. From the standpoint of the director or citizen endeavouring to affect public policy, the budget is an enormously important tool for forecasting and control. To be able to accomplish public programs effectively, you must be capable to administer resources, both rationally and governmentally.

Apart from finances and budgetary administration, overall and long-term planning is also essential part of an effective public administrative system. The rise of human knowledge and control over the environment caused humans to recognise the growing importance of planning in a community. Planning is no longer associated with "totalitarianism" or "authoritarianism," nor is it limited to communist methods and approaches. The old assumption that planning is incompatible with a democratic way of life is fast vanishing. Today, planning and forecasting are commonplace; at the highest levels of government, politicians draw out a programme for the future of a country or the survival of humanity. Every aspect of administrative activity must be planned in advance, including goals, policies, organization, funding, work methods, incentive systems, and public relations.

For such nations, programmes based on well-reasoned primacies are priceless, since they cannot afford to waste time, people, or resources. In many developing countries, mapping out and designing plans, usually in the form of a five-year plan for public expenditures, in particular relating to capital creation, has become the accepted practise under which accountable government organizations must look ahead, decide their long-term goals, and approve certain priorities while taking into account the likely demands of various segments of the economy. Individual government entities' goals and objectives are frequently coordinated by a central planning agency in terms of total budgetary resources.

5.2 MEANING AND KINDS OF BUDGET

Without appropriate and sufficient budgetary supply, government functions, policies, and programmes will fail and have no significance. Public finance is the bedrock of the government's budget, or proceeds and returns reared by government which are then distributed to fund public policies and programmes. The budget has

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long been a key governmental policy document in all self-governing governments. It is frequently utilised to control and motivate economic and social acts in the non-public sector of blended economies, in addition to being the primary tool for executing government tasks.

5.2.1 The Concept of Budget

Budget is the axis around which financial administration orbits. The expression 'budget' is derivative from the French word *'Bougette'* denoting a leather bag or wallet utilized for stocking and transporting official papers. The Chancellor of the Exchequer in England was in the habit of carrying his papers in a leather carrier to the House of Commons. He would unlock it to lay the papers enclosing the financial plan before the House. Consequently, from that connotation budget came to stand for papers comprising financial plans for the year.

According to the Oxford English Dictionary, the budget is *'A statement of projected revenue and spending for the coming year, with financial plans founded thereon, yearly delivered by the Chancellor of the Exchequer for approval by the House of Commons.'*

'A budget is a financial statement, produced in advance of the opening of a financial year, outlining the projected revenues and proposed expenditures of a certain organization for the upcoming fiscal year,' according to Herold R. Bruce.

'Budget is a blueprint of finance for the upcoming fiscal year,' Munro says. *'On the one hand, it entails an item-by-item estimate of all income, and on the other, it entails an item-by-item estimate of all expenditures.'*

Rene Stourm, a notable French specialist on budgeting, expresses the budget of a state as *'a declaration covering a preliminary accepted plan of public revenue and expenditure.'*

According to W.F. Willoughby, *'The budget is more than just a projection of revenue and spending. It is, or should be, a report, an estimate, and a proposal all at the same time. It is, or should be, a statement in which the Chief Executive appears before the fund-raising and fund-granting authority and gives a full report on the matters in which he and his subordinates have administered affairs during the previous fiscal year, in which he exhibits the current state of the public treasury, and on the basis of which information sets forth his programme of work for the coming fiscal year and the manner in which he proposes that such work should be carried out.*

A budget has evolved into a conspicuous system of financial management that includes not only a proposal of public revenue and expenditure, but also the entire substantial finances revealed in the ministerial declaration presented to parliament, as well as the systematic administration of the government's financial matters.

Budget has attained particular and special meanings in a number of countries. According to our constitution, *'Budget denotes the yearly financial statement including an estimate of the anticipated revenue and expenditure of the government for the following financial year.'* But in addition to giving evaluations of revenue

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and expenditure, this announcement also encompasses the assessment of the financial situation of the preceding year, suggestions for new taxation, if extra money is desired to shelter a deficit, and suggestions for funding capital expenditure. Occasionally we tell of the budget of a department. It is at that time treated as a counterpart of the estimations of the spending only. It is from time to time limited to the income or taxation portion of the financial strategy only. In England, for example, the budget lecture of the Chancellor of the Exchequer comprises the taxation plans. In the USA, the expression 'budgeting' is applied to mean the complete financial route consisting of the groundwork of budget, its endorsement by the legislature, its implementation, accounting and audit.

5.2.2 Different Types of Budgeting

Budget and budgetary practice in government is perhaps a 19th century occurrence. For instance, According to Chakrabarty & Chand, the *"budget cataloguing in India, for a long time much after Independence, endured to be implemented in the structure of the line-item approach although it is obsolete in numerous respects, particularly making its assessment problematic"*.

There are two kinds of public budgets:

1. 'Operating budget', which is planned for a short period of time or on a year-to-year basis. This is known as a 'Annual Financial Statement' in India (a declaration of projected and assessed receipts and expenditures).
2. 'capital budget', which is intended for a lengthier period (constructing bridges, or big projects).

Wildavsky says: *"Budgets, whatever else they are, are unmistakably political documents." They arouse the ire of administrators, lawmakers, interest group leaders, and individuals concerned about 'who gets what and how much' in government allocations.*

Line-Item Budgeting

The term "line-item budgeting" refers to a common method of budgeting. It was enlarged at the turn of the twentieth century. The line-item budget only includes inputs, suggesting that each line on a sheet of paper has an item or thing (for example, a wooden chair) on the left margin followed by a price (for example, $1,000) on the right. The line-item budget was quickly linked to "government trustworthiness, competency, and less obstinacy." The fact that the line-budget is not tied to functioning is a huge disadvantage. This sort of budget is fairly common among municipal governments due to its relative easiness. When it comes to determining how much "should" be spent on health or any other item or policy area, year-to-year distributions in line-item budgets move very little, so there is a degree of listlessness.

Performance Budgeting

Performance budgeting, often known as programme budgeting, is a separate development management tool. Fundamentally, performance budgeting is a mechanism for describing government operations in terms of tasks, programmes,

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and enterprises. It places a high level of personal responsibility on administrators when it comes to the use of allocated resources. Administrators are viewed as assistants in line-item budgeting, but managers in performance budgeting.

Performance budgeting is "a full operational document, designed, presented, and implemented in terms of programmes, projects, and activities, with their financial and physical aspects intricately interwoven," according to Viswanathan. Among the goals that performance budgeting aims to achieve, the following are the most important:

(i) to connect programming and budgeting so that they can be used as a management tool; to give the legislature more control over the executive

(ii) to allow the legislature to have more oversight over the executive.

(iii) to assist in the creation of programmes

(iv) to provide efficiency indices for operational accounting and auditing.

The leading facts of performance budgeting are:

1. The amount of work completed is calculated.
2. The work's quality (or outcomes) is measured.

These two indicators influence how much money a department will collect in the future. Performance budgeting, often known as programme budgeting, is primarily concerned with government efficiency and frugality. Administrative abilities tend to influence agency decision-making underneath it, with budget scrutiny focused on precise accounting and control.

It focuses on the labor-cost component, which is sometimes referred to as unit costs. It is without a doubt the most sensible method for valuing financial assets. Nonetheless, there are flaws in the performance budgeting process. It does not choose the optimal strategy from among all the possible alternatives. It just assesses the currently running programme.

Departments that do better than their counterparts may earn more cash, while those that perform poorly may receive less. Opponents argue that setting allotment amount based on exploitation performance rating is unreasonable. Furthermore, some may claim that evaluating performance is intrinsically difficult, implying that planning and generating performance indicators are subjective.

Planning-Programming-Budgeting

Planning-Programming-Budgeting, or PPBS, is a resource-allocation scheme that aims to improve government effectiveness and efficiency by establishing long-term planning goals, assessing the costs and benefits of alternative programmes to achieve these goals, and enumerating programmes as budgetary and legislative suggestions.

In the 1960s, the Kennedy administration in the United States approved the Planning-Programming-Budgeting Systems (PPBS) for improving administrative functioning and nurturing the policy-making process in the Defense arena. By 1961, the Department of Defense had fully implemented it. President Lyndon B. Johnson

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embraced PPBS in all central departments in 1965 because it worked so successfully.

PPBS is concerned with more than just inputs and outputs; it is also concerned with products (effects) and replacements. PPBS incorporates the following into Charles Schultze's knockoff:

1. each sector of government activity's goals and purposes are thoroughly identified and scrutinised;
2. the evaluation of options in order to determine the most cost-effective method of achieving programme objectives;
3. requiring agencies to plan programmes as instruments to achieve specific goals; and
4. exposing government programmes to competition from alternative, more effective, or efficient programmes.

As a result, the PPB technique attempted to create goals and strategies, evaluate their costs and benefits, focus on the desired outcomes, and supervise through continuous outcome evaluation. PPB is, without a doubt, the most "rational" budgeting strategy ever conceived. PPBS had a brief and spectacular career in the United States and a few other nations, but it was not without problems and failures.

The limitation imposed by the cogent decision-making paradigm itself was its major weakness. PPBS officials struggled to categorise all possible goals, plans, and initiatives. It was commonly observed that attempting to spend a certain amount of money on the costs and benefits of public programmes was impractical. The cost-benefit analysis (CBA) battle begins with the goal of putting a monetary figure on the intangible benefits of certain programmes.

PPBS sought to persuade legislators and officials to alter their attitudes. Its administrators dominated most of the policy-making debate, and lawmakers assumed they weren't obtaining all of the information they needed and couldn't evaluate the data they did get. As a result, administrators who pre-selected policy preferences severely limited legislative choices. For policy planning and design, the legislature tended to look to the administration. Furthermore, many of the PPBS planning estimates were for periods longer than lawmakers' own terms in office or while waiting for the next election. Finally, the PPBS neglected lawmakers' political authority and the needs of their constituents.

Zero-Based Budgeting

This kind of budgeting is the most recent, having been introduced into budget practise in the 1970s. It is a budgeting strategy that necessitates the verification and justification of all expenditures for each programme and organization for each new period, i.e. each year. ZBB encompasses *"the allocation of resources to agencies on the basis of those agencies periodically re-evaluating through intense consultation the need for all of the programs for which the agency is responsible*

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and justifying the continuance or termination of each program in the agency's budget proposal".

ZBB is unique in that it resists the need for a programme at any degree of financial assistance.

It also contradicts the incrementalist premise, which expects that the budget for the following year will begin at or near the same level as the current year's spending.

The three components that make it work are as follows:

(i) recognition of decision units;

(ii) analysis of decision packets, each reflecting a different level of effort for putting the decision unit's work into action;

(iii) decision files are arranged in ascending order of priority..

As a result, under the ZBB system, all department heads must approve their programmes and, as a result, their endowment level on a yearly basis. Instead of allocating necessary yearly money, the department head must demonstrate how alternative phases of financing might influence the distribution of a certain program's services. ZBB is useful because it allows heads of departments to identify priorities, which helps budget makers realise where reductions are more acceptable and where surges are more desirable. Allowing department heads to choose these objectives makes sense, given that they are in the greatest position to know how to carry out a department's programmes. When budget prices spiral out of control, ZBB is drained.

Advantages of Zero-Based Budgeting

Holzer notes the undermentioned advantages of ZBB:

1. As it is based on requirements and advantages, outcomes in effective resource apportionment.
2. Managers are under pressure to come up with cost-effective methods to change operations.
3. Overestimated budgets are exposed.
4. Important benefits for service departments that have a hard time recognising the final product.
5. Increases employee enthusiasm by requiring more creativity and accountability in decision-making.
6. Within the organization, there is an increase in communication and harmony.
7. Distinguishes wastage and obsolete operations and eliminates them.

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Disadvantages of Zero-Based Budgeting

According to Holzer, the undermentioned are the disadvantages of ZBB:

1. *Outlining decision units and decision bundles is difficult due to the time and effort required.*
2. *Department heads are expected to defend every expenditure detail. Frequently, the R&D department is jeopardised, while the manufacturing department reaps the benefits.*
3. *It is required of managers to be tutored. Managers at all levels should have a clear understanding of ZBB. Otherwise, the measures will be ineffective and ineffective.*
4. *It's also difficult to manage and communicate budgeting because more executives are involved.*

Gender Budgeting

Feminist accounting comprises budget planning or investigation from a gender perspective. Its goal is to use the money to address issues of gender imbalance. Fiscal Policy of GB is a powerful instrument for achieving gender mainstreaming and ensuring that development aid reaches women as well as men. It is not only an accounting application; it is a long-term process of incorporating a gender perspective into policy, financing, project planning, allocation, usage, impact/outcome value, assessment, and audit.

Gender budgeting seeks to isolate a variety of budget items/projects/systems in order to establish their gender disparity consequences. In order to transform gender-centric disparities, the goal is to decode gender pledges into budgetary commitments obligations.

Target-Based Budgeting

Goal Budgeting also known as Target Budgeting, Secured Budget planning, and Leading Financial planning, is a method of allocating resources to businesses in which the chief executive sets the organization's expenditure limitations or targets. The selected chief executive reveals down to sections financial targets to which they may plead, and afterwards consigns the attainment of organizational goals to the departments' techniques, procedures, or strategies, all beneath the TBB. TBB focuses on the top administrator's single task, which must be accomplished via transferring assets (i.e., inputs) to create the desired results and ends.

When revenue declines under this system, local governments are required by law to balance the books by cutting costs (this is sometimes known as 'cutback management'). Temporary cuts might include reducing temporary staff, deferring maintenance, and deferring equipment purchases. State governments can implement cuts by introducing productivity improvements in this way. TBB appears on the scene as a beneficial and practical budgeting strategy.

It has also helped to improve communication between government officials and legislators by providing them with a common budget terminology. TBB's top-

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down method gives the CEO a lot of economic power over state-owned businesses. In a developing country like India, TBB has difficulties assessing and resolving the issues involved with lowering a state agency's budget and then allowing its managers to manage it.

Green Budgeting

Green budgeting is a new budgeting invention. It relies on protecting the ecology in the course of development. It is not a distinct budget, but centres on the environmental deliberations in the budgetary distributions. Owing to ecological contemplations, now, it has become obligatory to all development projects to go all the way through 'environmental impact assessment'. It is a method in which the ecological impression of a project is evaluated before its implementation. Therefore, such fiscal innovations are trying to tackle the incipient socioeconomic and ecological questions.

Check Your Progress

1. What is the meaning of the term - Budget?
2. What is the definition of budget as a tool of public finance in our constitution?
3. What are the different kinds of budget?

5.3 BUDGET: ENACTMENT AND EXECUTION

Budget Policy Orientations in India

The contemporary budgetary system of India owes its derivation to the colonial era when the Finance Department was founded in 1843 to care for the financial affairs of the government. Nevertheless, the budget, per se, was offered for the first period in 1860 to signal the system of laying down the annual approximations of revenues and expenditures and their consideration and approval by the legislature. With minor alterations and occasionally appendages in the existent system, the budgetary system of India, on the whole, continued the same all over the colonial rule in India. However, the two incapacitating features of the colonialist budgetary scheme in India were non-appearance of widespread control over the budget and absence of a socioeconomic growing viewpoint in the budgetary distributions. The colonist budgetary system was, consequently, given a go-by after Independence and substituted by a receptive and development-oriented financial system under the stipulations of the Constitution of India.

The budget policy proclivities during the initial times of Jawaharlal Nehru stayed confined within the remedies of the Indian Constitution as specified under the provisions of Article 112. Short of affecting any radical break with the colonial line-item accounting system, the budgetary strategy of Nehru got augmented with the commencement of planning as a dynamic constituent of the economic development in India. Slowly, as the plan distributions started overshadowing the non-plan constituent of the governmental economic provisions, the budget seemed to have increasingly got abridged as an instrument of taxation instead of a policy document. Additionally, in the budget, the spending side of the estimations was

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rendered high status without corresponding answerability and result-orientation. In Nehru's times, therefore, the budget plan could not arise as a arduous tool of socioeconomic development of the country accompanied by acting as an operational tool of safeguarding efficiency, economy, and efficacy in huge government expenditures.

To eliminate the obvious flaws in the present system of budget, a number of significant policy procedures were presented during the times of Indira Gandhi in the budgetary scheme of the country. Because of its superior methodological value, the demand for the primer of performance budgeting was elevated from a number of divisions, incorporating the Estimates Committee and Administrative Reforms Commission. However, a prerequisite for the outline of performance budgeting was a genuine reform in the accountancy system so as to make it a instrument of administrative efficiency. Hence, the government took the landmark step of separating the audit from accounts in 1976, undoing a long-standing colonial feature of the budget system in the country. Subsequently, the system of performance budgeting was introduced in select developmental departments of the central government in 1977–78. Above all, instead of allowing planning to dominate the budgetary process, the idea of the PPBS was accepted as way to integrate planning with budgeting in India.

With the dawn of economic liberalization in the country since early 1990s, the policy orientations behind budget in India appear to have undergone subtle transformations manifested in three ways. First, despite remaining an inalienable part of the overall budgetary process, the component of planning lost its commanding position in determining the focus and locus of the budget. Now, planning got reinvented to act only as a guiding instrument to indicate the broader contours of socioeconomic development plans of government to be reflected in the budgetary provisions. Second, in order to bring about efficiency and economy in the financial functioning of the government, a number of managerial innovations and improvisations have also found ready acceptance in the budgetary procedures. For instance, a quite effective measure of cost-cutting in the government departments has been the technique of the ZBB which has been borrowed from the private sector of the United States. Finally, amidst the continuing populist and bureaucratic underpinnings in the budget, a subtle move has been in place to bring about some degree of fiscal discipline through budgetary techniques. Through such a move, not only would the unproductive fiscal profligacy of the governmental agencies be minimized, the money so saved could be reinvested in the newly prioritized social sector development.

Quite evidently, thus, the trajectory of the budget policy orientations in India has apparently been guided by the administrative expediency and ideological moorings of the governments. Taking budget mainly in its instrumentalist value, the governments over the years sought to utilize the budgetary formulations to secure money for certain programmes and projects rather than using it as a policy instrument. The primary reason for this seems to be the advent of planning as the predominant determinant of the policy perspectives of the government on

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socioeconomic development of the country. Nevertheless, the urge for economic prudence and fiscal discipline led the governments at various times to go for subtle improvisations in the budgetary and accounting procedures. As a result, the budget probably inadvertently got salience in the realm of the policy-making of the government as the free-play of the market forces in the country led to increasing reduction in the overarching role of planning. In the contemporary times, budget seems to have regained its status as the major instrument of policy pronouncements on the socioeconomic development of the country.

Major Actors in Budgetary Process in India

The budgetary process in India is quite a complex one involving a number of actors and agencies at various stages. Given the democratic nature of the Indian polity, such a cumbersome process and multitude of agencies are obvious as they perform distinct functions crucial to the successful and responsive functioning of the budgetary system. What is unique in such a system, just as in case of other democratic systems, is that apart from stipulating money, what is equally, if not more, important, is the system of accountability for spending such money. Significantly, the intimate relationship between the legislature and executive by dint of parliamentary democracy in India, the legislature shares a number of substantive financial functions along with the executive. At the same time, the autonomous institution of audit also joins the other agencies to provide a logical input in the overall functioning of the financial administration of the country. What follows is a brief elucidation of the major actors or agencies in the budgetary process in India.

Parliament of India may be taken as the lead actor in the budgetary process of the country. In accordance with parliamentary democracy's standards, the parliament is charged with the primary obligation of acting as the country's custodian of public funds. Consequently, by way of discharging its onerous responsibilities as fund-raising and fund-granting agency, it exercises almost absolute control over the budget of India through its powers of levy, abolish, or decrease any tax or other budgetary allocations. Indeed, such a commanding position to the Parliament has been accorded by the Indian Constitution itself. Hence, under Article 112 of the Constitution, the president has been vested with the responsibility of causing to be laid before the houses of Parliament, the 'annual financial statement', the constitutional terminology for budget. However, of the two houses of Parliament, it is the lower house or the Lok Sabha that holds absolute control over the budgetary process with just nominal role assigned for the upper house or the Rajya Sabha.

An equally important actor in the budgetary process of India is the executive. In fact, the theoretical monopoly of the Parliament over the budget, boils down to the monopoly of the executive itself, under the dynamics of the parliamentary democracy. In other words, as the executive commands an absolute majority in the Lok Sabha, it is but natural that the wishes of the former are unhesitatingly fulfilled by the latter as the two are staffed by the people belonging to the same party or ideological persuasions. Another reason for the dominance of the budgetary process

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by the executive is its role as the administering agency for the budgetary proposals. In this capacity, the executive, even in theory, has been assigned the role of evolving the proposals for demand of money from the Parliament, keeping in view the policies and programmes for socioeconomic development, in addition to the other routine expenses such as defence and administration of the country. The budgetary process in India, therefore, seems to be a fine example of the harmonious and cooperative functioning of the two pivotal institutions of constitutional governance in the country.

As the core unit of the executive entrusted with the task of managing the operational dynamics of the budget, the Ministry of Finance may arguably be taken as the nodal agency of the budgetary process in India. Indeed, to a layman, the Ministry of Finance epitomizes the financial administration of the country in its entirety. Though technically untenable, yet such a notion is attributed to the Ministry of Finance, keeping in view its role in managing the finances of the country. For example, the ministry is responsible for estimating the final statistics of the government's revenues and expenditures for presentation to parliament, as well as ensuring that the country's finances are appropriately managed. The major contours of the functioning of the ministry are discerned from its structural divisions in the three departments, that is, Department of Economic Affairs, Department of Revenue, and Department of Expenditure. Such an overarching role in the management of the finances of the country has made the Ministry of Finance one of the key ministries of the Government of India. An indirect, yet, democratically unavoidable actor in the budgetary process of democratic societies is the institution of independent audit. In India, such a function is discharged by the constitutional authority called the CAG of India. Envisaged under the provisions of Article 148 of the Constitution, 'the office of CAG is meant to introduce the rigour and uniformity of government accounts on the one hand and to carry out the responsibility of conducting independent audit on the other'. On behalf of the parliament, the CAG performs an audit to investigate and report on the faithfulness, legality, and efficiency of all financial transactions conducted by government departments. The criticality of the role of CAG in the budgetary process of India has been a byproduct of the parliamentary democratic system of governance provided for under the Constitution. Though critics have argued against the role of audit in India, it has emerged as one of the most harsh checks on the government's financial impropriety and profligacy throughout the years.

Finally, the parliamentary committees constitute the last set of actors playing significant role in the budgetary process of the country. The role of these committees exposes the inadequacy of the control exercised by the parliament over the finances of the government due to paucity of time and lack of expertise. Previously, there used to be only two committees, that is, the Estimates Committee and the Public Accounts Committee of Parliament to discharge the necessary functions of legislative control. But, in recent times, with the creation of the departmentally related standing committees of Parliament, the role of the Parliament in the functioning of the various departments of the government has

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become more comprehensive and focused. Nonetheless, the role of these committees in the financial process is distinct. The Estimations Committee, for example, makes recommendations for cost-cutting in various government departments' budget estimates in order to make them more realistic and cost-effective. The Public Accounts Committee, on the other hand, conducts a post-mortem of the appropriation accounts in light of the CAG's audit report. In the process, it attracts the attention of the legislature to financial irregularities, if any, and suggests remedial measures for the same. In distinction with others, the departmentally related standing committees carry out not just financial control over the concerned departments but also scrutinizes their overall functioning from time to time.

In a nutshell, the major actors or agencies in the budgetary process of India are numerous and varied, owing to the variety of functions each of them is supposed to perform. Such functions may be classified in three groups with each having their critical value in the smooth functioning of the budgetary system. Hence, while the broad functions of parliament as the fund-raising and fund-granting agency is well-established, the role of executive and its sub-agencies such the Ministry of Finance as the proposer of financial estimates is equally universally accepted. What is, however, unique to India is apparently its elaborate system of legislative control over the budget through the mechanism of its own committees as well as the institution of an independent audit. Indeed, the successful functioning of the financial administration in India is credited to the reasonably satisfactory role played by these actors in the budgetary process of the country.

Budget System Reforms in India

The inheritance of a budgetary process designed to suit the requirements of a colonial economy would definitely not have been appropriate for the needs of a newly Independent and development-oriented economy like India. Over the years, therefore, numerous subtle reform measures were initiated in the budgetary process of the country in order to bring it in sync with the requirements of a nation embarking on the path of rapid socioeconomic development within the norms of a democratic polity. So, the basic contours of reforms in the budgetary process revolved around the themes of relocating its orientations from a colonial economy to that of a development oriented one; making budget a tool of socioeconomic development of the country; reorienting its focus from outlays to outcomes; designing budget as an instrument of ensuring effective politico-administrative accountability of administration to the legislative and executive bodies; and bringing about suitable technical reforms, say, in the system of accounting and audit.

To ensure that the budget system reforms do not cause any rupture in the smooth functioning of the financial administration of the country, such reforms have been introduced in a piece-meal and evolutionary manner. Three distinct phases of the process of budgetary reforms may be discerned in India. First, with the inauguration of India as an Independent nation, her budgetary system was subjected to deep-seated reforms, more in reorienting it to the development and

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accountability imperatives of a developing economy and fledgling democracy than to bring about a radical change in the technical format of the budget. Second, in the wake of the recommendations of the First Administrative Reforms Commission (1968), a number of far-reaching changes were introduced in the technical format of the budget on the lines of the performance budgeting, accounting reforms, and so on. Finally, in the contemporary times, with the strengthening of the forces of liberalization and privatization, the parliamentary control over the budgetary process is also sought to be streamlined and deepened with the creation of a number of parliamentary standing committees to closely scrutinize the budgetary allocations of various ministries and departments.

As explained earlier, the contents of the budgetary reforms in India have encompassed almost the entire gamut of the budgetary process. The beginning, in this regard, seems to have been made by ideological reorientations in the budgetary outlook from being a colonial subject to becoming development-oriented. Further, in order to make such reorientation bear fruit, the line-item format of budget preparation was replaced by the performance budgeting system in 1977–78 for most of the developmental ministries of the Government of India. Moreover, as a preparatory move to introduce performance budgeting, and also to streamline the audit and accounting system, the audit and accounts which were hitherto managed as an integrated system, were separated in 1976. At certain times, suggestions were also made to introduce the format of ZBB in India. But, such suggestions could not cut much ice given the complexity of the development imperatives of the country. The last substantive reform in the budgetary process of the country came in the form of the standing committees of the Parliament to insightfully and closely monitor the functioning of the concerned ministries and departments.

As a result of such reforms in the budgetary process, the performance of the budgetary system in India has undergone remarkable improvements. For instance, the budget has not only emerged as a strong tool of socioeconomic transformation, it has also made the public authorities responsible for the execution of budgetary allocations more accountable and sharp-focused in attaining the stipulated objectives. Yet, there still exist a number of grey areas where the budgetary reforms have not been able to make much difference, such as rising fiscal deficit. As a result, the budget in India still remains burdened by the over-bearing fiscal deficit casting doubts on its ability to discipline the government expenditure. Moreover, in order to take the process of budgetary reforms in India to logical conclusion, the focus areas now need to be raising governmental revenue, increasing work efficiency, limiting subsidies to the poor, sorting out the power sector complexities, right sizing government, prioritizing governmental expenditures, and linking agricultural and health policies.

Budget Preparation

The preliminary phase in the formation of budget evaluations is budgetary planning. It is generally regarded as a useful tool for presenting a comprehensive overview of the government's actions. It also aids in the resolution of presenting a maze of facts in a simple and organised manner that allows MPs to grasp the

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budget's details. The gratefulness of the performance budgeting approach is primarily supported by budgetary cataloguing.

Below the budgetary ordering government actions are classified into three wide-ranging clusters namely (i) Revenue, defence, police, general administration, and other general or regulatory services, etc. (ii) Education, health, and housing are examples of social and community services, etc. and (iii) Foreign trade, industry, transportation, agriculture, and other economic services, etc.

Budgets are broken into units and sub-units after being classified into broad categories such as general, social, and economic services to allow for the computation of associated activity performance. Budget projections are created in the same order as the financial year, from April 1 to March 31. Every year on the first working day of February, the Union Finance Minister presents the Indian Parliament with the Union Budget (together with the Rail Budget). Despite this, the procedure for doing so begins around September-October of the previous year due to the time-consuming processes required in the final development of budget forecasts.

The Ministry of Finance sends out a circular to a number of ministries and departments, urging them to submit their estimates for the coming year. Numerous administrative agencies base their estimations on instructions from key nodal organizations. These departmental and agency-level estimates are then reviewed and examined by Departmental Heads before being handed over to Finance Department/Ministry of Finance officials in November and December. The Ministry of Finance can prepare a combined proclamation of income and expenditures, known as the 'Annual Financial Statement,' before the third week of January.

The budget document is the name of this account. It is usually offered in the undermentioned format:

1. real figures for the previous three fiscal years;
2. authorised budget estimates for the current fiscal year;
3. reviewed estimates for the current fiscal year;
4. projected estimates for the following fiscal year, with descriptive notes for any upsurge or reduction in estimates; and
5. actual figures for the current fiscal year obtainable at the time of planning the estimates and actual figures for the subsequent period of the preceding fiscal year.

The approximations of the 'Annual Budget' for the resultant financial year are projected on the foundation of:

(i) the reviewed estimates of the current year;

(ii) the 12 months actual figures of the preceding and previous years;

(iii) any identifiable consistency and uniformity in past year's figures; and

(iv) any exceptional situations affecting variations.

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The Annual Financial Statement or the core budget document is formulated by the Ministry of Finance. It displays the earnings and expenditures of the government under three parts in which government financial records are kept as:

(i) Consolidated Fund,

(ii) Contingency Fund, and

(iii) Public Accounts.

The Consolidated Fund is made up of all of the government's receipts, credits, and earnings from the recovery of mortgages it has provided. The Consolidated Fund supports all government expenditure, and no money may be taken out of it without Parliament's authorization. In some cases, the administration may be forced to fund unanticipated and urgent expenditures while waiting for Parliament's approval. The President has the Contingency Fund at his disposal to cover such expenditures.

For such expenditures and the withdrawal of a corresponding quantity from the Consolidated Fund, Parliamentary authorisation is obtained, and the amount spent from the Contingency Fund is later returned to the Fund. There is also a Public Account, which is where monies are received and spent, in addition to these two reserves where government financial records are stored. When it comes to deals with provident funds, modest reserves collections, and other credits, the government acts more like a financier.

As a consequence, such expenditures from the Public Account do not require Parliamentary approval. In a small number of circumstances, a portion of the government's revenue is set aside in separate accounts for specific purposes such as road construction, elementary education, and public health. With Parliament's consent, these money are removed from the Consolidated Fund and placed in the Public Account to be spent on specific concerns. Spending on the income account must be distinguished from other outlays in the budget. Government Budget, consequently, encompasses

(i) Revenue budget, and

(ii) Capital budget.

5.3.1 Enactment of Budgetary Proposals

The approval of the budget by Parliament is a crucial step in the financial process. In light of this, it is critical to evaluate the Indian Parliament's fiscal authorities, which are enshrined in Articles 112 to 117 of the Constitution. Concisely stated, they are the undermentioned:

1. No request for a funding shall be made apart from the endorsement of the President.
2. Any offer dealing with spending ought to be on the approval of the President.
3. Parliament can diminish or eliminate a tax, but not escalate it.

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4. The salaries and stipends of the President, Supreme Court Judges, Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the Rajya Sabha, Speaker, Deputy Speaker, Comptroller and Auditor-General of India, and a limited number of other people are 'charged' on the Consolidated Fund of India. The 'charged' outlay is subject to debate but will not be put to a vote in Parliament.
5. The Appropriation Bill cannot be changed in such a way that the amount, whether chargeable expenditure or otherwise, or the end point of any grant, changes.
6. In financial concerns, the powers of the Rajya Sabha are limited. It ought to assent to the Finance Bill with or without any commendations within 14 days.

Any or all of these recommendations may be accepted or rejected by the Lok Sabha. Whatever occurs, the Finance Bill will not be sent back to the Upper House, but will instead be sent directly to the President for his approval. Let us now look at the various stages of the financial process in the legislature.

1. **Demonstration to the Legislature:** The finance minister shows the budget to the Lok Sabha customarily on the first working day of February. He acts so with the budget address which is enthusiastically anticipated by business spheres as it gives first signals of tax applications and the economic and fiscal policy of the Government. The budget is also set down before the Upper House, although its financial powers are very much limited.
2. **General discussion:** It occurs days after the demonstration of the budget. It is extended over two or three days. The dialogue in each House is restrained to broad principles or policy intrinsic to the budget. No particulars are discussed; there is no polling, nor are cut motions approved. The broad-spectrum discussion functions to enable an indication of the synopsis of the programmes of government and particularly on the 'charged' spending. Towards the end of the discussion the Finance Minister answers, responding to the points upturned by the members.
3. **Voting of demands for grants:** Following the broad discussion, the Lower House goes in for polling of demands. This balloting of the spending is part of the budget and is the special honour of the Lower House. The requests are presented ministry-wise and each request is dependent on a vote. At this step there is loads of discussion of the specifics. The opposition can subject the schemes to stern criticism. Members can start cut motions, which comprise three categories viz.- dissatisfaction policy cut, economy cut and symbolic cut. The drive behind the cuts is to appraise the precise subdivisions of government and uncover maladministration. When put to vote they are usually conquered because government has a preponderance to back it. In a logic, the cut

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motions have emblematic value only. In roughly 30 to 40 days the Lok Sabha ought to conclude the voting of orders. The time restrain for each need as well as for the complete spending share of the budget is secured by the Speaker in discussion with the frontrunner of the House. The schedule is meticulously followed. All remaining demands are put to a vote on the final day, however the debate may not be satisfying. After it has been duly voted on, a request becomes an endowment.

Demands for Grants

In the enactment of Article 113 of the Constitution, the estimations of expenditure from the Consolidated Fund mentioned in the Annual Financial Statement and required to be voted by the Lok Sabha are submitted in the form of Demands for Grants. Typically, each Ministry or Department receives only one Demand for Grant. In the case of big Ministries or Departments, however, more than one Demand is displayed. Each Demand, on the whole, encompasses all of the requirements for a service, including conditions relating to revenue expenditure, capital expenditure, funding to state and union territory governments, as well as credits and early payment. For each of the Union Territories that do not have a legislature, an unrelated Demand is displayed. It should be noted that Grants Demands are presented to the Lok Sabha with the Annual Financial Statement.

Finance Bill

Whenever the Annual Financial Statement is presented to Parliament, a Finance Bill is also presented in fulfilment of Article 110(1)(a) of the Constitution, which specifies the obligation, removal, remission, modification, or regulation of taxes planned in the Budget. Article 110 of the Constitution defines a Finance Bill as a Money Bill. A Memorandum clarifying the endowments inherent in it accompanies it.

Appropriation Bills

Once the Lok Sabha has chosen the Demands for Grants, the Appropriation Bill must be passed by Parliament to authorise the withdrawal of the quantity of money thus chosen from the Consolidated Fund, as well as the amount necessary to cover the expenditures indicated on the Consolidated Fund. No money can be taken from the Consolidated Fund without Parliament's permission, according to Article 114(3) of the Constitution.

Legislative Approval of Budget

After the Lok Sabha approves the Appropriation Bill, the Speaker confirms it as a money Bill and sends it to the Rajya Sabha. The bill is discussed at this point and sent back to the Lower House, with or without suggestions. The Lok Sabha gives the Appropriation Bill its final form before referring it to the President for his approval, which is granted automatically. The Appropriation Bill becomes the Appropriation Act as a result. It is debated in the Legislature in two parts before becoming law. The spending side is described first, followed by the revenue side.

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In all parliaments, committees are routinely utilised to review budget estimates. The Appropriation Bill, which is a legal agreement to spend money, and the Revenue Bill, which extends power to charge and collect taxes, are both passed by the parliament. Once the Legislature has approved these two bills, the Political Executive will work to put them into effect.

5.3.2 Execution of Budget

The Ministry of Finance sends advisory to the spending ministries informing them of the amount of money that has been allotted to them. Following that, the heads of departments distribute funds to the departments' various disbursing officials. It should be highlighted, however, that disbursing officers are not permitted to spend funds in excess of specific restrictions. They need permission from the appropriate authorities to go beyond the limitations. At the same time, each expenditure department must use the approved accounting technique to keep track of payments and receipts.

Budget Accounting and Audit

The Comptroller and Auditor General of India (CAG) is a government-appointed body. As a result, he "shall fulfil such tasks and use such powers in respect to the Union's and states' accounts as may be agreed by Parliament." In this capacity, he is the keeper of the country's accounting and stocktaking procedures. The budget cycle's inspecting phase is designed to ensure that public funds (earned through taxes, for example) are used wisely. In a nutshell, audit is an independent assessment authority tasked with ensuring that public organizations or programmes spend money lawfully and efficiently. To put it another way, the CAG's office is in charge of budget audits. An audit is primarily seen as an addendum to legislative oversight and accountability over the country's financial management. The review inspection in our country is to a greater extent focused on spendings.

Control Exercised by Ministry of Finance During Execution of the Budget

When the budget has been approved by the Parliament, the duty for the control of spending from thereupon rests on the administrative organization and each head of the division or branch who is assisted and counseled by an Internal Finance Adviser— yet again an agent of the Ministry of Finance—in the excretion of his responsibilities. Throughout the implementation of the budget, it is the duty of the ministry to safeguard that the sums are expended correctly and frugally. Besides, there are particular subjects which still necessitate other departments to retain themselves in contact with the ministry. For example, past discussion of the ministry is sought every time any department desires to spend on plans whose estimate surpasses a specific limit. This is in principle known as 'expenditure sanction'. Likewise, prior sanction of the ministry is indispensable before sums can be moved from one sub-head to another, in principle recognized as 're-appropriation'. Moreover, the Ministry of Finance, via its sanctioned Financial Adviser, steers financial appraisals after every quarter with the intention of knowing the headway of expenditure. This permits the ministry to make an

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evaluation of the functioning of other departments in fiscal terms. It similarly aids the ministry to estimate next year's budget.

Check Your Progress

4. What is meant by the enactment of budget?
5. What is the process of legislative approval of budget?
6. What are the main steps in the execution of the budget?

5.4 MACHINERY FOR PLANNING

The foundation for activity is planning. An intentional attempt to achieve desired outcomes is known as planning. It's a rational way of submitting resources for the achievement of specific goals. A planned economy would entail an economic structure in which the government steers and regulates production, allocation, pricing, and other factors by setting acts, functions, and development plans ahead of time.

A The term "planning" has been thoroughly defined, and most meanings represent the same viewpoint. "*The application of logical design as opposed to chance*," Dimock says, "*the reaching of a decision before a line of action is taken instead of improving after the action has begun*." *Millett defines, "Planning is the process of determining the objectives of administrative effort and of devising the means. calculated to achieve them."*

As per Urwick, *"Planning is fundamentally an intellectual process, a mental pre-disposition, to do things in an orderly way, to think before acting, and to act in the light of facts rather than guesses. It is the antithesis of speculative tendency."*

Seckler-Hudson stated it as *"the process of devising a basis for a course of future action."*

Thus, planning entails 'planning ahead' or pondering before acting. It is a strategy of shaping a course of action that begins with mindfulness. In a word, planning is the deliberate process of selecting and implementing the optimal course of action for achieving a specific goal. As a result, planning is the practise of caution and a grid of activity towards certain objectives.

India has endeavoured to produce speedy economic and social development of the country through a planned endeavour. Even though a consciousness of the Although the importance of planning was obvious in the pre-independence era, credible and motivated planning on an all-India basis could not be implemented until India was liberated in 1947, when the country's most pressing problems arising from the country's partition and the task of merging the native Indian states were determined. The late Dr. M. Visveswarayya, who was known for his revolutionary zeal and breadth of vision, spearheaded the first attempt to propose social planning in India. and several pre-independence efforts were made for using planning for national and social development. All the plan suggestions openly acknowledged the speedy enhancement of the people as living benchmarks as the

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primary goal of development. Since independence, the promotion of stable economic development has been a central theme of Indian public policy and national-level planning, with the goal of laying the groundwork for unrelenting economic growth, expanding opportunities for productive employment, encouraging greater equality in earnings and wealth, and improving the quality of life and working conditions for the common man.

The same essence of well-adjusted economic development is included in the Directive Principles of State Policy, in particular. The topic of social and economic design is included in the Indian Constitution's concurrent list. As a result, a parliamentary decree on the subject has provided the legal framework for national planning for the whole country. The construction of a Planning Commission and the proposal of a National Economic Council, which would act as a body of intergovernmental assistance in the economic and social arenas, were discussed during the 1949 talks on the creation of a planning apparatus. The Planning Commission was established by Cabinet decree on March 15, 1950, following the approval of the Advisory Planning Board in 1946. In 1952, the National Development Council was established.

5.4.1 Planning Machinery at Central Level

The Planning Commission is the federal government's planning apparatus. It is primarily a nonpartisan consultative and advisory organization that makes recommendations to the government. It does not have its own permission. It has been planned to systematise it neither as a vibrant research institute, which is out of style with the various political, economic, or managerial difficulties, nor as an administrative department, which is overly meticulously entangled.

5.4.2 Planning Commission

The Planning Commission is a multi-member organization and the quantity of members has mixed now and then. The Commission's initial year of operation was primarily focused on plan development. It was made up entirely of permanent members. As Chairman of the Commission, the Prime Minister provided the necessary close cooperation with the Central Government. However, over time, the Commission became entangled in a variety of administrative issues and accumulated a number of primarily management functions. The Commission's membership was significantly altered, and a number of Union Ministers were appointed as part-time members of the Commission. In August 1967, the Planning Commission was re-established on the ARC's recommendations, with the exception that the Prime Minister remained Chairman and the Central Finance Minister remained a part-time member. Other Central Government Ministers have also been appointed as Members for special reasons related to the collections, in addition to full-time members, which range from three to eight. Ministerial Members and Full Members are chosen differently depending on which party has the most clout at the centre.

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Members of the Planning Commission

The configuration of the Planning Commission as in 2004 is as follows:

- Prime Minister - Chairman;
- Deputy Chairman;
- Minister of State (Planning);
- Seven Full-time Members; and
- Member-Secretary.

The Planning Commission carries out its duties through a number of divisions and departments, each of which is managed by a Senior officer who is commonly designated as Advisor, Chief, Advisor, Joint Secretary, or Combined Advisor. The Planning Commission's full-time members are responsible for the day-to-day operations of certain divisions, despite the fact that the commission functions as a unified body that provides recommendations on all critical issues. Since its inception, the Prime Minister of India has served as Chairman of the Planning Commission, bolstering the Commission's prestige and assisting it greatly in its political harmonisation efforts.

Role of Planning Commission

The Planning Commission has been allocated several functions.

1. The Commission assesses the country's quantifiable, capital, and human resources, comprising methodical work force and inspect the options of expanding such of these possessions as are discovered to be scarce in relation to the nation's necessities.
2. It lays out a plan for the most effective and steady utilisation of the country's assets.
3. The Commission delineates the phases in which the plan should be implemented and recommends the distribution of resources for the owed completion of each phase.
4. It specifies the aspects that are inclining to repay economic development and to find out the condition for the plan's successful implementation.
5. It also governs the nature of apparatus that would be required for ensuring the plan's successful operation; and it specifies the aspects that are inclining to repay economic development and to find out the condition for the plan's successful implementation.
6. It assesses the progress made in the execution of each step of the plan on a regular basis in order to justify any policy or action changes that such an assessment may reveal to be necessary.
7. Furthermore, it gives any interim or subsidiary recommendations that are appropriate in light of the current economic situations and policies.

In addition to the foregoing, the Government of India's Distribution of Business Rules has assigned responsibility to the Planning Commission in the following areas:

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(a) Public-private partnership in national development

(b) Programme for the Development of Hill Areas

(c) Planning from a vantage point

(d) Planning by the directorate, and

(e) Centre National d'Informatique (NIC)

As a result, the Planning Commission was established as a staff organization to organise the country's national economic growth strategy.

The NITI Aayog

India's five-year economic growth policy was overseen by the Planning Commission. In 2014, the 65-year-old Planning Commission was decommissioned, and the National Institution for Transforming India (NITI Aayog) was founded in its place. The NITI Aayog (National Institution for Transforming India) is an Indian government think tank that was constituted as a Commission on January 1, 2015 to provide meaningful strategic, directional, and technical assistance to governments at the federal and state levels throughout the range of essential parts of the policy/development process. The Ex-officio Chairperson of the Aayog is India's Prime Minister.

It also has some full-time and part-time members, as well as four ex-officio members who are Union Ministers. It also has a governing body that comprises all of the Union Territories' State Chief Ministers and Lieutenant Governors.

The council strives to promote cooperative federalism in order to provide the Center and individual States with a national agenda. There are other regional councils, and the Prime Minister welcomes special invitees who are experts and professionals in a variety of subjects.

It advises the federal and state governments on strategic policy concerns since it functions as a government think tank or as a directional and policy dynamo. It also covers economic topics that are both domestic and international in scope.

Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) efforts in India are directed by the Aayog. It also emphasises the necessity of quality standards, ethical processes, and institutional structures. Therefore, NITI Aayog means:

- A body of persons to whom the government entrusts the task of establishing and regulating policies relating to India's transformation.
- A Commission that advises the government on both social and economic matters.
- An expert-led institution.
- A body that actively monitors and reviews how the government's policies and initiatives are being implemented.

Seven Pillars of NITI Aayog:

1. **Pro-People:** Fulfil aspiration of society as well as individual.
2. **Pro-Active:** In anticipation of and response to citizen needs.

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3. **Participation:** Involvement of all.
4. **Empowering:** Women in all aspects.
5. **Equity:** Equal opportunity for the youth.
6. **Transparency:** Making government visible and responsive.
7. **Inclusion of All:** SC, ST, OBC, Minorities, Gareeb, Gaon and Kisan.

5.4.3 Planning Machinery at the State Level

As the topic of planning is established in the Concurrent List of the Indian Constitution, the Centre and states are responsible for planned development via systematic creation, implementation, and evaluation of plans. At the state level, it is thought that planning agencies require the advice and care of well-known subject-experts in order to provide a component of specialised expertise in the planning process. In light of the foregoing, most states established State Planning Boards/State Planning Commissions.

According to the Second Administrative Reforms Commission, State Planning Boards should guarantee that district plans are combined with the State plans they prepare. The Commission emphasised the need of making it mandatory for all states to design their development strategies only after securing the plans of local groups in this regard. Nonetheless, the Board's position and effectiveness vary from state to state. With an accumulative free and liberalised economy, it has been determined that we must examine the tools and strategies used to shape and construct the development process. As a result, on January 1, 2015, the NITI Aayog was established at the Centre with the goal of achieving sustainable development goals while maintaining supporting federalism by encouraging state governments to participate in the economic policy making process through a bottom-up approach. It is envisaged that the concept, strategy, and action plan will lead to the development strategy being supported by the changing socioeconomic requirements.

The administrative reform committees at the state level advised that a Board or Commission-like body be established at the state level. In this regard, the Government of India's Planning Commission emphasised the importance of forming an SPB at the state level. The Commission has always preferred to strengthen the state planning apparatus in order to ensure an integrated, realistic, and efficient planning process.

As a result, the Planning Commission recommended that every state establish an SPB in 1967, when the First Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) handed in its report on the necessity of planning. The Planning Board's makeup was also proposed by the ARC. As a result, the majority of states and union territories have created SPBs/SPCs. Nonetheless, the Board's position and effectiveness vary from state to state.

The Planning Department is led by the state's Chief Minister (CM) or an elder Cabinet Minister at the state level. The primary concerns in the planning framework are discussed with the state's Chief Minister or communicated to her/him, and then passed around the CM to the cabinet for approval. It is often assumed that the Chief

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Secretary is the Leader of the Planning Department at the administrative level. In Rajasthan, for example, this custom has only lasted around three decades. A distinct Planning Secretary (now Principal Secretary) was appointed in 1992. The Planning Secretary or Main Planning Secretary is in charge of the Planning Department's management in the majority of states. The Chief Secretary is in charge of all critical and essential subjects related to state planning at the administrative level, after which he passes them on to the political level.

It is impossible to have a single, unchanging design for the planning machinery due to the diversity of administrative formations in various states and union territories. Every state has a Planning Department, which is responsible for the formulation and review of plans, as well as the evaluation of programmes through its Evaluation Wing. Effectively, the Planning Department is responsible for coordinating the state's development problems.

Within the administrative umbrella of the State Planning Department, there are subdivisions of Economics and Statistics, Manpower and Evaluation in the majority of states. The Section of Economics and Statistics provides mechanical personnel for programme preparation and supervision at the state and local levels. The Manpower Department evaluates the labour requirements and prerequisites for the coming years, allowing the planning process to include action plans for fulfilling these demands while also meeting the total manpower requirements for plan execution. In addition, the Manpower Department is occasionally tasked with preparing for work-related training and coordinating with state authorities. As the name implies, the Evaluation Department is in charge of directing evaluation studies for the multiple programmes that are being launched in simultaneously or ex-post facto.

Such studies provide the State Government their opinion so that corrective steps may be taken in regard to the design and projects. A typical bureaucratic business was thought to require the long-term assistance of well-known subject-experts to provide a component of focused expertise in the planning process. As a result, a State Planning Board/Commission exists in some states, based on the endorsements of various boards and commissions, as well as the State Planning Department. It consists of the Chief Minister, his Deputy, subject-experts, non-officials, and bureaucrats.

State Planning Board

At the State stage, the SPB/SPC in some states have supplied efficiently. The State Planning Board's main responsibilities include: monitoring and implementing state plans, including long-term perspective plans; actuating fiscal resources and assuming various development devices; resolving state plan urgencies in the context of national plan primacies; assisting district establishments in framing their development plans within the scopes and ranges in which such planning is measured to be beneficial and practicable; and assisting district establishments in framing their development plans within the scopes and ranges in which such planning conceive a strategy for the most efficient and well-balanced use of the

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state's resources; identify priority, specify the phases by which the plan should be carried out, and recommend resource allocation to guarantee that each stage is finished on schedule; Identify elements that hinder economic advancement, as well as factors that are likely to obstruct economic development; determine the type of apparatus that will be required to ensure the successful implementation of each phase of the plan in all of its aspects; and to evaluate the progress made in the implementation of each juncture of the plan on a regular basis, and to approve any policy or trial changes that may be required.

Purposes of State Planning Board

1. To assess the state's reserves and design strategies for making the most efficient and equitable use of those resources;
2. To complete the state's plan urgencies within the framework of the National Plan's primacies;
3. To assist district establishments in framing their development plans within the scopes in which such planning is helpful and feasible, and to align these strategies with the State Plan;
4. To identify factors that obstruct the state's economic and social development, and to create conditions that allow for the successful implementation of plans; and
5. To assess the progress of the Plan's agendas and make any policy or instrument changes that the revision may necessitate.

5.4.4 Planning Machinery at the District Level

In such a large country like India, it's easy to lose track of what's going, with substantial gradation of assortment amid regions, preparation by a single central planning agency may even be able to backfire. Consequently, from the time of Since independence, the country has seen a strong tendency in favour of democratic decentralisation of the planning process. In general, democratic decentralisation necessitates people's commitment at various levels of plan formulation and execution. Planning would have to be done at the central level, at the state level, and at lower levels of the state, such as the block and village levels, under such a design. Then and only then can planning truly become a national business.

The rationale for district planning begins with the idea that a coordinated inter-departmental effort is more likely to produce greater benefit for the same amount of money than a calculated series of time-consuming departmental initiatives. Typically, many departments oversee development efforts at the sub-state level., every single one having their own ladders is a big plus. At the district and sub-district levels, non-departmental public entities such as commercial banks, input firms, advertising agencies, and so on operate. As a result, the development goals of numerous departments and agencies become increasingly disconnected. Assimilation and organization of these disparate labours into a consistent local plan framework can provide significant advantages. This needs the establishment of a

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planning organization that can take use of the fact that the majority of departments and agencies have local offices at the district level.

Justify the wide range of natural resources, geography, soil and water availability, skills, and cultural characteristics. As a result, it is preferable that planning be decentralised as much as possible to the district level, allowing for the effective use of local resources after local needs and flaws have been identified. To design at a centralised level would imply either ignoring diversity or absorbing the cost of compiling data and statistics from a vast region and addressing such a big number of facts and figures in order to develop a trustworthy and integrated plan. As a result, decentralised preparation would lower information prices and allow for smaller preparations while still reporting on local requirements and assets.

Nonetheless, while these differences in latitudinal and decentralised planning are undeniably essential, India's emphasis on sub-provincial/state level planning has primarily been a result of political principles. Several initiatives at decentralisation of planning have been bolstered by Gandhian concepts of self-managing small-scale communities.

In actuality, since the beginning of the planning process in India, the concepts of "planning from below" or "grassroots planning" have been mentioned several times. People's participation and engagement has been promoted not only as a way of operative planning but also as a completion in and of itself, from the stage of developing urgencies through the phase of plan implementation. District and subordinate planning has been viewed as a contribution to the country's democratic consolidation process. Whatever fights have been undertaken to expand democracy and socialism, the political norms of democracy and socialism have been the underlying ideals.

District Planning Machinery

District planning, we have observed above, demands an incorporation of numerous components.

Spatial Component

The separate component of district planning is particularly important since district planning is primarily area-based planning. "Spatial planning (... in a district plan...) embraces all spatial manifestations, including those emerging from human activities, both economic and social," according to the 1984 Report on District Planning. Starting with a basic agreement to the city, a broad spatial plan would require consideration of physical resources, land use, and all human communities in a region. A district plan's spatial constituents would steer development programmes via a locational blueprint, ensure distributive fairness, and result in rural-urban fusion and endurance.

The district plan demands that disparities in infrastructural facilities in the district as a whole or in any part of it be recognised and corrected. It also wishes to think about the fundamentals of sub-regionalization, such as cropping configuration.. Sub-regionalization is supposed to contemplate the connections,

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both economic and social, amongst a group of clearances, premised the belief of operative interdependence, e.g., around markets, trading centres, or regions aided by particular health services. The type of interdependence would be determined by the physical circulation of infrastructure and service supply. These skills will vary from settlement to settlement. It is not always necessary for every district to have all of the amenities, nor is it necessary for all blocks/villages in an area to have all of the conveniences. The consideration of spatial individualities and norms is required in planning. The district planner must determine the current and required phases of a variety of facilities.

Economic Component

Because one of the main goals of development planning has been to increase income and employment, economic planning has traditionally been the foundation of planning. Similarly, efficient asset management necessitates economic planning. Knowledge of the situation of the following in the district is a necessary precondition for economic planning:

- resources,
- demographic characteristics,
- agroeconomic characteristics,
- socioeconomic elements,
- infrastructure characteristics, and
- sectoral profiles.

Economic planning, furthermore, would necessitate information about geology, ground water, forest, soil, human and other resources accessible. This information decides the outline of a district, and will also advise the planning approach for the affected district. For instance, a desert-prone region with poor links and connectivity, immature marketing system and with very scarce feasible When paired to an affluent district, economic activity in the zone may need to follow a different economic development strategy. Economic planning in the district must be developed within the context of available financial resources. These assets include:

(a) assets from the state (and the Centre) for specific district projects,

(b) tools available from the state (and the Centre) for general arrangements that are not tied to specific projects, and

(c) assets from non-governmental and selected entities.

Social Component

The social aspect of planning cannot be overlooked in a district plan. A district plan's role also includes reducing socioeconomic inequities, providing social services, and ensuring public engagement. Public involvement is an important instrument and goal for growth in a district plan, because planning is a conduit for social change and a method to bridge the gap between the government and the people. The First Plan had said that the first local importance sparked by a

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desire for better things for themselves could be sustained alone by a vision of achievement, however little, and a sense of a stake in it, however deceptive.

Citizen engagement in planning is essential, primarily to reduce inequitable power distribution, eliminate social disputes or frictions, and promote social fairness via behavioural changes and economic rearrangement of the planning system. The public should indeed be invited to participate in the planning process through open assemblies and forums.

Component of Administration

The political and administrative organization of the district planning apparatus finally stimulates and actuates the success or failure of district planning. The district has traditionally been a territorially structured administrative entity, primarily concerned with law and order and land income. Since the beginning of India's development planning, the role of district administration as a subset of development administration has been emphasised.

The Collector is the district's administrative pinnacle. The district Planning Boards/Committee supports and assists him. A Minister, Member of Parliament, Member of the Legislative Assembly, or the District Collector may serve as Chairman of the Planning Committee. Although, organizationally, the Collector is responsible for area expansion and administration, this is contingent on the State's practise. Since the inception of development administration as a sharing of energy and tools of planning for development, administrative preparations of district planning and development administration have been topics of discussion. In its 1984 report, the Working Group on District Planning considered four important administrative aspects for the successful operation of the planning process. These are the following:

- The deriving of appropriate structures for the plan's coordination and execution.
- Introducing procedural innovations for fund discharge, administrative and technical permission release, re-appropriation processes, and approaches for achieving inter- and intra-sectoral resettlements.
- Developing processes for overseeing and evaluating schemes, as well as determining appropriate ways for combining the district plan with sectional expenditures at the state level.

The type of technological apparatus available at the district level would also influence the success of planning. The administrative structure at the district level should now include a requirement for qualified technical staff in the scheduling body. This would help overcome the limitations imposed by merely stacking departmental plans inside the district structure.

According to the Working Group on District Planning, the District Collector's office should be enhanced, and the District Collector should be the "Chief Coordinator." CAARD, on the other hand, advised in its 1985 report that a post of

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District Development Commissioner (DDC) be created to oversee and coordinate all development activities in the district.

Coming in the shape of the doctrinal intoxication of the frontrunners of national movement by the achievement of consolidated planning in the former Soviet Union, planning has become the alternative word for the policy of socio-economic development in the country. Under the talented management of Jawaharlal Nehru and the perspectives delivered by experts like P.C. Mahalanobis, the Planning Commission, though a non-statutory body, arose to be the custodian of the planning and sponsoring of the developmental schemes through the instrument of the Five Year Plans. Though critics seethed at the impressive position taken over by the Planning Commission in determining the tactic of socio-economic development in the country, the usefulness of the idea of planning and the machinery of the Planning Commission was widely recognized due to the shortage of resources at the disposal of the government and the enormous problems facing the economic development of the people.

However, the induction of the policies of liberalization, privatization, and globalization from the time when early 1990s has radically transformed the scenario and the outlook in which the whole forecasting process and the apparatus of the Planning Commission were positioned to work in the previous times. Not only did the plane of government expenditure by way of opening new economic undertakings got abridged substantially, the preceding design of compulsory planning was also almost cast-off in favor of symptomatic planning, whereby the task of the Planning Commission only remained to specify or point out the broad guidelines of economic development in the country. However, one thing stays very clear in the minds of the planners that despite the beginning of the trend for suggestive planning, the utility of traditional sectoral planning would stay intact as long as the social sector remains a urgency area for the government.

Check Your Progress

7. What is the meaning of planning?
8. What is the main function of planning commission?

5.5 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The expression 'budget' is derivative from the French word 'Bougette' denoting a leather bag or wallet utilized for stocking and transporting official papers.
2. The yearly financial statement comprising an estimate of all projected government revenue and spending for the following fiscal year is referred to as a budget.
3. The different kinds of budget are – line-item budget, performance budget, planning-programming budget, zero-base budget, gender budget, target-based budget.
4. An extremely critical phase in the budgetary course is enactment of budget which denotes the endorsement of the budget by Parliament.

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5. After the Lok Sabha approves the Appropriation Bill, the Speaker acknowledges that it is a money Bill and sends it to the Rajya Sabha. The measure is then debated and sent back to the Lower House, with or without amendments. The Lok Sabha gives the Appropriation Bill its final form before referring it to the President for his approval, which is routinely given.
6. The Ministry of Finance sends advisory to expenditure ministries informing them of the number of monies that have been allotted to them. Following that, the heads of departments distribute funds to the department's various disbursing officials.
7. Planning is a deliberate effort to realize desired ends. It is a logical method of submission of resources for the accomplishment of precise objectives.
8. Planning commission offers advice in association on all essential subjects to the government and helps in harmonizing works at the political level.

5.6 SUMMARY

From the standpoint of the director or citizen endeavouring to affect public policy, the budget is an enormously important tool for forecasting and control.

Apart from finances and budgetary administration, overall and long-term planning is also essential part of an effective public administrative system.

Government roles, policies and programmes will be unsuccessful and convey no meaning without suitable and sufficient budgetary provision.

'Budget denotes the yearly financial statement including an estimate of the projected revenue and spending of the government for the following financial year,' according to our constitution.

There are Different Types of Budgeting such as Line-Item Budgeting; Performance Budgeting; Planning-Programming-Budgeting; Zero-Based Budgeting; Gender Budgeting; Target-Based Budgeting.

Budgetary preparation is the preliminary step in the formulation of the budget evaluations. It is usually considered a valuable tool for delivering a consequential assemblage of the activities of the government.

An extremely critical phase in the budgetary course is endorsement of the budget by Parliament.

There are numerous phases in the budgetary procedure in the parliament such as Demonstration to the Legislature; General discussion; Voting of demands for grants.

After the Lok Sabha approves the Appropriation Bill, the Speaker confirms it as a money Bill and sends it to the Rajya Sabha. The bill is discussed at this point and sent back to the Lower House, with or without suggestions. The Lok Sabha gives the Appropriation Bill its final form before referring it to the President for his approval.

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It is the Ministry of Finance that sends advisory to the spending ministries informing them of the amount of money that has been allotted to them. Following that, the heads of departments distribute funds to the departments' various disbursing officers.

A intentional attempt to achieve desired outcomes is known as planning. It's a rational way of submitting resources for the achievement of specific goals.

The Planning Commission is the central government's planning apparatus. The Planning Commission is primarily a non-partisan consultative and advisory organization that provides recommendations to the government.

At the state level, it is believed that planning departments demand recommendation and care of celebrated subject-experts to present a component of dedicated proficiency in the planning process. Bearing in mind the above, State Planning Boards/State Planning Commissions were created in most of the states.

The Collector occupies the administrative zenith of the district. He is sustained and assisted by the district Planning Boards/Committee.

5.7 KEY TERMS

- **Exchequer:** The previous government agency in charge for gathering revenue and making disbursements on behalf of the head of the state.
- **Estimate:** Coarsely compute or judge the worth, number, amount, or degree of.
- **Revenue:** A country's yearly income from which public expenditures are met.
- **Expenditure:** The full sum of money that a government or person expends.
- **Audit:** An authorized review and scrutiny of an organization's financial records, characteristically by an autonomous body.
- **Accounting:** The activity or work of preserving financial accounts.

5.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answer Questions

1. What is financial administration?
2. What do you understand by Budgeting?
3. Give the definition of budget used in Indian context
4. What are the different types of budgeting?
5. What is the process in enactment of a budget proposal?
6. What is the process in execution of a budget proposal?
7. What is planning? Give your definition.
8. Explain briefly in one paragraph the importance of planning for a nation's development.

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9. Outline the evolution of planning commission.
10. Write a short note on state planning board.

Long Answer Questions

1. The entire financial administration of a nation hinges on the annual budget. Do you agree?
2. If you are to frame a budget for a particular region, what would be your rules and criteria for spending money.
3. Do you think budgetary processes need to be elaborate and convoluted?
4. Which kind of budgeting is appropriate for developing nations in your perspective? Give reasons for your answer.
5. Budget formulation and enactment is a long-drawn-out process in India. Critically evaluate the budget preparation in India.
6. Accounting and Audit is essential to keep a check on the handling of public finances by the government. Analyse the budget audit in this regard.
7. Planning commission is an advisory organization without any tangible influence on policy making. Do you agree?
8. Critically examine the state level planning machinery in India citing examples of any one state/province.
9. Analytically examine the district level planning machinery in India citing examples of any one district administration.
10. If you are to propose a change in the machinery for planning at central, state and district level in India, what would it be?

5.9 FURTHER READING

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