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UNIVERSITY OF NORTH BENGAL

MASTER OF ARTS - POLITICAL SCIENCE

SEMESTER –II

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CORE 201

PAPER-I

BLOCK-2

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FOREWORD

The Self Learning Material (SLM) is written with the aim of providing simple and organized study content to all the learners. The SLMs are prepared on the framework of being mutually cohesive, internally consistent and structured as per the university's syllabi. It is a humble attempt to give glimpses of the various approaches and dimensions to the topic of study and to kindle the learner's interest to the subject

We have tried to put together information from various sources into this book that has been written in an engaging style with interesting and relevant examples. It introduces you to the insights of subject concepts and theories and presents them in a way that is easy to understand and comprehend.

We always believe in continuous improvement and would periodically update the content in the very interest of the learners. It may be added that despite enormous efforts and coordination, there is every possibility for some omission or inadequacy in few areas or topics, which would definitely be rectified in future.

We hope you enjoy learning from this book and the experience truly enrich your learning and help you to advance in your career and future endeavors.



PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

BLOCK 1

Unit - 1: Stages And Growth Of Public Administration

Unit- 2: Organization Theories (Gullick And Urwik)

Unit 3 - Scientific Management (Taylor)

Unit- 4: Human Relation Approach (Elton Mayo)

Unit – 5: System Approach (Chester Barnard)

Unit 6- Behavioral Approach, (Simon And Lindblom)

Unit 7: New Public Administration: Minnowbrook I, Ii And Iii

BLOCK 2

unit 8: Blacksburg Manifesto 7

**unit-9: Development administratioN: growth of development
administration 31**

UNIT 10: Social Background Of Indian Bureaucracy 59

UNIT-11: Categoriazation Of Development Administration 79

UNIT 12: Emerging Issues: Public Choice 109

UNIT 13: Concepts Of Governance 144

Unit 14: Public Policy 179

BLOCK 2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Introduction to the Block

In this block we will go through

UNIT 8: BLACKSBURG MANIFESTO deals with Paradigmatic Location of the Blacksburg Manifesto and to discuss the Exploring the Postmodern

UNIT 9: DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION: GROWTH OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION deals with the administration evolved and grown and to explain the role of various techniques, strategies and structure in development.

UNIT 10: SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF INDIAN BUREAUCRACY deals with e the various aspects of the social background of bureaucracy.

UNIT 11: CATEGORIAZATION OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION deals with participatory and sustainable development and to know more in details about rights based approach.

UNIT 12: EMERGING ISSUES: PUBLIC CHOICE deals with the basic ingredients of the Public Choice approach to political processes and institutions.

UNIT 13: CONCEPTS OF GOVERNANCE deals with the shift of focus in public administration from New Public Management to Good Governance

UNIT 14: PUBLIC POLICY deals with policy related with public goods.

UNIT 8: BLACKSBURG MANIFESTO

STRUCTURE

- 8.0 Objectives
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 The Paradigmatic Location of the Blacksburg Manifesto
- 8.3 Exploring the Postmodern
- 8.4 The Bonaventure Hotel
- 8.5 Postmodernism and Deconstruction
- 8.6 A Postmodern Perspective on the Blacksburg Manifesto
- 8.7 Impact of Globalization on a discipline
- 8.8 Let us sum up
- 8.9 Key Words
- 8.10 Questions for Review
- 8.11 Suggested readings and references
- 8.12 Answers to Check Your Progress

8.0 OBJECTIVES

With the study of this unit, we can able to understand the bellow mentioned points:

- To know the Paradigmatic Location of the Blacksburg Manifesto;
- To discuss the Exploring the Postmodern
- To know about the situation and scenario of The Bonaventure Hotel.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The question, "Does the message of the Blacksburg Manifesto fit the times that we are in now and the times that seem to be shaping up in the next decade or longer?" is addressed by epistemologically locating the Blacksburg Manifesto and by introducing the postmodern debate to the field of public administration. The well-known Blacksburg Manifesto is described as an example of high modernism, beyond the functionalist paradigm, because although the central commitment is to reason and

Notes

progress, the classic forms of administrative rationality are surpassed. It is classified as high modernism because the agency perspective, as articulated in the Manifesto, calls for a dialogue that evokes reason through process in the tradition of Mary Parker Follett. The postmodern experience is described as connoting a world of immense complexity, hyper diversity, and self-preferentiality. Postmodernism requires assuming a posture toward the world that tolerates fundamental ambiguity and paradox. A postmodern perspective on the Blacksburg Manifesto is presented and the central paradox of the Manifesto is exposed.

In 1983, the faculty at Virginia Tech Center for Public Administration and Policy coauthored a paper that has come to be known as the Blacksburg Manifesto. The initial writers, Gary Wamsley, Charles Goodsell, John Rohr, Orion White, and Jim Wolf, came together to discuss the contemporary conditions facing public administration as a result of what had been happening to it during the Carter and Reagan administrations. The result of their dialogue was the Blacksburg Manifesto.

The Manifesto addresses questions of the competency and legitimacy of American public administration, arguing that the legitimacy of public administration is grounded in the American Constitution and that it plays an essential, important, and positive role in the American system of governance. A version of the Blacksburg Manifesto was published in Chandler's (1987) edited volume, *The Centennial History of the American Administrative State*. This version included an additional author, Camilla Stivers, who added an emphasis on the role of citizen participation in governance. Subsequently, Phil Kronenberg, a Virginia Tech faculty member who was on leave when the original document was written, also was added to the author group, and they each contributed a chapter to an edited book (currently in print) that was intended to elaborate the argument of the original essay. The Manifesto has become the focus of considerable discussion in the field. To focus and consolidate this discussion, Gary Wamsley and James Wolf organized a

conference to discuss the expanded, book-length argument at the Mountain Lake Conference Center in the spring of 1989. When the Manifesto was first presented, the conditions that were developing in American government and society that many considered troubling – namely, an overweening emphasis on market processes and a denigration of action through government-were addressed in a timely and sharp manner. The unprecedented emphasis on the market as a way of setting social policy was seen as a way of supplanting what even the Democratic Carter administration regarded as an intrusive, ineffective, wasteful bureaucracy.

The Manifesto called for appreciation of government bureaucracy and a reassertion of it into a vigorous role to help resolve the problematic social conditions that continue to afflict the American nation and that seem to be worsening steadily. Does the message of the Manifesto fit the times we are in now, and the times that seem to be shaping up as the reality of the next decade and longer? This is the question we wish to explore here. Our theme is that the Manifesto reflects the consciousness of modernism, whereas the age we are now facing is postmodern. Postmodernism, because it is both a theory and mode of social analysis as well as a genre of social experience, provides a special opportunity for assessing the relevance of the argument the Manifesto makes.

Although postmodernism as a mode of analysis has been used extensively in other disciplines such as literary criticism and philosophy as well as art and architecture, it has not yet been introduced in the literature or the theorists' dialogue of public administration in the United States. We hope to introduce the postmodern mode of analysis in this article and, in so doing, at least generally indicate the sort of useful insight it can provide to the field. To provide the necessary backdrop for making this introduction, we first will paradigmatically locate the Manifesto to reveal its main implicit assumptions. Then we will describe postmodernism as a social experience and as a mode of social analysis, and then reflect the Manifesto against the analytic frame of postmodernism. In doing this, we have the space here to present only the

barest sketch of the numerous conceptual territories that we must journey through in carrying out our analysis.

8.2 THE PARADIGMATIC LOCATION OF THE BLACKSBURG MANIFESTO

Viewed from the perspective of the intellectual traditions of the field of public administration, the Manifesto is the contemporary extension of the dialogue--central to the field from its inception--concerned with defining the proper role of administration in a democracy. As such, it fits within the frame set by the works of Waldo (1948, 1955), Redford (1958, 1969), Dimock (1945; Dimock & Dimock, 1952), Hyneman (1950)--to mention a few from the past and by Skowronek (1982) and others in a more contemporary vein. Hence the Manifesto addresses a theoretical issue that is vital to the field and that will no doubt remain open as long as the field exists. Our immediate purpose is to describe the position of the Manifesto in terms that refer it to this traditional dialogue and that at the same time reveal its epistemological and ontological assumptions. This is what we mean by "paradigmatically locating" it. The image that the Manifesto presents as the correct one for public administration depicts a constitutionally grounded agency, sensitive to regime values as expressed in Supreme Court decisions and in American sociopolitical traditions, that interacts with its environment (including the public) using a specific form of dialogue to create a community of meaning, a "common sense" in the high sense of the term, in which the public interest, as a guiding light to administrative action, can be found. The Manifesto attributes to the agency a constitutionally legitimated, subordinate-but-independent status. This means that the agency must follow the directives of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches but that it can nonetheless protect itself from lethal compromises to its integrity as a legitimate part of the government. Its continuing deliberations with its public and political environment and its exercise of technical expertise and program experience accrete "policies" that reflect and are dependent for legitimation upon an underlying common

understanding about the key issues within its purview and the range of actions that is legitimate for addressing these issues.

Central to the achievement of this common understanding is that a specific type of dialogue, a certain mode of conversation, is maintained in its relations with its environment and in its internal relations. In taking this stance, the authors of the Manifesto are reacting to what they see as a more-than-somewhat problematic condition in American society and its public administration. This condition, which has progressed rapidly since the Carter administration, is one in which the function of governance has been denigrated to an unprecedented extent. The activity of defining both social purposes and the means for achieving these has been relegated to the market to a drastic and inappropriate degree. As a consequence, the capacity of society to exercise conscious discretion in its affairs has diminished alarmingly at a time when the inexorable advent of new technologies poses substantive issues of morality and social purpose—the one after the other in continuing succession. On the social and political scene, superficiality has become substance—as perhaps is best illustrated by the Bush-Dukakis campaign for the presidency. As in this campaign, selling has become the primary model for social intercourse. What one is able to sell is, de facto, of value or the “good.” Exchange value has reached if not a zenith, at least a penultimate position as a governing calculus by which personal, social, political, and governmental decisions are made. At the very center of all this is the denigration of the public service itself. In his book, *The Case for Bureaucracy* (an important part of the inspiration of the Manifesto), Goodsell (1985) documented the inaccuracy and unfairness of the charges against public administrators and their institutions that fuel this denigration. At its core, the Manifesto is a reaction to these attacks, an attempt to build an appreciation for the many significant successes of American public administration and an attempt to reassert its role in the distinctive American mode of governance.

To a certain extent, in doing this the Manifesto can be seen as helping to reassert the very principle of governance in America. Philosophically and

Notes

theoretically, the Manifesto is set upon a sophisticated, rather novel foundation, one that, it seems fair to say, could only recently have made sense in the context of American social science. That is, the Manifesto is not picturing the agency as the locus of a simple consensus building activity in the traditional sense. The viewpoint is much more complex than this and as such, reflects the contemporary reality of the problem of governance much more accurately than a traditional concept like consensus politics. To see this point clearly we must distinguish between what has been called the functionalist and the interpretivist paradigms of social theory; it is within functionalism that such concepts as consensus make sense.

The Manifesto, on the other hand, seems more to be grounded-if only implicitly nonetheless solidly-on the interpretivist paradigm. The key difference between functionalism and interpretivism hinges on the role that it is possible for language to play in social process. The two paradigms represent rather completely different senses of what it is possible for language to accomplish in social relations. In the functionalist perspective, society is seen as being composed of ordered, regular, institutionalized processes that are normatively based. Society, in this view, is a set of values on which its members hold a consensus. Once these values are institutionalized, they in a sense propagate themselves (and hence continuously recreate society) through socialization processes whereby they are inculcated into new members. Hence members of society become role performers who are guided by the values they have been taught-a bit like social automatons. This is the basis for the famous and oft-repeated charge that functionalism is a sociology without people in it. From this sketch, we can see that functionalism entails very definitely a specific theory of language. That is, in assuming that socialization processes can in standardized ways teach a common or uniform set of values, functionalists assume that language can function as a vehicle for transferring specific and definite meanings. Functionalism thereby relies on a theory of language that is sometimes referred to as legal positivism-i.e., that words can carry specific and more or less (or at least ultimately) discernible meanings. It

is specifically on this point that interpretivism differs paradigmatically from functionalism. Interpretivists hold that the enactment or construction of meaning through the use of language is inextricably involved with social process itself.

Hence language is not the vehicle of social process as much as social process is the vehicle of language. That is, the interpretivists hold that any conversational exchange between social actors, if it is to be rendered sensible, must be “worked through” a rather elaborate, though almost always implicit, process of interpretation. Hence a statement never simply carries meaning. Even the simplest ones, such as greeting in the hallway at work, requires interpretive elaboration in order to be rendered meaningful. The most radically different form of interpretivism, which, in our view, is ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1967; Heritage, 1984), sees every interaction, no matter how stable the social situation within which the encounter occurs, as fundamentally contingent, or “awesomely indexical” to use the appropriate ethno methodological jargon. In this view, all the world is a stage where the players must improvise without relent. Hence administrative decisions are seen as enactments that accomplish the resolution of fundamental ambiguity. There can be no such thing as policy and policy guidance in the way these terms are meant in administrative argot. It is more to the version of interpretivism that has been developed by Berger and his associates (Berger & Luckmann, 1967), though, that the authors of the Manifesto looked for its conceptual foundation even though they do not acknowledge this explicitly. The distinctive aspect of Berger’s framework, as it relates to the Manifesto’s argument, is that Berger sees the possibility for the ambiguity with which social relations are fraught to be overcome through a process of objectification or institutionalization. Drawing heavily from the theoretical frame of Gehlen (1956, 1988), Berger holds that socially enacted meanings can be constructed, that is to say, institutionalized, and thus become devices of influence or socialization. Hence, in this view, people create society, then society creates people though in a different way than the functionalists would say. That is, in Berger’s view, socialization is much less rationalistic than it is in the functionalist view.

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To Berger, socialization is accomplished through the movement of social actions or process from foreground (Lee, conscious awareness) into background (where awareness of their meaning is lost). (For example, whereas handshakes originally had an explicit and known meaning and purpose, nowadays this meaning is lost or moved into the background, and handshaking, now done automatically, can be said to have become institutionalized.)

Such institutionalized traditions are the means of socialization-i.e., the face-to-face enforcement of patterned ways of living together. Hence Berger's is communitarian sociology. The point we want to get to hear though is that Berger's framework holds to a specific theory of language that is like the one implicit in the Manifesto. This theory's main premise is that language can contain and can carry meaning in the context of community. Shared and stable meanings can be created in community. We can illustrate this point by likening the approach in the Manifesto to the view of science held by Kuhn (1970, 1977). Though the point is not often discussed, social relations are central to Kuhn's view of science. His position is grounded in the view that scientific terms can only attain true meaningfulness within a community of shared scientific activity. Although we generally believe that scientific definition of terms through such devices as the mathematical formula are as definite as definite can get, scientific terms in fact can be given full meaning only when they are elaborated in scientific practice by a community of scientists. Kuhn illustrated this point convincingly and by so doing, revealed that "paradigmatic" differences actually reflect differences in the life experience of scientists in their work. The reason one scientist cannot understand another who is working in a different paradigm is that the one has not shared the scientific experiences of the other. Hence words cannot mean the same to both. To share a scientific word requires the sharing of experience, in Kuhn's view. This is precisely how the accretion of policy meanings around an agency is regarded in the Manifesto. As Kuhn offers a communitarian view of science, so the Manifesto offers a communitarian view of public agency. Hence the agency, in its special dialogue with its environment and within itself, is

not “hammering out a policy consensus” about policy issues. Rather, it is creating a common language, a lingua franca, that contains the shared meanings itself.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

1. Write about Blackburg manifesto?

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8.3 EXPLORING THE POSTMODERN

How do we describe the postmodern? Here we must to some extent shift our mode of discourse because postmodernism by its nature is rather baffling to the “modern” mind-set of conventional academic discourse. Postmodernism cannot be described in the usual meaning of “description.” Rather, it must be “surrounded,” “suggested,” hinted at, and (we hope) evoked. The frustration that the modern mentality feels at hearing this fact provides the first insight into what postmodernism is. What we would point to first is that society has changed qualitatively on the level of social experience. The utopian project of modernism that seemed to be realized in the 1950s and carried on throughout the 1960s is no longer alive. Gitlin (1988) provided the following historical accounting of postmodernism: The 1960’s exploded our belief in progress, which underlay the classical faith in linear order and moral clarity. Old verities crumbled, but new ones have not settled in. Self-regarding irony and blankness are a way of staving off anxieties, rages, terrors, and hungers that have been kicked up but cannot find resolution. (p. 1)

The postmodern experience is characterized by words such as performativity, commoditization, isolation, depthlessness, surfaces, mutation, simulacrum, historicism, cacophony, and loss of affect. These

Notes

words are descriptions of experience and texture, and as such, they suggest the circumstances of postmodernity. In modernist terms they denote, collectively, not only a diminishment or loss of “meaning” but, further, a denial that the possibility for “meaning” has ever existed. Hence, postmodernism connotes a theory of “resistance,” whereby one assumes a posture toward life that tolerates fundamental ambiguity and paradox (see Calas & Smircich, 1987). This requires not simply a paradigmatic shift but a shift to a view that reveals that the idea of paradigm itself is a metaphorical construction. Postmodernism thereby rejects the form or model of truth held by all epistemologies. Paramount to understanding this aspect of the postmodern view is that inherent in postmodernism is the refusal to acknowledge the convention that language refers to anything outside itself-i.e., “reality”; instead, language is a synchronic pattern of contrasts. The view that we have a mistaken sense of the connection between language and reality underscores two fundamental insights of the postmodern viewpoint. The first is that this error has led us to follow a utopian vision as if it were a real possibility. In other words, we have followed logic of progress. Some postmodern writers see this point of view as grounded in the Kantian notion of the sublime (Leotard, 1984, pp. 77-81).

Though the mind has both the capacity to conceive and to present, there are some ideas of which we can only conceive and are thereby unrepresentable (i.e., “sublime”). They can only constitute a collectively shared illusion; an illusion that we have shared under modernism. The second assumption is built upon the first one. In this view, represented by the poststructuralists, not only is the modernist position critiqued but fundamentally is challenged as an “ideological mirage.” This amounts to a claim that all epistemologies-i.e., categorizations of knowledge into defined boundaries-are just grand discourse, or metanarratives. Again, the key point is that when we mistake language for reality, epistemologies or grand discourses are accepted as independent truths that are not subject to question.

8.4 THE BONAVENTURE HOTEL

In this section we expand our vision of the postmodern by presenting The Bonaventure Hotel as an example of postmodern architecture. In so doing, we hope to some extent to evoke the “feeling” of postmodernism. The Bonaventure has been detailed by Jameson (1984), and it is from his analysis that we draw. The Bonaventure Hotel, designed by developer Robert Portman, is located in Los Angeles. Portman is well known for the Peachtree Center in Atlanta as well as several Hyatt Regency hotels. One of his most recognized trademarks is the Japanese lantern, gondola-type, “people-mover” elevator. In the Bonaventure, there are four such people-movers symmetrically stationed upon the four residential towers of the hotel. A gondola for each tower alternately surges skyward to the hotel rooms or descends through a greenhouse roof, coming to rest at the lobby/atrium. The residential towers envelop a miniature lake at the center of the atrium. A great column emerges from the middle of the lake to meet the greenhouse roof, which are six stories from the base of the atrium. Streamers descend in twisting fashion from the top of the roof to the surface of the lake, causing consternation to one’s sense of height, width, and depth. The Bonaventure epitomizes the postmodern condition of isolation from the city around it. The hotel shuns any association with its surroundings. In stark contrast to the modernist architecture of Le Corbusier and others, Portman did not seek to impose a form upon the hotel’s surroundings, intimating a utopian vision for the entire city. Instead, the hotel is a self-contained city, “a total space,” that replaces the city rather than connects with it. (Indeed, the management of the hotel refers to it as “the City of Bonaventure” in its brochure.) This isolation is supported by the way in which the entrances to the hotel are concealed from the surrounding streets. Jameson (1984) noted: The entryways of the Bonaventure are as it were lateral and rather backdoor affairs: the gardens in the back admit you to the sixth floor of the towers, and even there you must walk down one flight to find the elevator by which you gain access to the lobby. Meanwhile, what one is still tempted to think of as the front entry, on Figueroa, admits you baggage and all, onto the second story shopping balcony, from which you must take an escalator down to the main registration desk. (p. 81) Hence each entrance to the hotel, rather than serving as a segue to the city, serves as a

Notes

disconnect. In addition to these concealed entrances, the exterior surface of the Bonaventure adds to this intentional disassociation from the rest of the city. However, the disassociation projected by the exterior of the edifice cannot be explained purely as separateness. The exterior of the building is covered with glass panels rather than a material surface such as brick or marble. Hence one never really sees the external form of the building. Rather, the glass panels re-present images of the surrounding city in distorted shapes and at obtuse or acute angles. Thus the self-contained miniature city is concealed while both the space within which it is situated as well as the space around it is playfully confounded. In the interior space of the hotel, perceiving volume is not possible. The streamers that twist down from the greenhouse roof distort all notions of scale; yet, the physical space from the bottom of the atrium to its sixth floor roof is vast. The effect of the streamers in this vast space is such that Jameson (1984), in appropriately postmodern fashion, noted that “. . . a constant busyness gives the feeling that emptiness here is absolutely packed (p. 83). Jameson’s remarks underscore the paradoxical and self-referential feel of the postmodern world. Implicit, and in contrast, to the modern world’s attempts to reduce and unify, the postmodern view shows that the closer one gets to unity, the more one finds complexity and disunity. In another play on space, the symmetry of the four residential towers is so perfect that when one steps out of a gondola into the lobby of the Bonaventure, gaining one’s bearings is difficult.

As evidence of this phenomenon, the merchants of the many shops that are located within the hotel note that customers repeatedly have difficulty finding them. The Bonaventure clearly is a rich symbol of the postmodern world. The gondolas float in a world of shiny and transparent surfaces made of glass and chrome. One feels as though it is impossible to penetrate to any depth. One walks on and around this hotel in the same way one experiences the postmodern world. There are no long staircases, only short steps upon which to perch oneself on one of the many surfaces. Individuals in the gondolas appear to be levitating rather than physically penetrating defined space. The passenger inside this glass capsule also experiences this distortion. Because the passenger

can always see the ground, that space is- really never left behind. In the midst of the Bonaventure Hotel, one's affect is attuned to the postmodern experience. A person has the feeling of being included in a myriad of experiences, events, happenings, that overload the senses to the point where the affect is dulled, numbed. Our discussion of the postmodern experience is not a pronouncement of negation. Rather, it is a representation of the circumstances in which human beings find themselves. However, it is an alert that one can no longer harken back to the "solace of good forms." The formed, structured discourses of modernity are simply incongruent with the postmodern experience.

8.5 POSTMODERNISM AND DECONSTRUCTION

Such analysis as we have just presented frequently evokes the questions, "What are the consequences of postmodernism? How do I act and think in relation to the postmodern experience?" However, framing the issue in this manner merely sets up the pretext for another grand (modernist) discourse or attempt at "truth." The postmodernist injunction alternatively is always to suspend judgement, resist logical reduction, and resist the seduction of being imprisoned by discourse. Finally, it dictates that one suspends the "anxiety to know." Implicit in this postmodern (poststructuralist) posture is the view that all epistemological arguments are linguistic constructions. These constructions from the postmodern view must be deconstructed to reveal their true nature as discourses. Such deconstruction serves not to destroy but to question the irreducibility of the fundamental truths to which discourses are wont to lay claim. Hence what deconstruction does is expose truths as styles of thought or products of discourse. As stated in the previous section, the postmodern view sees language as synchronic. This view refers of course to the work of de Saussure (1966). The paradigmatic shift that de Saussure accomplished was to show how to regard language not temporally (diachronically) and horizontally but, rather, vertically and structurally (synchronically). De Saussure revealed that language is a system of signs (composed of words and the concepts they evoke) that create meaning by virtue of the relationship they have within the texts

Notes

that contain them. No sign (the signifier and the signified) carries independent meaning. Rather, the relationship among the signs in a sentence generates a set of contrasts, which stirs one's affect, thereby configuring a specific pattern of conceptual energy within an individual. It is this pattern of energy that we experience as "reality." From this point of view the expression of the sign "light" in a sentence, resists singular meaning. The utterance of light (the signifier), and the mental image formed (the signified) contain traces of "dark." Thus language, from the de Saussurian perspective, is understood as a system of contrasts or oppositions. The postmodern perspective reveals these oppositions to be from a modernist viewpoint "arbitrary." Hence words do not truly indicate extrinsic referents. This point of view is clearly in contrast to the modernist view of language. The modern view is suffused by metaphysics of presence. This means that reality is believed to be an objective, external state-present and existing-independent of discourse about it. The postmodern view denies this and exposes presence not as an objective state but as the product of the contrast between presence and absence.

8.6 A POSTMODERN PERSPECTIVE ON THE BLACKSBURG MANIFESTO

We hope it is clear from our characterizations that the Manifesto does not reflect a postmodern sensibility. Rather, we would describe the Manifesto as an argument made from the stance of high modernism. It is modern in the sense that administration obviously is viewed as a means of creating progress, solving social problems, and bringing about better conditions in society. The central commitment is to reason, as reflected in the public interest and implemented by the public agency. It is a high form of modernism in that it goes beyond the anachronistic scientism and rational instrumentalism of classical administrative thought. Rather, it offers process, a structured form of interaction or dialogue that evokes reason - that is a vehicle for it-rather than claiming to embody reason, as classical rational instrumentalism does. In this, the position taken in the Manifesto is quite like that of Habermas (1971,1983a, 1983b) and his "ideal speech conditions" that are in principle evocative of liberated

action and reasoned social policy. The Manifesto contains its own version of the “ideal conditions” of process quite specifically. It is on this point of ideal conditions for dialogue that modernism-even high modernism-and postmodernism diverge most clearly, since from a postmodern viewpoint, no such ideal conditions can be specified in principle. To postmodernism, the Manifesto is simply an example of discourse, and as such, no more claims can be made of specifying ideal conditions than can be claimed of any other piece of discourse. Like postmodernism as an experience, where all events and meanings occur on the level of image, and at the surface, deeper claims to “ideals” are pretentious and hollow on the face of it.

Hence postmodernism, both as a theory, or way of understanding, and as a modality of social experience, stands as a fundamental challenge to the Manifesto. Even if the authors of the Manifesto wished to discount or ignore postmodernism as a theory, they nonetheless face the task of making it plausible to postmodern audiences, who may or may not apprehend the theory of postmodern experience but who nevertheless hold a sense of social life that denies the validity of arguments for ideal conditions. To specify the problem somewhat more implicitly, what does it mean to regard the Manifesto simply as another example of discourse, with no valid claim to the stating of ideal conditions? As we noted in the foregoing section, this viewpoint is founded in the perspective on language that developed from the work of de Saussure. One way of describing what de Saussure did was to unground language in the sense of breaking the connection of words to things. Hence, to repeat a point made earlier, texts create a sense of meaning not by referring out to a world of things and events but by referring to themselves – i.e., to a pattern of contrasts that organize affect in the reader. What postmodernist writers seek to reveal is that what is accepted for meaning in the modernist view is grounded only in taken for granted underlying oppositions, or sets of categories or analogies, that themselves can only be sustained, not by reference to an external reality but by other such contrasts.

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A key strategy in postmodernist analysis is to render the central opposition of a text ambiguous-i.e., dissolve the boundary between the categories it poses and expose the chain of further analogies, oppositions or contrasts that are implicitly sustaining it. In the postmodern social scene this is happening within people's experience, such that a postmodern sensibility is being generally created. This has occurred through the development of radical social critique followed by the spread of hyper diversity within society. Some feminists argue, for example, that the widespread awareness (developed over the past 20 years) of sexual anomalies (non-gender-specific Russian "female" track stars, for example), transsexuals, myriad varieties as well as the extent of homosexuality, and even such mundane developments as professional female body builders and the advent of the "sensitive male" have all revealed that the differences between genders essentially are cosmetic, a pattern of cross-referring contrasts that are sustained by the belief that they describe an external "natural" reality. A powerful critique of the entire traditional or Greek view of classification can be found in Lakoff's (1987) recent book, *Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things*. What happens under conditions in which developments such as these occur is that people begin to regard all distinctions as variations in surface textures only, such that all meaning becomes superficial. To take a postmodern perspective on the Manifesto, we must seek to uncover its central or core opposition or distinction, the contrast that provides its rhetorical power. From the mood and tone of the Manifesto, we can easily get a reading of the general direction of its central opposition: it speaks of coherence, meaning, and reason as what administration offers, whereas the alternative is incoherence, mindlessness, and capriciousness. Concomitantly, at the core of the Manifesto is the concept of agency and the contrast agency poses, more than implicitly, with the market. The Manifesto writers see the possibility of meaningful and coherent policy and social action developing in the area surrounding the agency. Unlike the market, the agency offers a forum in which citizens can carry out a conscious dialogue about how they want social life to be. They need not leave it up to the capricious implicit devices of the market, expressed either economically or politically. The agency is a stable, coherent forum

for reason evoked through rightly ordered dialogue. It is here, in the mode of dialogue, though, that we find the overlap between the agency and the market. Especially in the work of White, in elaborating the specifics of the dynamics of process, we see that rules by which a common language is built are precisely like the rules of the market. This is symbolized best by the image of reason or the public interest being evoked through dialogue within the agency, and alternatively, the invisible hand operating in the general benefit through the market.

The Manifesto's agency is simply an institutional container for a market process of dialogue. On the other hand, though, the market is itself an "institution" and is dependent-as in the process model-upon participants in it acting from a certain stance and with certain genuineness. In the agency, one submits to the dialogue as containing wisdom; in the market, one submits to market processes as leading to the general good. In the agency, one must follow a set of communication rules that assure authenticity. In the market, one must also act authentically, from one's interest, in order for the process to work for the general good. The image of the individual in Perls' (1969) *Ego, Hunger and Aggression* is quite compatible with the model of the enlightened, self-interested individual of price theory, though it is Perls' that is taken as one of the main inspirations for process theory. If our analysis is valid, the Manifesto faces a dangerous pitfall if it is taken seriously in the way that modernist thought is prone to do. That is, the lesson of post modernism is that dialogue should be taken as dialogue and no more. As we noted above, such a stance offers the possibility of play as a way of social life. The alternative is to seek to cover the metaphorical nature of the central opposition on which the authors of the Manifesto ground the meanings that they create. This essentially defensive posture can easily lead to its proponents' violating their own rules of process and becoming false prophets. This is the mistake of those like Bloom (1987), who, in his book *The Closing of the American Mind*, argued that the correct image of the university professor is as a kind of pontificating Socrates. It is easier to sustain dialogue when one sees it for what it is. When one loses sight of its metaphorical grounding, it is all too easy to begin wanting to

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embody reason rather than letting the dialogue serve as the vehicle for it. Likewise, it becomes easy to fall into the error of regarding the “giving of reasons”-an essential part of maintaining process, as pronouncing facts and technocratic expertise. In such dialogues, we find participants who, instead of participating actively and authentically to give the dialogue life, hold back and wait on the propitious moment when they can pronounce the reasoned conclusion to the discussion. If the postmodern perspective has anything to contribute, one would hope that it is at least to point out that the sort of nostalgic complaint that Bloom makes cannot be a model for rejuvenating dialogue. The postmodern mentality is far too jaded, sophisticated, alienated, and playful to take such pretentiousness seriously.

When the Manifesto was first presented, the conditions that were developing in American government and society that many considered troubling-namely, an overweening emphasis on market processes and a denigration of action through government were addressed in a timely and sharp manner. The unprecedented emphasis on the market as a way of setting social policy was seen as a way of supplanting what even the Democratic Carter administration regarded as an intrusive, ineffective, wasteful bureaucracy. The Manifesto called for appreciation of government bureaucracy and a reassertion of it into a vigorous role to help resolve the problematic social conditions that continue to afflict the American nation and that seem to be worsening steadily. Does the message of the Manifesto fit the times we are in now, and the times that seem to be shaping up as the reality of the next decade and longer?

This is the question we wish to explore here. Our theme is that the Manifesto reflects the consciousness of modernism, whereas the age we are now facing is postmodern. Postmodernism, because it is both a theory and mode of social analysis as well as a genre of social experience, provides a special opportunity for assessing the relevance of the argument the Manifesto makes.

Although postmodernism as a mode of analysis has been used extensively in other disciplines such as literary criticism and philosophy as well as art and architecture, it has not yet been introduced in the literature or the theorists' dialogue of public administration in the United States. We hope to introduce the postmodern mode of analysis in this article and, in so doing, at least generally indicate the sort of useful insight it can provide to the field.

To provide the necessary backdrop for making this introduction, we first will paradigmatically locate the Manifesto to reveal its main implicit assumptions. Then we will describe postmodernism as a social experience and as a mode of social analysis, and then reflect the Manifesto against the analytic frame of postmodernism. In doing this, we have the space here to present only the barest sketch of the numerous conceptual territories that we must journey through in carrying out our analysis.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

- 1. Write about post modern paradigm of Blackburg Manifesto.

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8.7 IMPACT OF GLOBALISATION ON THE DISCIPLINE

The question, “Does the message of the Blacksburg Manifesto fit the times that we are in now and the times that seem to be shaping up in the next decade or longer?” is addressed by epistemologically locating the Blacksburg Manifesto and by introducing the postmodern debate to the field of public administration. The well-known Blacksburg Manifesto is described as an example of high modernism, beyond the functionalist paradigm, because although the central commitment is to reason and

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progress, the classic forms of administrative rationality are surpassed. It is classified as high modernism because the *agency perspective*, as articulated in the Manifesto, calls for a dialogue that evokes reason through *process* in the tradition of Mary Parker Follett. The postmodern experience is described as connoting a world of immense complexity, hyper diversity, and self-preferentiality. Postmodernism requires assuming a posture toward the world that tolerates *fundamental* ambiguity and paradox. A postmodern perspective on the Blacksburg Manifesto is presented and the central paradox of the Manifesto is exposed.

Economic and cultural globalization threatens the nation-state's ability to control institutions like the university, where a general emphasis on national subjectivities and ideologies is giving way to a focus on diaspora and post national formations. Globalization challenges our tendency in literary studies to organize programs and curricula along national lines. This is particularly true for English literature, the contemporary production and consumption of which no longer take place within discrete national borders but unfold in a complex system of transnational economic and cultural exchanges. As we reorganize our approach to English in this context, we need to develop a thorough understanding of the key terms, issues, and debates that have marked the rise of globalization studies. Most important, we need to resituate English in a global framework without subjecting post national literatures to the colonizing effects of some of our traditional hierarchies and practices.

Globalization

The 21st century, under the impact of globalization, is ushering in a major transformation in the political, economic and cultural spheres across the globe. The resultant effect is change and innovation in public service management. **Globalization** has been instrumental in this; it is affecting the public administrative system as it is embedded in the state framework.

The traditional institutions and processes are also presently being subjected to critical analysis. This calls for a change in the management procedures in the current administrative services.

The **Internet** is a powerful manifestation of globalization — it both results from and contributes to the modern dynamics that, by circular causation, have accelerated the information revolution of our contemporary world system. By contrast, public administration is an ancient phenomenon, but in the world today, it has vastly expanded its scope.

The second theme turns from the problems confronting public administrators to the methods used to organize and implement policies, with special attention on the reforms and innovations that distinguish contemporary administrative practices from older and more traditional ones. Although **democratization** is rapidly expanding around the world, many states are still dominated by dictators or ruling cabals. Therefore, it is appropriate to look carefully at the **processes of democratization**, whereby responsibility for public policies devolves to citizens through their representative institutions, posing problems for public administration that differ fundamentally from those of traditional administration based on hierarchical chains of authority. Thus, public administration needs to be increasingly based on mechanisms that assure the accountability of officials to citizens and those they serve.

At the present time, public administration is being reinvented; it is being subjected to experimentation. The understanding of public administration as being government in action is undergoing a change. The bureaucratic model appears to have outlived its utility and the market centric model has become prominent.

Globalization has a multi-disciplinary perspective and offers varied meanings. Scholars now no longer find the economic definition of globalization to be sufficient to encompass its diversity. They find it too

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narrow and believe that a multi-dimensional subject can be best understood in terms of simultaneous, complex and related processes in the realms of economics, politics, and culture, technology, military, legal and even environmental. Scholars observe that in the present era of globalization, state is not only an agent of its own transformation, but also a major source of development of globalization itself. Globalization is changing the way the institution of public administration operates. According to a scholar Luke, the new globalized context of public administration incorporates –

- Communication, computer technology and a global ‘info structure’
- Economics and internationalization of trade, finance and technology transfer
- Natural resource interdependence in the biosphere.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

1. Write about the impact of Globalisation.

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8.8 LET US SUM UP

We have introduced postmodernism to underscore the incongruity between the traditional discourse of public administration, as reflected in the Manifesto, and the social experience of postmodernity. In a sense, we compliment the high modernism of the Manifesto. The emphasis on process philosophy and lingua franca embodied by the agency perspective affirms a genuine attempt to move beyond the trap of modernism. More important, the fact that the epistemology of the Manifesto is located in the interpretative paradigm indicates its strength in opposing the traditional functionalist view that has predominated too

much and too long in American public administration, and we want to acknowledge this. Implicit in the argument of the agency perspective is the recognition that public administration is a heterodox multiplicity of discourses. Nevertheless, we have also exposed the central paradox of the Manifesto, which is that although the agency and the market are presented as in contrast to one another, the Manifesto's agency is simply an institutional container for a market process of dialogue. Furthermore, there is a righteousness that is implicit in the Manifesto because of the claim that it replaces the functionalist view of public administration with a new and better frame for administrative action. Our point in exposing the central paradox of the Manifesto is that from the postmodern view, it is simply another example of discourse and is best regarded as such. Furthermore, it is a discourse that is paradoxical rather than irreducible. This is the message of the postmodern. So, in our endeavors we seek to resist, rather than to oppose, and to suspend judgment, rather than proclaim truth or falsehood. Thus we want to emphasize that from the postmodern view, paradox and ambiguity are not seen as "peculiar" or "wrong" but, rather, as connoting a different level of experience congruent with the complexity of the current social scene.

8.9 KEY WORDS

Postmodernism: Postmodernism is a broad movement that developed in the mid- to late 20th century across philosophy, the arts, architecture, and criticism, marking a departure from modernism.

Paradigmatic: serving as a typical example of something. "His biography is paradigmatic of the experiences of this generation" or of or denoting the relationship between a set of linguistic items that form mutually exclusive choices in particular syntactic roles.

Manifesto: A manifesto is a published declaration of the intentions, motives, or views of the issuer, be it an individual, group, political party or government

8.10 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

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1. Write about The Paradigmatic Location of the Blacksburg Manifesto.
2. What is Exploring the Postmodern?
3. What is The Bonaventure Hotel?
4. Distingue Postmodernism and Deconstruction.
5. Write about Postmodern Perspective on the Blacksburg Manifesto

8.11 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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8.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

Check your answer with unit 8.2

Check Your Progress 2

Check your answer with unit 8.6

Check Your Progress 3

Check your answer with unit 8.7

UNIT-9: DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION: GROWTH OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

STRUCTURE

- 9.0 Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 The Planned Change
 - 9.2.1 The Strategy of Planning
- 9.3 Land Reforms in Independent India
 - 9.3.1 The Objectives of Land Reforms
- 9.4 The Community Development Programme
 - 9.4.1 The Community Development- Plan
 - 9.4.2 Community Development Programme-An Evaluation
- 9.5 The Democratic Decentralization in India
 - 9.5.1 The Structure of Panchayati Raj
 - 9.5.2 The Ashok Mehta Committee on Panchayati Raj
- 9.6 The Approaches to Development and Development Administration
 - 9.6.1 Regional approaches
 - 9.6.2 Area Development Approach
 - 9.6.3 The Target-Group Approach
 - 9.6.4 Minimum Needs Programme Approach
 - 9.6.5 The People-Centered Approach
- 9.7 Administrative Development in India
- 9.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 9.9 Key Words
- 9.10 Questions for Review
- 9.11 Suggested readings and references
- 9.12 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

9.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- To identify the various stages from 1950 till date through which the development
- To know the administration evolved and grown
- To explain the role of various techniques, strategies and structure in development
- To know administration and discuss the various, approaches to development as adopted in India.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

At the time of Independence, India faced numerous challenges and problems, like, hunger, disease, unemployment, etc. coupled with shortage of skilled manpower to be made use of for meeting these problems. Besides, the country had more or less a semi feudal social structure meaning thereby the concentration of wealth in a fewer hands. The need of the hour was to put the nation on the rails of development for the benefit of all. To begin with, the process of planned change was ushered into both for meeting the challenges as well as the planned change. The strategies and programs adopted for the same are analyzed in the following pages.

9.2 THE PLANNED CHANGE

India adopted the strategy of planned change which implied among other things that planning was to be the basic strategy of social reconstruction. Planning was to be used an instrument of socio-economic progress and nation-building. It was recognized as central to the societies where public sector has to play a role of commanding heights in the economy so as to fulfill the expectations and aspirations of the people Thus planning was regarded as a conscious effort to achieve the desired objectives. In 1936 Dr. M. Visveswarayya underscored the need for planning for industrialization of the country. He suggested a 60 member advisory body from different social sections and interests for the

purposes of plan formulation and execution. He also recommended the setting up of a Planning Commission, responsible for day-to-day administration, and a Development Department at the Centre and Economic Councils in the provinces.

The Congress after assuming power in the provinces in 1937 recommended the establishment of an Expert body for evolving schemes for national reconstruction and planning. As a result of it, in 1944, a committee under the chairmanship of Pandit Nehru was formed. It published 3 plans-the Bombay Plan, the Gandhi Plan, and the Peoples Plan. A Planning and Advisory Board was formed in 1946. The major aim of these efforts was to bring about rapid improvement in the living standards of the people. After Independence, efforts were made to bring forth development and to fulfill basic needs of all concerned in accordance with the spirit of the Constitution through planned moves. The brief enumeration of the aims and objectives of the planning is as follows:

- 1) Growth of National Income
- 2) Reduction of inequality of income and inequality in the ownership of means of production.
- 3) Prevention of concentration of wealth in a few hands.
- 4) Reduction in unemployment and removal of poverty.
- 5) Provision of basic human needs.
- 6) Conservation of ecology and environment protection.
- 7) Self-reliance of the national economy.

A simple analysis of the objectives mentioned above will explain that the objectives of planning are basically aimed at securing growth with social justice and generating self-reliance. The Planning Commission For the formulation, implementation, and administration of plans, and the central cabinet adopted a resolution on March 15, 1950 to set up the Planning Commission

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with the following features of its organizational set up. It is a plural body with multi-member organization. It has two types of members: full time members and part time members. The size of the Planning Commission in terms of number of its members is not fixed. It is a mix of staff and line agency. It is a mix of political representation and the varied socioeconomic expertise. The Prime Minister is the chairperson of the Planning Commission. The full-time members are in charge of various divisions and sections through which the Planning Commission functions. There are Programme advisors in different divisions. The other officers of the Planning Commission are known as chief consultant and joint advisors. The organization of Planning Commission as on 15.3.1991 was as follows:

- 1) Chairperson-Prime Minister.

- 2) Deputy Chairperson- Minister of Planning and Programme Implementation. However, it appears that it is not necessary for the deputy chairperson to hold this portfolio. For instance, last two governments at the centre appointed full time Deputy Chairperson.

- 3) The following Ministers of the Central Government are the part-time members of the Commission:
 - A) Finance Minister
 - B) Agriculture Minister
 - C) Energy Minister D) Industry Minister
 - E) Minister of HRD (Human Resource Development)
 - F) Minister of Environment and Forest
 - G) Minister of Law and Justice and Water Resources
 - H) Minister of State for Planning and Programme Implementation.Besides, there are 6 full time members of the commission drawn from the fields of economics, engineering,

agriculture etc. They are the experts with long experience in the respective areas.

The Planning Commission, being a composite organization, gives collective advice on its important matters. The function of Planning Commission is assessment of resources, formulation of plan; determine priorities, augmenting of scarce resources, monitoring and evaluation of plans. The Planning Commission performs variety of functions covering the entire-economy of the nation. It is concerned with the issue of financial resources, international economics, development policies, socio-economic research, labour, employment and manpower, plan co-ordination, monitoring and evaluation, rural development, village and small industries, education, rural energy, social welfare and nutrition, communication and information, health and family welfare.

4 The Committee on Plan Projects

In order to properly gear up the developmental activities through plan projects, a committee on Plan Projects was created in 1956. It includes the Home Minister (as chairman), and the Finance Minister, Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission and two Chief Ministers to be nominated by the Prime Minister. The functions of this committee are:

- 1) To organize investigation, including inspection of important projects, both at the Centre and States through specially selected teams.
- 2) To initiate studies aiming at evolving appropriate form of organization, methods, procedures and techniques for economical and efficient execution of projects.
- 3) To implement the recommendations made in reports submitted to it.

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4) To perform such other functions as may be assigned to it by the National Development Council for the promotion of efficient implementation of the plan. The committee, however, is not in existence since 1970 as a separate institution.

The Programme Evaluation Organization (PEO): Under the general guidance and direction of the Planning Commission, the Programme Evaluation organization was created in 1952 for evaluating the Community Development Programme and Intensive Area Development scheme. Later on its sphere of operation was enhanced including therein the evaluation studies of plans, programmes, and co-operation, health, family welfare, rural industries, rural development, public distribution etc. The PEO is mainly involved in:

- i) The appraisal of performance in the light of objectives and targets.
- ii) The assessment of the 'impact of programmes on beneficiaries and the social and economic structure of the community.
- iii) Provision of services to the target groups.
- iv) rendering technical guidance to the state evaluation organisation and
- v) Training of state evaluation personnel.

Another agency concerned with the formulation of development planning and policies is the National Development Council, which has the Prime Minister as its chairman, and the central ministers, the chief ministers, the Lt. Governors, members of the Planning Commission and the administrators of the union territories as the members. Briefly, the role of the 'NDC in the planning process is as follows:

- a) It acts as a link between the Union Government, the Planning commission and the governments of the states.

- b) It considers the guidelines for the formulation of the National Plan.

- c) It considers the plan as formulated by the Planning Commission.

- d) It considers all important issues relating to social and economic development policy.

- e) It reviews the plans and suggests measures, to achieve the set goals of the plan including the steps to secure peoples active participation and co-operation, improve the efficiency of the administrative services, ensure the fullest development of the less advanced regions and sections of the community and - build up resources for national development. The importance of the National Development Council lies in the fact that it has been largely responsible for giving Indian, Plan a national character and for ensuring national unanimity in approach and uniformity in the working.

9.2.1 The Strategy of Planning

The major thrust of the planning was to evolve strategies to at least minimize the problems being faced by the people at large. In order to have self-reliant economy, such thrust areas were picked up where state intervention is required. Keeping in view the vital and crucial role to be played by public sector in industrialization and modernization, the state monopolized in the areas of atomic energy, defense, railways, airways, iron and steel, minerals, coal, ship building, air craft, electricity, etc. Even the Industrial Policy Resolutions of 1948, 1956 and 1978 clearly stated that the industries of basic and strategic significance and also those dealing with public utility services would be in the public sector.

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The state also aimed at providing fiscal and supportive measures to certain other industries to be set up in private sector. To cope up with the problems of unemployment, under-employment and disguised employment, the state has taken good number of measures. Some schemes, like Jawahar Rozgar Yojna, National Rural Employment Programme, Rural Labour Employment, etc. along with the employment opportunities being provided in the public sector undertakings are landmarks in this regard. Besides, the financial incentives are also given to the rural as well as urban educated unemployed youth for starting self-employment ventures. In the field of a culture, the first step was taken in the abolition of Zamindari system, followed by various land reforms Acts like tenancy reforms and Land Selling.' The agricultural production was sought to be increased through introducing high technology iti agriculture which is popularly known as green revolution. The purpose was to achieve self-sufficiency in food grains. However, the scheme was" implemented only in some selected parts of Punjab, U.P., Haryana and Tamil Nadu. The measures ended in increasing food production to the level of self-sufficiency yet it further widened the gaps between regional development levels.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers

1) Describe the functions of the Planning Commission.

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2) Mention the objectives and strategies of planning in India.

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9.3 LAND REFORMS IN INDEPENDENT INDIA

9.3.1 The Objectives of Land Reforms

One of the major problems before the country at the time of Independence was unequal concentration of land ownership in the hands of few and prevailing conditions of semi-feudalism. As stated earlier, the country had a semi-feudalistic structure of society having wealth concentration for few hands. To do away with this unequal distribution of wealth, the Poverty Alleviation became the priority item on the national agenda. It was believed to be achieved through Land Reforms on a quantitative and qualitative scale. The Land Reforms Measures The land reforms objectives were sought to be achieved through the following measures:

- i) Abolition of zamindari system
- ii) enhance reforms
- iii) Imposition of land ceiling and re-distribution of surplus land
- iv) Consolidation of land holdings. There were many intermediaries like Zamindar, Jagirdar, etc. between the state and the tiller of the land.

This resulted not only in concentration of land in the hands of a few persons, but also in the neglect of agriculture and consequently decline in production adding more to the poverty of

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the peasantry. In other words "Land to the Tiller" became an accepted policy. Hence, many state governments passed Zamindari Abolition Act in the early fifties. This measure gave ownership rights in land to about 20 million cultivators. Similarly, system of tenancy was also a source of exploitation of the poor peasantry in the village by the landlords. Hence Tenancy Reforms also aimed at extending the policy of land to the tiller. The Tenancy Reforms Acts provided for: regulation of rent; and security rights. However, the tenancy reforms have been ineffective because of lacunae in the tenancy acts, absence of proper records of land, lack of effective administrative machinery and interaction of lease, labour and credit market. The land ceiling was also imposed in many states through legislation. However, there was no uniformity either in case of the limit or approach. For instance, the ceiling was 4 hectares in Gujarat as against 136 hectares in Rajasthan. It should be stated here that the objective of fixing the highest limit of the size of holdings was to eliminate inequalities in the ownership of land. These reforms, however, proved ineffective to, achieve the objective again because of legal flaws, manipulation of law, loose definition of the term and too many exemptions from the application of land ceiling laws. The Government of India, during 5th Five Year Plan, started giving financial assistance to the assignees of surplus land scheme so as to enable them to improve production and productivity. This grant was made available to the assignees of surplus land for the purposes of land development, minor. Such-grant or subsidy was not to exceed Rs. 80001- per allotted from all schemes together. The consolidation to landholdings aimed at all round improvement in the production along with diversification of rural economy and provision of common services to small land-holders like community irrigation wells, scientific planning for irrigation etc. However, the progress in these areas also has been slow as only 518 lakhs hectares area has been consolidated up to 6th Plan period. Implementation of Land Reforms. The land reforms programmes were sought to be

implemented through the existing bureaucratic set up. The tall objectives of eliminating poverty, removal of exploitative socio-economic structures, and increase in agricultural output were only partially obtained. While there were many politico-cultural factors responsible for tardy implementation, the administrative set-up also presented many problems to effective implementation of land reforms throughout the country. The administrative system was not prepared to respond to the demands of change. The principle of growth with equity remained largely unrealized because the administrative set up was unresponsive to the hopes and aspirations of the targeted groups. The old colonial administrative practices and behaviours kept the beneficiaries away from the processes of implementation of these laws. The administrative non-performance is responsible mainly for the continuation of the practices of conceal or informal tenancy system.

9.4 THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

9.4.1 The Community Development- Plan

The introduction of Community Development Programme could well be termed as the beginning of development administration in India. The Programme was launched with the following objectives:

- 1) To secure total development of the material and human resources of rural areas.
- 2) To develop local leadership and self-governing institutions,
- 3) To raise the standard of living of the rural population by means of rapid increase in food and agricultural products, and

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4) To bring attitudinal changes towards life in the rural people. The assumption was that the overall development of the rural community needed, people's participation supported by technical and other services. Moreover, there was also the realization that the problems of rural development could be dealt with only in a holistic perspective rather than being tackled in an isolated manner. The Institutional Arrangements the CDP covered to begin projects with wide ranging programmes for agricultural development along with the development of animal husbandry, rural industries, health, housing, education and communication in rural areas. The Programme was administered in phases at 5 levels-National, State, District, Block and Village. The unit of operation was the village and the block was taken as the main development unit. The Block Development Office (BDO) was the chief executive officer who was to be assisted by seven extension officers who were experts in each of the following areas of rural development:

- a) agriculture;
- b) animal husbandry;
- c) rural industry;
- d) public works;
- e) social education;
- f) co-operative; and
- g) panchayats.

There were 10 village level workers (redesigned in many states now as village development officers) in each block. 10 villages were put under the charge of one VLW or VDO. The district collector and the development commissioners were made the executive heads of the CDP at the District and State levels respectively. At the national level separate wing known as community projects administration wing under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister was created. A separate Ministry of Community Development was formed in 1957. The Government

of the USA made a major contribution under the Technical Assistance Programme in terms of funds and technical assistance in implementing the programme. The rest of funding came from the centre and the state governments. For purpose of implementation the Country was divided into development blocks and 5.5 projects as mentioned earlier, were launched. Each of the project covered about 3500 villages and about 300000~population. Each project was further divided into three development blocks each of which covered about 100 villages and a population of about 70000. About 1060 blocks were covered in the First Five Year Plan which extended to all the blocks by the end of the third 5 year plan.

9.4.2 Community Development Programme-An Evaluation

The Community Development Programme was viewed, at the time of its introduction, as a revolutionary step to bring about societal transformation in the rural areas. The Community Development Programme was innovative in so far as it provided the different machinery and a delivery system than the revenue administrative system to bring about socio-economic change. It represented an organised administrative system at all level from national, state and local to execute the development programs throughout the country. The programme was also, the admission of the fact that social change is not possible unless the efforts are people centered a development of people in their development 1st not ensured. It underlined the necessity of comprehensive planning and long-term investments from government for the purposes of rural reconstruction. Another achievement of the community development was the recruitment and training of a large number of personnel and introduction of modern technology in agriculture, under the programme, many institutions such as farmers' co-operative credit societies, primary schools, family welfare centers, hospitals and dispensaries were established.

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However, despite some positive impacts of the Programme, it became clear by the end of the Third Plan that it failed to meet the hopes and aspirations of the policy-makers as well as the people. The rural socio-economic structure and problems continued as before. The elite forces in the rural areas governed the benefits from the Programme. The administrators either failed to understand the operational implications of socioeconomic and cultural framework existing in the villages or they themselves were not favourable towards the welfare of weaker sections. The Programme also failed in ensuring people's participation in either the formulation or implementation of the Programme. The objective of promoting attitudinal and cultural change could not be achieved. The bureaucratic response to the Programme was unsuitable in the context of complexities of rural socio-economic structures. The administration was characterized, lack of proper co-ordination, interdepartmental rivalries, and the absence of well-defined functional responsibilities at various levels. An intervillage and intra-village imbalance in the distribution of benefits was another outcome of the programme.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

1) Discuss the objectives of land reforms programmes in India?

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2) Discuss the objectives of community development programme

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9.5 THE DEMOCRATIC DECENTRALISATION IN INDIA

The Panchayati Raj system in India was a product of the assessment of the progress or failure of the Community Development Programme in the country by Balwant Rai Mehta Committee report on the programme. Owing to the Gandhian approach to development and administration, the Panchayati Raj System was set up in India. Besides, the assessment of the success or unsuccessful of the CDP also added to the factors responsible for the emergence of P.R. system. Through this, system, it was sought to achieve a prosperous, genuinely democratic, and dynamic India. P.R. system introduced in 1959 had the following objectives:

- i) decentralization;
- ii) participation in development administration;
- iii) replacement of vested interest with the widening mass involvement is the task of establishing a gentle socio-political and economic democracy;
- iv) linking taxes with benefits,
- v) planning from below;
- vi) Increasing the agricultural production and productivity;
and
- vii) Involvement of the weaker, poorer sections in the development process. Besides, some other objectives of the P.R. system as delineated in the 3rd Five Year Plan are:
 - a) Development of rural industries;
 - b) Fostering co-operative institutions;
 - c) Encouraging the spirit of self-help within the village community; and

d) Progressive dispersal of authority and initiative with emphasis on the role of voluntary organisation.

9.5.1 The Structure of Panchayati Raj

The Balwant Rai Mehta Committee had a different idea in view when it suggested a three-tier system of Panchayati Raj with freedom to the states to structure the system in line with their socio-political environment. One could see now that the thinking of Balwant Rai Mehta did not get the positive response and amounted to lack of uniformity in the implementation of the scheme. In Jammu and Kashmir, for example, only Village Panchayats were established while in Orissa Village Panchayats and samitis were established. However, there is no variation in case of the highest tier, i.e. the Zilla Parishad of the Panchayati Raj. Even there, the structure of Panchayati Raj includes Zilla Parishad at the district level, Panchayat Samiti at the block level and Gram Panchayat at the level of the village. Balwant Rai Mehta suggested that the 'Block' was to be the unit of planning and development with supervisory and controlling role left to the Zilla Parishad. Again, there is no uniformity in this regard. For example in Maharashtra, Zilla Parishad is vested with planning and developmental functions rather than Panchayat Samiti. The arguments advanced in favour of assigning these functions to the Zilla Parishad, among others, were as follow:

- A) District is the stable and easily manageable unit;
- B) District traditionally has been recognized as the administrative unit; and
- C) The technical manpower is already available at that level.

Next to the Zilla Parishad is the Panchayat Samiti at the block level. The village pradhans or sarpanches, are the members of this

important body apart from the coopted and ex-officio members. There is reservation of seats for women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. In some states, the MLAs and M.Ps of the area are also the members. The chairman of the Samiti is elected by the village pradhans (Presidents of Gram Panchayat). The basic unit of the Panchayati Raj is the village panchayat. This body is directly elected by the people of the village and ensures more direct involvement of development program. The civic and development functions are entrusted to the Panchayats in almost all the states. At the village level, there is another body called the Gram Sabha. It is constituted as an instrument of popular participation. The gram sabha considers the accounts and approves the proposals for taxation and plans for development submitted by the gram panchayat. However, the gram sabha enjoys these powers only in theory. The Sabha hardly meets and it has proved quite ineffective. The number of members of the Panchayat varies between five to thirty seven. The Panchayat Act, as passed by the state fixes this number. The members are elected through the principle of one man one vote and secret ballot. The women and scheduled castes and tribes are also given representation in the Panchayat.

9.5.2 The Ashok Mehta Committee on Panchayati Raj

The Panchayati Raj system that was introduced with much fanfare and with multiple objectives could not be a success. It came to be treated mainly as an instrument of increasing agricultural production. "The activities of Panchayati Raj institutions were meager, their resource base weak and the overall attention given to them niggardly." It was in this context that the Central Government appointed a Committee, popularly known as Ashok Mehta Committee, to suggest steps to strengthen the Panchayati Raj institutions. The major recommendations of the committee, among others is:

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- i) Replacement of three-tier structure with two-tier structure-one at the level of the district and the other at the Mandal Level;
- ii) The composition of various tiers is specifically given. The ZillaParishad shall consist of

- (a) Elected members from suitably demarcated wards,
- (b) Presidents of the Panchayat Samitis,
- (c) Nominees of the bigger municipalities and the district co-operative federation,
- (d) Two women,
- (e) Two co-opted members one having special interest in rural development and one from the local teaching profession, and
- (f) Representation to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The Chairperson of the ZillaParishad shall be elected indirectly by its members from amongst themselves:

The Mandal shall have 15 members to be elected directly, including representation from farmers' service societies, women and scheduled castes and tribes.

- i. Panchayati Raj institutions should be entrusted with 'compulsory powers of taxation';
- ii. Constitutional status should be awarded to Panchayati Raj system;
- iii. Open participation by political parties in the elections to Panchayati Raj bodies;
- iv. Election to these bodies should be conducted by the Chief Election Officer of the state in consultation with the Chief Election Commissioner;

- v. Regular social audit and monitoring by a district level agency to safeguard the interests of SCs and STs;
- vi. Creation of a Social Justice Committee in each ZillaParishad; and
- vii. Ordinarily the Panchayati Raj institutions should not be superseded. In case supersession is unavoidable, their elections should be held within six months from the date of supersession. As discussed under Section 4.5, the Panchayati Raj System was introduced in order to have development of all concerned by having their involvement and participation in the total schemes to be launched. For one reason or the other the results of the efforts made through this system could not be as grand as expected.

9.6 THE APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT AND DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

9.6.1 Regional approaches

The first approach to development, especially rural development, was regional with emphasis on economic activities to be established in different sub-regions of the district. This approach is popularly known as Growth Centre Approach the philosophy behind this approach is that the process of development in rural areas can be fostered by developing natural resources, build up infrastructural facilities and social services, and foster the growth of towns and cities in a manner that would help the district to develop in a directed way. The assumption is that each village could not be provided with those facilities simultaneously because of financial limitations and for reasons of economic eminency. This approach is also known as Induced Economic Growth Approach.

9.6.2 Area Development Approach

The area development approach focuses on two points:

- i. Development of the optimum infrastructural facilities; and
- ii. Spatial and functional integration for the development of an area.

The purpose of these approaches was alleviation of rural poverty. In the last four decades, much area-based development programmes-Intensive Agricultural District Programme, Drought Prone Area Programme, Command Area Development Programme, and Desert Development Programme-were prepared and implemented. Since agriculture plays a very important role in the economy and in social life of the people, the area development strategy was considered essential. The Drought Prone Area Development Programme was for instance, envisaged - in the - seventh five year plan to increase productivity from dry land and arid areas. The characteristic of such an area is maximum concentration of the poor and the unemployed. Hence, their development called for the use of appropriate technology of development. The Drought Prone Area Development-Programme included six major sectorial areas including fisheries, irrigation, forestry, horticulture. Similarly, Desert Development Programme was another area based programme aiming at:

- i) afforestation;
- ii) maximum exploitation and conservation of water resources;
- iii) creation of water harvesting structures;
- iv) rural electrification; and
- v) development of agriculture, horticulture and animal husbandry.

9.6.3 The Target-Group Approach

The third approach to development is Target-Group Approach or Beneficiary Oriented Approach. This may also be termed as people-centred approach. It was realized that economic growth

model of development which laid emphasis on trickle-down theory (which believed that fruits of development will automatically reach to the people in rural areas. That is, the fruits will trickle down by themselves) was unsuitable to solve the problems of poverty and unemployment. Hence, it was considered necessary to undertake such programmes and projects which deliberately and in a determined manner aimed at reduction in poverty and lead to distributive justice. The main principle came to be economic growth with social justice. With this objective in view a number of target-group oriented programmes were implemented. Some of them have been:

- i) Rural Manpower Programme: It was initiated towards the end of 1960-61 to provide employment opportunities for hundred days to at least-225 million people. It ended in 1968-69. Again during the 4th Five Year Plan ii special programme-Crash Scheme for Rural Employment was started for providing employment to 1000 people every year;
- ii) Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme was launched in 1972 in 15 selected community development blocks for a period of 3 Tears. The programme aimed at creating additional employment for unskilled labour, creation of assets, creation of new skills and to enter into some kind of manpower budgeting.
- iii) Food for Work Programme was initiated in April 1977 with the following objectives:
 - a) Improving the nutritional level and strengthening of rural infrastructure.
 - b) Creation of additional gainful employment in the rural areas to improve the living of the people in rural regions.
 - c) Making use of surplus foodgrains for human resource development. This programme was renamed as National Rural Employment Programme in October 1980. The implementation of the programme was made the

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responsibility of the District Rural Development Agency established at the level of the district. The projects were to be prepared keeping in view the felt local needs.

d) Another beneficiary-oriented programme is Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP). This aims at to provide employment to landless rural farmers. Its objectives include:

- 1) Improvement of employment opportunities, especially to provide employment to at least one member of a family of rural landless labour for 100 days.
- 2) Improving the overall quality of rural life.
- 3) Creation of productive and durable assets for direct continuing benefits to the proper groups. Under this programme, the preference was to be given to women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The execution of the programme could be left to a voluntary organisation or to DRDA or to any other agency deemed fit for the purpose. The voluntary agencies are regulated by either the agency of People Action for Development or the DRDA where this agency is not in existence; For the purposes of planning, monitoring and implementation of the programme, a central committee at the level of the centre was established. Besides, every state was to have state level co-ordination committee for rural development and project approval. The programme is centrally supported and 10 per cent allocation is earmarked only for the benefit of SCs/STs. In 1989, new scheme called Jawahar Rojgar Yojna was launched. Its basic objective was to give employment to people in most backward districts with high incidence of poverty and unemployment. The earlier two programmes NREP and RLEGP were merged into this new programme along with the Million Wells Scheme. This is centrally sponsored scheme where 80 per cent funds are to be provided by the Centre and that too directly to the DRDAs

who will further forward 80 per cent of the allocation to the village panchayats.

- 4) Strengthening rural economic and social infrastructure which would lead to rapid growth of rural economy.
- 5) Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA): Though development of women as a human resource was made a part of the Integrated Rural Development Programme, no significant results were achieved. Therefore, to provide specific alteration to the improvement of nutritional levels of women and children and also to improve their status, the scheme of DWCRA was implemented in 1982. The objectives of the programme included assistance to individual woman to enable her to make use of facilities provided under IRDP, provision of supportive services at the work-site and provision of childcare facilities like security, health care and nursing for the children of women at work. Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM.) was conceived.in order to make the poor productive and self-reliant; two lakh persons per year were to be given training. Under the programme, one third of the beneficiaries were to be women. The main focus of the scheme was to provide the rural youth within the age group of 18-35 years with the necessary skills and technology to enable them to take vocations of self-employment. The preference was to be accorded to the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and ex-servicemen.

9.6.4 Minimum Needs Programme Approach

The earlier approaches ignored the social aspect of development. The main thrust of those approaches was on economic development or income and assets generation for .the specific areas or target-groups. However, it was realized lately that social development was equally important. The provision of social services and basic necessities to improve quality of life occupied

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increasing attention of the planners and developers; this approach emphasizes 'investment in human beings'. The objectives of this approach are:

- i) Establishment of a network of basic services and facilities of social consumption in all the areas up to nationally accepted norms, within a specified time-frame.
- ii) Rising of the standards of living and reduction of the regional disparities in development. The Minimum Needs Approach concentrates on basic needs of food, shelter, sanitation, health, education, drinking water and roads. The programme has fixed following priority areas. Elementary and adult education, health, rural water supply, rural road: rural electrification, housing, environmental improvement of urban slums and nutrition.

Primary Health Care Approach based on equity, access and social justice is very vital philosophy of social development. The programme includes

- (a) Provision of curative, preventive and promotional health services,
- (b) Control and eradication of major communicable diseases,
- (c) Training of medical and Para-medical personnel and
- (d) Establishment of network of primary health services. Another important program under MNP is Nutrition Programme which includes
 - (i) Special Nutrition Programme and
 - (ii) Mid-day Meals Programme. In 1972-73 the Government of India introduced another special programme for Accelerated Rural Water Supply.

It aimed, among other things, at providing adequate and safe drinking water to the rural population, prevention of water pollution, educating the public in conservation of quantity and quality of water etc.

9.6.5 The People-Centered Approach

The main thrust of this approach is to treat the individual as an active participant in the development process, rather than viewing him merely as subject of development. The people-centred approach comprises human growth and well-being, equality, self-reliance and peoples' participation as its key elements. Similarly, the involvement of voluntary/ non-government organizations, is also becoming an important part of development administration in India.

9.8 ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA

The development of administration is an integral part of development administration. It is now well recognised that development goals cannot be achieved in the absence of a very capable and competent administrators. They (the administrators) have to cope with the emerging complex challenges with a different approach. Development administration does not stop at merely formulation of plans and programmes for development, the crux of development is the implementation of development plans and policies. Hence there is a need to build up administrative capabilities and capacities to deliver the goods. Administrative development refers to the behaviour necessary for the formulation and execution of schemes and programmes and projects aiming at change and underlying the understanding in the belief that administration should be responsive to the needs and aspirations of the people. The civil services have to undergo behavioural and attitudinal change, besides the changes in the

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structures, procedures and methods or work so as to fit into the need of a developing country like India. It was with this view that Central government and many state governments appointed many committees and commissions to suggest measures to improve administrative capacities and capabilities. The most well-known among them were: N. Gopal Swamy Ayyangar Committee (1949), A.D. Gorwala (1951), and reports submitted by Paul H. Appleby in 1953 and 1956. The Appleby Report made important recommendations regarding work procedures recruitment, training etc. The Estimates Committee of the first Lok Sabha also suggested changes in administrative machinery of the Central Government through its reports presented in 1950-51 and 1953-54.

The successive Five Year Plans have been indicating the need for improvement of in-service training, performance evaluation on systematic basis, establishment of O and M (Organization and Method Division) etc. As the First Five Year Plan saw the actual advent of development administration in India (1951-56), some new agencies concerned with the responsibility of administrative evaluation were established : National Development Council (1952); Programme Evaluation Organisation in the Planning Commission, and Special Reorganization Unit. Efforts have been made to attune the administrative structures, procedures, staffing patterns, techniques of planning, etc., to the goals and processes of development. Since late 70s it is increasingly realized that development need not merely mean changes in administrative technology, but it also entails changes in administrative culture. This change has been attempted in India through the mechanism of training. Enhancing the levels of skills and knowledge of the civil service is the other important objective of administrative development which again is sought through the mechanism of training. Experience is transformed into knowledge and knowledge is used to build up experience through the methodology of training.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

1) What are the major approaches to development?

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2) Discuss the nature of administrative development in India since Independence.

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9.9 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have studied the evolution of development administration in India as a process as well as a discipline; we examined the evolution of development administration as a concept both in terms of structures as well as programmes and projects. We have also studied various approaches and themes to development administration in India

9.10 KEY WORDS

Agrarian Structure: Agrarian structure is understood to mean institutional framework of agriculture. This institutional network relates to tenure system, forms of employment credit institutions, trade unions etc.

Tenancy Reforms: It is a part of the land reform programme. It includes the institutional measures meant for the technical security of the cultivators.

Land Ceiling: Imposition of restriction of the size of land-holding.

Tiller: Cultivators of land.

9.11 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

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1. Write about the Strategy of Planning
2. Describe Land Reforms in Independent India
3. What are the Objectives of Land Reforms?
4. Write about the Community Development Programme
5. Write about the Democratic Decentralization in India
6. Describe the Approaches to Development and Development Administration
7. Write about Administrative Development in India.

9.12 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

- Trivedi, K.D. 1987. Perspective in Development Administration: Mittal Publication Delhi.
- Verma, S.P. and S.K. Sfiarma (eds.) 1984. Development Administration: Indian Institute of Public Administration. : New Delhi.

9.13 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

1. Check Your Progress 1

Check your answer with unit 9.2

2. Check Your Progress 2

Check your answer with unit 9.4

3. Check Your Progress 3

Check your answer with unit 9.8

UNIT 10: SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF INDIAN BUREAUCRACY

STRUCTURE

- 10.0 Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Social Background of the Bureaucracy
- 10.3 Influence of Bureaucracy's Social Background on Administration
- 10.4 Ways of making Bureaucracy and Representative
- 10.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 10.6 Key Words
- 10.7 Questions for Review
- 10.8 Suggested readings and references
- 10.9 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

10.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you should be able to:

- To describe the various aspects of the social background of bureaucracy;
- To discuss the influence of the social background of bureaucracy; and
- To suggest ways for bringing about a more representative bureaucracy.

10.1 INTRODUCTION

Studies of the social background of bureaucracy have been made in various countries in recent times. A study of higher civil servants in France by Bottomore was published in 1954, of those in Britain by Kelsall in 1955, and of those in America by Warner and others in 1963, in India V. Subramaniam's Social Background of India's Administrators was published in 1971. Research work on the social background of the

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Indian Administrative Service (IAS) was done by L.P. Singh and S.N. Singh. David C. Potter's *India's Political Administrators 1919-1983* was published in 1986. In this book, he dealt with the Indian Civil Service and the Indian Administrative Service and the social background of each of these Services. One of the objectives of making studies such as those mentioned above may be merely to find out which social economic group does the senior civil servants come from "The researcher tries to answer questions about the section of the society from which most civil servants of a certain category are drawn, their education, whether they lived in villages or cities, their caste, their religion, the extent to which women are able to get in to the services and so on. A second objective may be to relate the social background to attitudes, or in other words to study the influence of social class, education and such other factors on the nature of bureaucracy, and hence the administration. A third objective may be to study how far the bureaucracy may be said to be representative of the society in general, that is to examine whether it is drawn from all sections or whether members of a certain class predominate. Representativeness is often considered to be related to responsiveness: it may not be fully responsive to the other classes in the society. Considerations such as these make the subject interesting. The bureaucracy may be conceived of as having a higher section, consisting of administrators who play a greater role in advising ministers on policy, and in guiding, supervising and controlling the lower section. The members of the lower section are responsible mainly for implementation. In India most of the top administrative posts at all levels are held by the IAS. Thus most of the officers in the secretariats, both Central and State, are drawn from the IAS. Many of the Heads of Departments of State Governments and Divisional Commissioners also belong to the IAS. At the local level, most Deputy Commissioners and Commissioners of city corporations also come from this Service. Hence the IAS may be said to constitute the hard core of the higher bureaucracy. That is why most studies of social background have been those of the IAS. In this unit, we will study the various aspects of social background of bureaucracy and the influence of this social background on administration. It will also

give you an idea of various ways of making the bureaucracy representative.

After Independence, the Indian Administrative Service was expected to promote national integration, from a social as well as a spatial point of view. Yet, despite the reservation policy, this elite body lacks representativeness. The partisanship of IAS officers along caste, religious and ethnic lines has further reduced their efficiency as a binding force of the nation. Being an All-India Service, the IAS encourages the spatial mobility of its members, which is not always welcome by officers posted in far-off states or in disturbed areas. In these places, the vacancy of postings in the higher administration is a sign of desertion that is contrary to the IAS mission of territorial integration.

Throughout history, both small and large nations have elevated certain types of nonelected workers to positions of relative power within the governmental structure. Collectively, these essential workers are called the bureaucracy. A **bureaucracy** is an administrative group of nonelected officials charged with carrying out functions connected to a series of policies and programs. In the United States, the bureaucracy began as a very small collection of individuals. Over time, however, it grew to be a major force in political affairs. Indeed, it grew so large that politicians in modern times have ridiculed it to great political advantage. However, the country's many **bureaucrats** or **civil servants**, the individuals who work in the bureaucracy, fill necessary and even instrumental roles in every area of government: from high-level positions in foreign affairs and intelligence collection agencies to clerks and staff in the smallest regulatory agencies. They are hired, or sometimes appointed, for their expertise in carrying out the functions and programs of the government.

What Does a Bureaucracy Do?

Modern society relies on the effective functioning of government to provide public goods, enhance quality of life, and stimulate economic growth. The activities by which government achieves these functions

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include—but are not limited to—taxation, homeland security, immigration, foreign affairs, and education. The more society grows and the need for government services expands, the more challenging bureaucratic management and **public administration** becomes. Public administration is both the implementation of public policy in government bureaucracies and the academic study that prepares civil servants for work in those organizations.

The classic version of a bureaucracy is hierarchical and can be described by an organizational chart that outlines the separation of tasks and worker specialization while also establishing a clear unity of command by assigning each employee to only one boss. Moreover, the classic bureaucracy employs a division of labor under which work is separated into smaller tasks assigned to different people or groups. Given this definition, bureaucracy is not unique to government but is also found in the private and nonprofit sectors. That is, almost all organizations are bureaucratic regardless of their scope and size; although public and private organizations differ in some important ways. For example, while private organizations are responsible to a superior authority such as an owner, board of directors, or shareholders, federal governmental organizations answer equally to the president, Congress, the courts, and ultimately the public. The underlying goals of private and public organizations also differ. While private organizations seek to survive by controlling costs, increasing market share, and realizing a profit, public organizations find it more difficult to measure the elusive goal of operating with efficiency and effectiveness.

Bureaucracy may seem like a modern invention, but bureaucrats have served in governments for nearly as long as governments have existed. Archaeologists and historians point to the sometimes elaborate bureaucratic systems of the ancient world, from the Egyptian scribes who recorded inventories to the biblical tax collectors who kept the wheels of government well-greased. In Europe, government bureaucracy and its study emerged before democracies did. In contrast, in the United States, a democracy and the Constitution came first; followed by the

development of national governmental organizations as needed, and then finally the study of U.S. government bureaucracies and public administration emerged.

In fact, the long pedigree of bureaucracy is an enduring testament to the necessity of administrative organization. More recently, modern bureaucratic management emerged in the eighteenth century from Scottish economist Adam Smith's support for the efficiency of the division of labor and from Welsh reformer Robert Owen's belief that employees are vital instruments in the functioning of an organization. However, it was not until the mid-1800s that the German scholar Lorenz von Stein argued for public administration as both a theory and a practice since its knowledge is generated and evaluated through the process of gathering evidence. For example, a public administration scholar might gather data to see whether the timing of tax collection during a particular season might lead to higher compliance or returns. Credited with being the father of the science of public administration, von Stein opened the path of administrative enlightenment for other scholars in industrialized nations.

10.2 SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF THE BUREAUCRACY

1. The Indian Administrative Service (IAS) is a prestigious colonial legacy. Its precursor, the Indian Civil Service, was often referred to as the 'steel frame' of British rule in India. After Independence in 1947, it was still considered a premier institution for maintaining national unity, in a regionally fragmented country with a number of princely states yet to be integrated. The Deputy Prime Minister, Sardar Patel (1875-1950), saw the importance of having a uniform administrative structure and wanted to organize it on a nationwide basis with the central government having a considerable control over it, to counterbalance the emergence of centrifugal forces that could lead to the disintegration of the Indian Union. These proposals were strongly opposed by the Chief Ministers of the states, who wanted no interference with their authority. They favored the State Civil Services over the All-India Services, which they saw as

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contrary to the federal principle. But the trauma of the Partition between India and Pakistan pointed to the necessity of providing for a strong centre.

2. National integration is a double task, not only territorial but also social. While the contribution of the IAS to territorial integration can be assessed through its capacity to contain divisive and separatist aspirations, its role in promoting social integration is partly related to its level of representativeness. Today, there are 5,000 members of the Indian Administrative Service, the highly respected IAS officers, in a country of more than one billion people. The recruitment of this elite body has been democratized through a policy of reservation that guarantees a quota system to the 'backward' castes, traditionally underrepresented in the administration. The Report of the Backward Classes Commission states: 'By increasing the representation of Other Backward Classes in government services, we give them an immediate feeling of participation in the governance of this country' (Government of India 1980: 57).

3. The importance of having representative bureaucracies in democratic regimes has been highlighted by Kingsley (1944), who questioned the classical Weberian theory of the bureaucrat as an impersonal, discretion less 'single cog in an ever-moving mechanism which prescribes to him an essentially fixed route of march' (Weber 1946: 228). For Kingsley, the neutrality of the bureaucracy is a myth. Administrators come from specific social classes and their behaviour is influenced by their social origin. The only way to avoid the partiality of the bureaucracy is to make it 'democratic', which means 'representative of the groups it serves' (Kingsley 1944: 305). But is there a necessary linkage between the social background of the administrators and the way they take their decisions in office? Mosher (1968) doubts it and establishes a distinction between '*passive* (or sociological) representation' and '*active* (or responsible) representativeness wherein an administrator is expected to press for the interests and desires of those whom he is presumed to represent, whether they be the whole people or some segment of the people' (Mosher 1968: 11).

4. In the Indian context of a highly heterogeneous and divided society, where social, religious or regional sense of belonging is sometimes extremely strong and exclusive, 'active representativeness' of the bureaucracy might be a threat to rather than a tool of national unity. The summing up of the multitude of special interests seeking effective representation in the bureaucracy does not constitute the general interest. The different private interest groups within administration are often conflicting and their strengths vastly unequal. The effectiveness of the IAS as a binding force of the nation is thus not only related to its representativeness, but also to its inner cohesion. IAS officers like to portray themselves as a 'new caste' characterized by a strong *esprit de corps* and horizontal solidarity, but how far is this claim upheld in practice?

- The sample is representative of the whole batch in terms of gender, rural/urban breakup, and administration.
- This database is confidential but I was kindly allowed to access it for research purpose. It compression.
- These interviews were conducted during my stay in LBSNAA for one whole year as a French teacher.

This paper aims at assessing the level of integration within the IAS, as well as its capacity to promote national integration in the country. These are two related, though distinct questions. If the bureaucracy is itself divided along caste, religious and regional lines, can it contribute to promote social equality, communal harmony and balanced regional development? To answer these questions, it is relevant to examine not only the social and geographic origins of IAS officers, but also their attitudes, outlook, set of values and overall culture. The statistical analysis presented here is based on primary data collected through a questionnaire addressed to a sample of 50% of an IAS batch of around a hundred persons, as well as information regarding a larger pool of officers (500), available in the electronic database of Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration (LBSNAA), the IAS training

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institute, which keeps a record of all recruits' particulars since 2001. The quantitative analysis is completed by qualitative interviews conducted with members of the IAS both under training and in office.

i) Occupation

Of the Father or Guardian the main finding of research studies is that most members of the higher bureaucracy have been drawn from the professional middle class of India, consisting of higher civil and military officers, lawyers, doctors, university teachers and business executives. Thus the father or guardian of about 94 per cent of the direct recruits to the IAS up to 1956 belonged to this class. Very few of the IAS officers recruited between 1947 and 1956 come from families of Zamindars or farmers: they constituted only 4 per cent of the total. The situation with regard to other higher services was basically similar, but the difference between the numbers of those drawn from the professional middle class and from landowning families was less. Thus, of the recruits to the Indian Police Service, about 81 per cent came from the professional middle class and about 16 per cent from the landowning class. Of the recruits to the Indian Foreign Service, 82 per cent came from the professional middle class and 12 per cent from the landowning class. In short, in the first decade after independence, most of the entrants to the higher bureaucracy belonged to the English educated, salaried or professional, upper middle class; there were very few entrants from other sections of the society. Recruitment to the higher bureaucracy was highly biased in favour of the professional middle class, since it constituted less than 10 per cent of the population but more than 80 per cent of the recruits were drawn from it. During the period 1957-63, the proportion of recruits from landowning families improved somewhat, although it remained low. Of the recruits to the IAS in this period 81 per cent came from the professional middle class and 12 per cent from the landowning class. In the case of the IPS also the direction of change was the same, the percentages of recruitment from the two classes being 77 and 19 respectively. In the case of certain other Central Services also the proportion of recruits from landowning families improved a little, although it went down in respect of the Indian Foreign Service. In the

years 1980 and 1981, 71 per cent of the IAS recruits came from the professional middle class and 19 per cent from the landowning class. The above data indicates that while the proportion of persons from farming families has been increasing gradually, the vast majority (about 70 per cent) of those joining the higher bureaucracy still come from the professional middle class.

ii) **Education**

Research studies show that most of the entrants into the higher bureaucracy are drawn from among those educated at exclusive schools and colleges. The phrase "exclusive schools and colleges" refers to educational institutions which charge high fees and hence are generally joined only by children from the upper and richer sections of the society. The medium of instruction in these institutions is usually English only. What is even more interesting; there has been an increasing role of education at exclusive schools for entry into the higher echelons of the civil service. Of those recruited to the IAS in the period 1947-56, about 15 per cent had been educated at convent and public schools; in the period 1957-63, about 16 per cent had been so educated. There was a big jump by the seventies. Of those who entered the IAS between 1974 and 1979, more than 60 per cent had been educated in such schools. Thus since Independence, the proportion of recruits educated at exclusive schools had gone up by four times. The significance of education in exclusive colleges has also been unmistakable. More than half of the IAS recruits, 56 per cent in the period 1947-56, and 59 per cent in the period 1957-63, had been educated in only a dozen well-known colleges in India; all the other colleges put together had contributed less than half. A similar picture emerges when we consider the role of education at the better known universities. About 79 per cent of the IAS recruits in the period 1947-56, and about 70 per cent of those in 1957-63, had been educated at the six universities like Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Punjab and Allahabad. These six universities also contributed 79 per cent of the recruits to the Indian Foreign Service in the whole of the period 1947-63. The trend has undergone a change in the recent years. The students of universities in the North feature more in the services. While

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the requirement for entry into the higher bureaucracy is mostly only graduation, fit of the entrants have a master's degree. There are some medical doctors, engineers, and research degree holders also. Thus among the 129 recruits to the IAS in 1981 there were 13 with a bachelor's degree and 106 with a master's degree. They included 5 doctors and 17 engineers. There were 10 research degree holders also.

iii) Rural-Urban Residence

The higher bureaucracy in India has been recruited predominantly from the urban areas. There has not been much change in this scenario over the years. Thus of the 1981 recruits to the IAS, 72 per cent had an urban background and 28 per cent a rural one. If we compare these figures with those for 1957, we find a change of only 2 per cent. 74 per cent then had an urban background and 26 per cent a rural one. Thus there may at best be a slight tendency for more rural residents to get into the higher bureaucracy.

iv) Caste

The higher bureaucracy is recruited predominantly from the so called higher castes. People of low caste are also generally poor and cannot afford higher education for their children. To compensate for the age old discrimination against those having a low social status, the Constitution of India provided for "reverse discrimination" in the shape of reservation of jobs for scheduled castes and mess in Public Administration. For long, however, these quotas neither were nor filled, since candidates of scheduled castes and tribes could often not get qualifying marks in the competitive examination. Government coaching centers were therefore started to help such candidates in preparing for the examination. By the end of 1970s quotas were being filled. Thus while in 1967 only 11 per cent of the recruits to the IAS belonged to scheduled castes, in 1981, 15 per cent belonged to the scheduled castes. Similarly, the percentage of scheduled tribes' recruits had risen from 4 to 7. By 1982, 10 per cent of the total number of IAS officers was from scheduled castes and 5 per cent from scheduled tribes. These percentages were, however, still lower

than their proportion in the population. In other words, persons of low social status were still under-represented in the higher bureaucracy.

v) Religion

While all the important religions of India are represented in the higher bureaucracy, some of them have fewer members than their proportion in the population. Thus among the IAS recruits in 1981, about 88 per cent were Hindus only one per cent were Muslims, 4 per cent were Christians and 5 per cent were Sikhs. The representation of Muslim has varied between 1 and 6 per cent since 1957 and has been much lower of than their proportion in the population.

vi) Gender

The representation of women in the higher bureaucracy has increased consistently. Among IAS recruits for the year 1957, 1967, 1977, 1980 and 1981, their percentage was about 3, 8, 9 and 12 respectively. While there has been an increase in the number of women getting into the IAS, they constituted only 7 per cent of the IAS officers in 1983. Since women constitute about half of the population, they may be said to be still grossly under-represented. So far we have studied the social background of the higher bureaucracy in India on the basis of research studies made from time to time. Comparable studies for the lower bureaucracy have not been made, presumably because it is not considered to play as important a role in the political system. However, some comparison of the social background of the two sections of the bureaucracy can be attempted on the basis of available data. M.V. Subbiah Chaudhary made a study of the Andhra Pradesh bureaucracy and presented it at a seminar in 1989. While the study suffered from certain limitations. It does provide some data for purposes of comparison, as discussed below.

We find that in the Andhra Pradesh bureaucracy, while about 69 per cent of officers in the secretariat came from the professional middle class, 62 per cent of the assistants and 17 per cent of the clerks belonged to this class. Also, while 21 per cent of the officers belonged to farming

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families, 20 per cent of the assistant's said 65 per cent of the clerks belonged to such families. Thus there is a clear contrast in the social extraction of officers and clerks: while a majority of the officers have an urban professional middle class background, a majority of the clerks have a rural, farming, background. It has also been found that while about 76 per cent of the officers came from upper and upper middle classes, 75 per cent of the clerks came from the lower and lower middle classes. In this study, castes were divided into three categories: forward, backward and scheduled. It was found that 69 per cent of the officers, 53 per cent of the assistants and 41 per cent of the clerks belonged to forward castes. Also, while 3 per cent of the officers belonged to scheduled castes and tribes, 6 per cent of the assistants and 17 per cent of the clerks also belonged to these categories. Thus while the highest proportion of forward castes was among officers, the highest proportion of scheduled castes and tribes was to be found among clerks. This indicates a clear relationship between caste status and bureaucratic status. The distribution of backward castes was also on the same pattern. About 14 per cent of the clerks belonged to backward castes. These data indicate that the higher the status of a person in the bureaucracy, the more likely He/She is to belong to a high caste.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit

1) Discuss the social background of the higher bureaucracy?

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2) "The higher bureaucracy is recruited pre-dominantly from the so-called lower castes" Comment.

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10.3 INFLUENCE OF BUREAUCRACY'S SOCIAL BACKGROUND ON ADMINISTRATION

We have noted earlier that our higher bureaucracy is drawn largely from the urban professional middle class. It can at best be said to be drawn from 10 per cent of the society. Hence the higher bureaucracy cannot be said to be representative of the society of whole. This influences the administration in several ways. We shall deal with these influences one by one.

i. Lack of Communication

There are great differences between the values, norms, feelings, beliefs and information of the higher bureaucracy, the lower bureaucracy and the people. This makes for lack of We have noted above that the majority of members of the higher bureaucracy, or administrators, have been educated in exclusive schools. One view is that such schools develop qualities of leadership and inculcate discipline and good manners among the administrators. The other view, represented by Bertrand Russell, is that the education at these schools is "as destructive to life and thought as the medieval church. According to him its evils arise from two sources: "its perfect assurance of its own rightness, and its belief that correct manners are more to be desired than intellect, or artistic creation, or vital energy". With whichever of these views we agree, the fact remains that the early education of those who join exclusive schools is in many ways different from that of the vast majority of children, resulting in very important and substantial differences in attitudes. The combined influence of upper middle class homes and exclusive schools tend to inculcate among their children, values such as those of consumerism, gigantisms and the hoarding of material goods, and attitudes such as those of lack of empathy for the poor, considering one to be superior to others, seeking success at any cost and aping the West. Their very joys and sufferings tend to be different from those of the vast majority. Their upbringing and education at exclusive colleges and schools tend to keep

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them aloof from those belonging to the lower strata. They rarely ever get an opportunity to live in villages where the vast majority of the people live. Hence their information and understanding of the conditions of living problems and needs of vast sections of the people are little. These differences of values, beliefs and information make for lack of communication between the higher bureaucracy, lower bureaucracy and the people.

ii. Lack of effectiveness

One of the important functions of the bureaucracy in developing countries is to deal with poverty, its causes and consequences. If the upper section of the bureaucracy, which plays an important role in policy formulation as well as implementation, has little understanding of the nature of poverty in the country, ineffectiveness is bound to result. If the common people are afraid of administrators and can hardly speak a language understood by them, administrators' understanding of people's problems remains wanting, and hence policies for dealing with these remain unsatisfactory. Thus lack of communication leads to lack of effectiveness. Lack of effectiveness also results from lack of participation by the people. Due to social distance between the administrators and the people, and differences in their values and beliefs, administrators are unable to enthuse the people and seek their cooperation and participation. Ineffectiveness also results from lack of feedback to the administrators. Due to lack of communication with the people, and their lack of cooperation, administrators are unable to assess the success of programmes, and the problems in the way of their fulfillment properly. Lack of effectiveness also results from lack of adjustment between members of the higher and lower bureaucracy. B. Mook made a study of the bureaucracy in Tamil Nadu in 1982. He found that the subordinate officials suffered from feelings of insecurity, hostility and isolation. They felt that they had no influence, had to only obey instructions, and stick to rules. Thus differences in the status and culture of the higher and lower bureaucracy made for frustration, hostility and lack of initiative on the part of the large, lower, section of the bureaucracy whose function was to give effect to policies.

iii. Perception of Injustice

One of the principles of democracy is equality of opportunity. It implies that everyone should have the same opportunity to achieve desired goals, in keeping with his abilities and effort. Since high level administrative positions in our society have a high prestige, large numbers of youth wish to obtain them. However because of their socio-economic background, a large number cannot avail of this opportunity. The vast majority of our people live in villages where they have little opportunity to pursue the kind of education which would make for success at the competitive examination. Many among those who live in cities also cannot afford good quality higher education. Hence the poor, and those living in villages, have the feeling that they are unjustly being denied entry into.

10.4 WAYS OF MAKING BUREAUCRACY AND REPRESENTATIVE

We have seen earlier that our bureaucracy cannot at present be said to be representative of the society as a whole. This results in ineffectiveness of administration and a feeling of injustice among those who are left out. Hence we have to seek ways of having a front representative bureaucracy without compromising with the principle of selection on the basis of merit. We shall consider these below.

i) Spread of Education

At present only a small proportion of the people in India receive education. Only about 36 per cent of the people are literate. However literacy constitutes just the beginning of education. For getting a job one needs education appropriate to it. The proportion of those who get secondary and higher education is small. Many of course, never go to school. Even among those who join a school, the majority drop out. Of 100 children who enroll in class I, only 23 reach class VIII. Higher education is limited to only 4.8 per cent of those in the relevant age group. Wider spread of education is required to provide for social justice and also to help in social, economic and political development. Having a

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more preventative bureaucracy is an aspect of development. Spread of education can be improved by having more schools, reducing the cost of education, vocationalising education, providing mid-day meals, books and uniforms to children of the poor, providing for more teachers, improving the method of teaching, and so on. If those who get left out today also get educated, they can compete for the public bureaucracy. This will benefit the administration since the bureaucracy will be drawn from a larger pool, thus tapping the potential of more people; it will also make for a more representative bureaucracy.

ii) **Emphasis on specialization and Position Classification**

In developing countries like India the system of personnel administration also remains underdeveloped. The system of recruiting people for a service, instead of a job, is one aspect of such underdevelopment. This has three consequences:

- a. lack of emphasis on specialization,
- b. rank-in-man instead of rank-in-job, and
- c. Recruitment from a limited section of the society.

Thus when we recruit people for the IPS, the method of recruitment results in the selection of persons mainly from a small section of the society which is because the test is for abilities which mainly candidates from the upper middle class have developed. These abilities, however, may not be relevant for all the jobs which IPS officers may have to perform. The result is that while we exclude candidates from classes other than the upper middle class, we still do not select those who are really suited for the work which they have to do. Thus at present, the athletic ability of candidates is not tested.

While an advisor to the government on security might not need it, a distinct police officer might be in great need of it. If position classification was there, and we were recruiting district police officers, we might test their athletic ability also. Many boys from the poorer section might have it in greater measure than those from richer ones. Similarly, we might require other specialised qualifications appropriate

for particular jobs. In this way we would be able to recruit persons with specialised qualifications and abilities suited to particular jobs, and also with diverse social backgrounds. Hence introduction of position classification and recruitment for specialised jobs would lead to both, personnel who are better suited to their jobs and a more representative bureaucracy.

iii) Improvement in Methods of Recruitment

At present recruitment to services like the IAS, IPS, IFS and IA&AS (Indian Audit and Accounts Service) is made on the basis of a written examination followed by an interview. The examination and the interview, however, do not test all the abilities of a person. According to David C. Potter, cramming also helps some people to succeed in a written examination. An objective type examination has recently been introduced to reduce the emphasis on cramming. However, there is a need for further improvement. According to the Harvard psychologist, Howard Gardner, intelligence is of seven kinds:

- (i) Linguistic,
 - (ii) Logical-Mathematical,
 - (iii) Spatial,
 - (iv) Bodily-Kinaesthetic
- for various jobs we should test these different kinds of intelligence according to job requirements.

The interview is called the personality test.

However, no scientific personality tests, such as those used in the armed forces, are employed. By testing candidates more scientifically, we would not only be able to select persons more suited to their jobs, we would also be able to spread our net wide. Various abilities may be said to be distributed widely over different sections of the society. Hence if we test for various abilities, instead of mainly that of essay writing, we would be able to get people who are more suited to their jobs from diverse social backgrounds.

Check Your Progress 2

Note : i) Use the space given below for your answers.

- 1) How does the social background of bureaucracy effect administration?

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- 2) How can we have a more representative bureaucracy without compromising with the merit principle?

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10.5 LET US SUM UP

The higher bureaucracy in India is drawn mainly from the urban, salaried or professional, middle class consisting of higher civil and military officer\, lawyers, doctors, university teachers and business executives. Most administrators have received education at exclusive schools, colleges and universities. Three-fourths of them have lived in cities. About one-tenth of them belong to scheduled castes and about one twentieth to scheduled tribes. Muslims and women are also under-represented. Such a narrow field of extraction of the higher bureaucracy makes for differences in values norms, beliefs and orientations between the higher and lower bureaucracy and the people at large. This results in lack of communication, ineffectiveness of administration and the perception of injustice. A more representative bureaucracy, selected by merit, can be had through greater spread of education, more emphasis on position classification and specialization, and the adoption of more scientific methods of recruitment for testing various abilities and personality traits.

10.6 KEY WORDS

- **Bodily-Klnaesthetic Intelligence:** Process of learning through bodily movements and sensation.
- **Communication:** The imparting or interchange of thoughts, opinions or information or knowledge, partaking of ideas and a sense of participating and sharing.
- **Consumerism:** The tendency in the modern age to promote production, consumption amongst producers to promote their sales with the help of electronic media, attractive package etc.
- **Eacation system in the medieval church period:** Many of the teachings and preaching of the medieval church laid emphasis on righteousness. this way of 'hiking does not allow a feeling of tolerance and looking at other people's views and attitudes resulting in narrow thoughts and values, proving self-destructive in the ultimate analysis.
- **Norms:** An accepted standard of behaviour within a society.

10.7 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Write about Social Background of the Bureaucracy
2. What are the influences of Bureaucracy's Social Background on Administration?
3. What are the ways of making Bureaucracy and Representative?

10.8 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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- Richard Stillman. 2009. *Public Administration: Concepts and Cases*. 9th edition. Boston: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- For the early origins of the U.S. bureaucracy see Michael Nelson. 1982. "A Short, Ironic History of American National Bureaucracy," *The Journal of Politics* 44 No. 3: 747–78.
- Daniel Walker Howe. 2007. *What Hath God Wrought: The Transformation of America, 1815-1848*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 334.
- Jack Ladinsky. 1966. "Review of Status and Kinship in the Higher Civil Service: Standards of Selection in the Administrations of John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, and Andrew Jackson," *American Sociological Review* 31 No. 6: 863–64.

10.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

1. Check Your Progress 1

Check your answer with unit 10.2

2. Check Your Progress 2

Check your answer with unit 10.4

UNIT-11: CATEGORIALIZATION OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

STRUCTURE

- 11.0 Objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Bureaucracy and development Administration
 - 11.2.1 Role of Bureaucracy in Policy Making
 - 11.2.2 Role of Bureaucracy in Policy Implementation
- 11.3 Participatory and sustainable development
- 11.4 Rights based approach
 - 11.4.1 Meaning
 - 11.4.2 Principals of Right Based approach
 - 11.4.3 Features of Right Based Approach
- 11.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 11.6 Key Words
- 11.7 Questions for Review
- 11.8 Suggested readings and references
- 11.9 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

11.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- To understand the expanding role of state and bureaucracy;
- To explain the role of bureaucracy in policy formulation;
- To describe the role of bureaucracy in policy implementation; and
- To highlight the problems of bureaucratization;
- To know the participatory and sustainable development;
- To know more in details about rights based approach.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

The term bureaucracy refers to the body of employees in a large-scale organisation. More specifically, it refers to a body of employees in

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authority relationship within an organisation. Thus every large business organisation has its bureaucracy; in the government there are civil and military bureaucracies. In the literature of Public Administration, the term civil bureaucracy has a wider connotation than the term civil service. Thus, while employees of autonomous corporations are not counted among civil servants, they are said to belong to the bureaucracy. It is notable that the bureaucracy does not include elected politicians: it consists only of appointed employees. In common usage, the term bureaucracy is sometimes also used to refer to routine and delay in official work. However, in the study of Public Administration, while routine and delay are taken into account, the term bureaucracy is used to refer only to appointed officials. The term development is generally used to refer to economic, political and social changes such as increase in national income, industrialization, strengthening of the nation state, urbanization, spread of education and wider use of mass media such as newspapers, radio and television. The bureaucracy, both governmental and business, participates in bringing about these changes and, so, is said to be an important instrument of development. However, there is a big debate about this conception of development, and hence about the role of the bureaucracy. Thus, Mahatma Gandhi maintains that such development, modeled on Western Civilization, accentuates selfishness and violence, leads to concentration of power and wealth, and puts emphasis on material needs instead of spiritual development. His ideal society would, therefore, do away with all concentration of power and wealth, and hence also with bureaucracy. Karl Marx is also opposed to concentration of power and wealth. In his view, this concentration reaches its maximum in capitalist society; the supersession of capitalism would in the course of time, do away with the bureaucracy also. Max Weber maintains that the bureaucracy is an efficient instrument for implementing policies of state. But it is also a source of alienation in the society. We thus, note that both, the conception of development and the role of bureaucracy, are highly controversial matters.

A bureaucracy is an instrument which is devised for the fulfillment of certain purposes. As these purposes change, the nature of the

bureaucracy should also undergo changes. In most developing countries like India the bureaucracy was originally devised by the imperial power for serving its own ends. Many of the colonial features of the bureaucracy have continued to exist even after the attainment of independence, as discussed in Unit 14. Hence changes in personnel administration are needed for having a bureaucracy suited to democratic administration. Further, the role has expanded; in developing countries particularly, the state has the responsibility of bringing about development. Since the bureaucracy is the prime instrument of the State, it has to be modified and attuned to the new purposes. Hence it is necessary to bring changes in the nature of bureaucracy. The argument that what has served well in the past is likely to do so in the future also, does not hold good. In the following, we shall deal with the various aspects of personnel administration one by one.

11.2 BUREAUCRACY AND DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

The people in developing societies suffer from a number of problems, such as poverty, unemployment, bad health, illiteracy, corruption and authoritarianism. The state is considered to be the main agency for dealing with these, or, in other words, for bringing about development. Hence the state has to shoulder more and more responsibility. Since the state functions through the government, and the government, in turn depends to a large extent upon the bureaucracy, the bureaucracy's role also keeps expanding. We shall briefly examine the contribution of bureaucracy in the various aspects of development.

i) Role of Bureaucracy in Economic Development

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries it was believed that the state should restrict itself to the country's defense and the maintenance of law and order, and that it should intervene in the economy as little as possible. This view changed, particularly after the Great Depression of the 1930s, in which millions of people became unemployed the world over. Nowadays, all governments are expected to regulate the economy

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so as to bring about an increase in production, a high level of employment, moderate prices of commodities, and check over monopolies and unhealthy trade practices. The need for such regulation of the economy is all the more at in developing countries like India due to widespread poverty and unemployment on the one hand, and the great power of monopolists on the other. The government regulates the economy through fiscal policies (by modulating taxes), and monetary policies (by modulating money supply). Planning, which means resource allocation through a centralized administrative process, is resorted to for achieving economic growth. The government develops means of transport and communication. It provides loans and raw materials to industrialists and farmers. All these governmental activities are performed by government departments, nationalized banks and other public undertakings through their officials. Hence the bureaucracy has a very important new role, namely that of functioning as the agent of economic development. More and more economists, statisticians and trained managers are needed for the proper performance of this role.

ii) The Role of Bureaucracy in the Welfare State

In recent times there has been a tendency for entrusting the state with more and more responsibility for social services, such as the provision of education, health care, employment, labour welfare, the welfare of the blind and other handicapped persons, and the welfare of widows and orphans. So much importance is attached to these new functions that the state has been renamed as the welfare state. The provision of such varied social services requires large numbers of different types of specialists, such as teachers, doctors, nurses, labour officers and social workers. With their recruitment as members of the bureaucracy, the nature of the bureaucracy tends to change: the new role requires a new kind of bureaucracy.

iii) The State and Bureaucracy as Agents of Social Change

In olden day's prophets and saints like Gautarn Buddha, Jesus Christ, Guru Nanak Swami Dayanand called for changing various social practices, norms and rituals. Nowadays, however, many such changes are sought to be brought about with the help of laws. Thus, untouchability, bigamy, child marriage and dowry system have been declared illegal.

iv) The State and Bureaucracy as Agents of Political Development

The emotional bonds of nationalism are often weak in new nations. However, unless these bonds are strengthened, the nation is in danger of falling apart, as happened, for example, in Pakistan from which Bangladesh broke away. The state and its bureaucracy play an important part in strengthening these emotional bonds. Thus national integration is sought to be promoted through education, radio and television programs development of native languages, publication of good quality literature in native languages, cultural and sports activities in which persons from all parts of the nation participate, and so on. These programs are often conducted by members of the bureaucracy.

In a country where the national bonds are weak, having a bureaucracy which is centrally recruited and whose members serve in different parts of the country, also helps to hold the nation together. Political development is also promoted by strengthening interest groups, such as labour unions. Legislation which sanctions and supports trade union activity thus helps to bring about political development. Insofar as the bureaucracy participates in the formulation and implementation of such legislation, it has a role in political development. Political parties also constitute an important part of the political system. In some countries nowadays political parties are provided with election funds by the state. This reduces the dependence of the parties on the rich, helps to curb corruption, and promotes political development. Elections constitute an important part of the democratic political process. They must be conducted with honesty and impartiality; otherwise the people will lose faith in the system and it is likely to collapse sooner or later. Insofar as

the bureaucracy conducts elections honestly and efficiently, it helps to maintain and develop the political system; for, it is through elections that new parties and leaders come to power and implement programs of social change desired by the people.

11.2.1 Role of Bureaucracy in Policy Making

Till about fifty years ago it was believed that in democratic government while politicians formulated policy, the bureaucracy implemented it. However, research work has shown that this is not wholly true. The making and implementation of policy are deeply interconnected that it is impossible to separate them. Thus the formulation of new policy requires an understanding of the reasons for the successes and failures in regard to earlier policies. This feedback can best be provided by members of the bureaucracy due to their wide experience and knowledge. In other words, since members of the bureaucracy often stay in their jobs longer than politicians, and since they have more detailed information, their advice on policy matters comes to constitute a valuable contribution. Their role in policy formulation has tended to gain importance also due to the expansion of the role of the state, as discussed above. Thus, now it is well recognized that both in developed and developing countries, the bureaucracy plays an important role in policy formulation. What is notable is that its role in policy formulation is much greater in developing countries than in developed ones. We shall now discuss the reasons for this.

i) Bureaucracy as a Channel of Communication

The society consists of different sections, such as those of farmers, landlords, workers, small businessmen, big businessmen, and so on. Their interests conflict to some extent. It is the function of the state to bring about a balance among their interests, so that the interests of each section are fulfilled as far as practicable in the given economic situation. Hence the aspirations, needs, problems and grievances of each section have to be communicated to the government. This communication

between the government and the various sections of the society takes place, to a large extent, through the bureaucracy. Thus, if the farmers in an area suffer from some problem, such as lack of water for irrigation, they generally approach officials like the Deputy Commissioner, who communicates the problem to higher level of the administration: they may make proposals for irrigation facilities in the five year plan and the budget. In this way communication through the bureaucracy may help in the formulation of policy proposals for meeting the needs of the people. In developed countries there is another channel also. This channel, between the people and the government, runs through interest groups and political parties. An interest group may be an association for putting forward the interests of a certain section. Thus a trade union is an interest group for articulating the interests of workers. After the demands of the various sections have thus been articulated, they are considered and collected together by political parties in their election manifestos. Such aggregation of interests' workers, as articulated by trade unions and aggregated by political parties, has led to labour laws in many countries. These laws contain the labour policies. In this way, communication through interest groups and political parties leads to the formulation of policies for fulfilling the demands of the various sections of the people. In developing countries, however, interest groups and political parties are often either weak or non-existent. Thus in India, there are hardly any associations of landless labour, or of artisans such as weavers and carpenters. Most political parties exist in villages only in name. In towns also their offices seem to crop up only at the time of elections. Due to such weaknesses of interest groups and political parties, articulation and aggregation of interests is often not possible through them. Hence the bureaucracy often remains the only mechanism for the conversion of demands into policies. In this way, the bureaucracy plays a more important role in policy formulation in developing countries than in developed ones.

ii) The Bureaucracy as a Repository of Information

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The formulation of policy requires a lot of information. Thus one needs to know why certain policies failed earlier. For example, suppose the policy of expanding secondary education in villages failed earlier mainly because of poverty, boys and girls had to earn their own upkeep and so parents could not afford to send them to school. This information helps in devising a new policy which combines training in productive work with literary education, so that the youth earn while they learn. The bureaucracy has the advantage of long experience, while politicians come and go. The experience of the bureaucracy makes it a repository of information about the past. Further, the bureaucracy has access to information which is contained in records, such as files. Such information can be much older than what any person can remember. Since officials consult these records often, they know about old cases also. We also need information about differences in the various regions, so that the policy may provide for these.

Thus, irrigation facilities in the hills may have to be different from those in the plains. Since officials are transferred from place to place, they come to know about different areas. What are even more important, members of the bureaucracy have access to secret information; it can be information relating to control of smuggling, conduct of foreign affairs and regulation of the economy. Since such secret information is essential for policy formulation, the bureaucracy comes to have an important role. Thus we note that since the bureaucracy has access to often secret information relating to different timeframe and areas, its advice is considered by ministers to be weighty, and thus it comes to have an important role in policy formulation.

iii) Bureaucracy as a Group of Technical Advisers :

The bureaucracy comes to have an 'important role in policy formulation also because of the technical knowledge possessed by it. There are three main reasons for it:

- (i) growth of science and technology,
- (ii) expanding role of the state, and

(iii) increasing complexity of the administration.

The growth of science and technology changes the nature of agricultural and industrial production. Thus agriculture nowadays requires the use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides, and high yielding varieties of seeds, pump-sets and tractors. The formulation of agricultural policy requires knowledge of these. Such knowledge is possessed by specialists in agricultural science. Similarly, specialists are required in areas like health, education, industry, control of crime, and so on. Hence specialists of almost all kinds are nowadays recruited as members of the bureaucracy and their advice is depended upon in the formulation of policies.

The expansion in the role of the state makes for dependence upon economists, accountants, lawyers and others since their advice is needed for regulation of the economy: checking the growth of monopolies, providing employment, controlling prices, and so on. As the role of the state expands, the administration tends to become bigger and more complex. Maintenance of administrative effectiveness and efficiency, then, requires persons having specialized knowledge and experience of administration and management. Thus specialists of various kinds in the bureaucracy come to influence policy formulation. It needs to be emphasized that policies often take the shape of laws. Thus the sale of high yielding varieties of seeds is controlled through the Seeds Act. Labour policy is contained in laws like the Industrial Disputes Act. The policy relating to income-tax is contained in the Income-Tax Act. Hence giving concrete shape to a policy often.

11.2.2 Role of Bureaucracy in Policy Implementation

The main function of the bureaucracy is policy implementation that is, giving effect to policies after they have been approved by the executive and legislative branches of the government. This function also is performed under the overall control and supervision of politicians in the

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executive and legislative branches; however, members of the bureaucracy have to bear much of the responsibility for implementation. Policy implementation has four stages, as follows:

1. Formulation of projects and programs.
2. Project planning
3. Making provision in the five year plan & the budget, and.
4. Execution of the programs

We shall now deal with these stages one by one.

1) Formulation of Projects and Programs

For implementation, a policy has to be broken up into projects, and each project into programmes. Thus, for implementing the policy of rural development, there are projects like that of Community development. Under the Community Development Project, there are various programmes. Similarly, under the new education policy, there is the project of Navodaya Vidyalaya. Each Navodaya Vidyalaya constitutes a programme. The sizes of projects and programmes can vary: some are very large while others are small. What is notable, however, is that the implementation of a policy requires activities of various kinds. Some of these are chosen and given the name of projects. Again, each project requires action under various heads and at different places. Some of these are chosen and given the name of programmes. Which of these shall come first and which later, is decided mainly by specialist civil servants on technical grounds; thus irrigation facilities have priority over fertilizers.

2) Project Planning

Project planning must be distinguished from economic planning. While economic planning refers to allocation of resources among different sectors and areas, project planning means administrative plans for the implementation of a single programme, such as that of malaria eradication in a given area, or the setting up of a hospital. The first step in planning a project is the collection of the necessary information and statistical data from the field. Thus while setting up a hospital or a school, we have to decide where exactly it should be located.

3) Preparation of Plan and Budget

The economy may be divided into sectors of agriculture, industry and services (such as health and education). It has to be decided how much money and other resources should be spent on the development of each sector. Broad decisions relating to such allocation of resources are taken for a five year period since many of the projects and programs take several years. Thus it may take several years to build a dam. Hence a five year plan is prepared for allocating resources among different sectors, and also among different areas, some of which may be less developed than others. More detailed allocation of resources is made every year for each department, project and program through the budget. The activities of every department are important and each one of them asks for more and more money. However, the total amount at the disposal of the government is limited. Since all the demands of all the departments cannot be met, money is provided for the more important projects and programmes, and the less important are left out. This process of selection involves the comparative evaluation of projects, and within each project, of programs. Apart from such selection, there is the detailed scrutiny of each head of expenditure under a program. These functions of planning and budgeting are performed by agencies like the Planning Commission, the Ministry of Planning and the Ministry of Finance. The activities of analysis, evaluation, comparison and scrutiny of proposed expenditures relating to various departments, projects and programs require a lot of expertise and experience. Civil servants, who possess such expertise and experience, are therefore dependent upon for performing these activities

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and drawing up the five year plan and the annual Budget. It must be noted, however, that they are prepared under the over-all control and supervision of Ministers. Finally, the Plan and the Budget require the approval of Parliament. Members of Parliament and Ministers are elected representatives of the people. They control the preparation of the Plan and the Budget so that these reflect the needs and aspirations of the people. Such control is a condition of democracy. At the same time, efficiency of administration is achieved through the application of specialized knowledge and experience possessed by the bureaucracy.

4) Execution of the Programs

Execution means caning a program into effect. It has to be done in stages. Thus if a school is to be built, the first step is to acquire the land and to construct the building. Then the teachers and other staff members have to be recruited; they may also be transferred from other schools. Some of them may have to be sent for training. The equipment for class rooms and laboratories has also to be acquired. These activities of acquiring land and equipment, getting buildings constructed, and arranging for trained teachers, are all performed by specialized & experienced civil servants. Thus building construction may be the responsibility of engineers in the Department of Public Works, and provision of attendance registers may be the responsibility of officials in the Department of Printing and Stationery. After such basic requirements have been met, officials of the Education Department would arrange for the teachers. Thus civil servants in various departments have to function in a coordinated manner for caning out various programmes.

Check Your Progress 1

Note : i) Use the space given below for your answers.

a. What are the Roles of Bureaucracy in Economic Development?

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b. Role of Bureaucracy in Policy Implementation

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11.3 PARTICIPATORY AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

In this unit, we will discuss important concepts of the participatory management, its emergence as a new paradigm of management; its philosophy and approaches to development; participation mechanisms and impact of political system and major constraints in people’s participation. In the context of the human relationship with the nature, the focus is on the role of individuals and communities to promote and integrate their contribution in the conservation efforts and development. The main contents covered in this unit include, Participatory Management and Development: Basic Concepts, Philosophy of participatory approach to development, Socio-political context and constraints of the Participatory Management and development process; Participation and community mobilization for the development process; major constraints in participation; and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): as a tool for Participatory Development.

Objectives

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand and discuss the concepts of participatory management and development, and the philosophy of participatory approach to development;

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- Define the concept and process of participation, people's involvement and empowerment to promote the development process;
- Understand the process of community mobilization and participation in the participatory management;
- Apply the PRA methods in the development projects; and
- Comprehend the socio-political context of the participatory management, and identify and address some of the major constraints in participatory management.

In any organization or development activity not only the designated managers but also the other support staff exercise their influence over the decisions that affect the organization, project or any development activity. In this process, participation of all the stakeholders is assured, throughout the project cycle, starting from the visualization and planning to the implementation and final evaluation and assessment. Participatory management can improve the effectiveness and capacity of an organization involved in the development management thus contributing to good leadership by the management. It also contributes to an increased transparency in organizational decision making and implementation of the project activities. Social organization is a process of organizing the community in-groups to achieve any collective objective or to fulfill the community needs. Community mobilization is a process of mobilizing the community for participation in the social, human and community development process.

While social change can be considered as a concept that charts the transformation of societies, states and communities, development is often seen as a planned and directed social change. Development, as a form of social change, has two dimensions:

- c. It is the vision of those who adhere to the law of non-intervention and argue that social change will have its own natural evolution where

the state will adopt non-interventionist policies and the market forces will determine the social change. This perspective has evolved from the natural law and the “invisible-hand” ideology of the laissez-faire doctrine. It is based partially on economic analysis and partially on ideological beliefs.

- d. The idea of development stems from the vision of society in terms of a planned intervention, which stresses on the utilization of knowledge and technology to help solve the problems of individuals and groups. It is based on the philosophical idea that in applying systematic and appropriate knowledge to the problems confronting the social system, we can facilitate purposefully directed change for the betterment of all. Community Development is the process by which the efforts of the people are united with those of the governmental authorities to improve the economic, social, and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate the communities into the life of the nation, and enable them to contribute to the progress of the nation. This process is, therefore, made up of two essential elements.

Firstly, the participation by the people themselves is an effort to improve their level of living, with as much reliance as possible on their own initiatives; and secondly, the provision of technical and other services is a way that encourages initiative, self-help and mutual help and makes these more effective. It is expressed in programs designed to achieve a wide variety of specific improvement.

In brief, the Community Development could be defined as:

- A group of people,
- In a community,
- Reaching a decision,
- To initiate a social action process i.e., planned intervention,
- To change,
- Their economic, social, cultural, or environmental situation.

Community Development has evolved from two major forces:

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- Economic development; and
- Community organization.

Participatory Development enables people to address the local issues by forming into associations. Through this they will be able to plan and act on their own behalf, encourage trust and self-awareness and enable independence and self-sufficiency. The main goal of the participatory development is to involve local communities, and all other stakeholders, by using participatory methods to create voluntary associations for community development, so that they can identify, plan, control and maintain and use local resources for greater prosperity. Local associations are part of the civil society. In this process, besides the community organizations, all other stakeholders and partners, who may be the potential contributors in the development process, are also involved at various stages. Participation is an act of being involved and of involving individuals or groups in making choices and decisions, in planning, in taking actions, in controlling and sharing the benefits. Participation reduces dependency by creating confidence, self-sufficiency and trust. In community work, participation means that the whole community, including those who do not usually speak-up, participate in the decisions of the community. Stakeholders means the people and groups who have interest or “stake” in the success of the organization, project or any other developmental activity. This definition of stakeholders is very broad. Most voluntary and non-profit organizations have a wide array of stakeholders, who feel that their perspective should be duly represented in the decision-making, thereby increasing the accountability factor. Stakeholders’ connection can be:

- Legal (in case of the members),
- Practical (those who provide funds),
- Moral (such as clients, partners, and the public at large).

The importance of stakeholders adds an entirely new dimension to governance and participatory management and development. Representation and accountability become core of the governance and

management and development process, closely intertwined with decision making. Satisfying these stakeholders is nevertheless a complex task: relationships differ, their weight of influence varies, competing interests must be balanced and conflicting perspectives reconciled. The result is a complex web of players, as shown in the Fig.1.1.

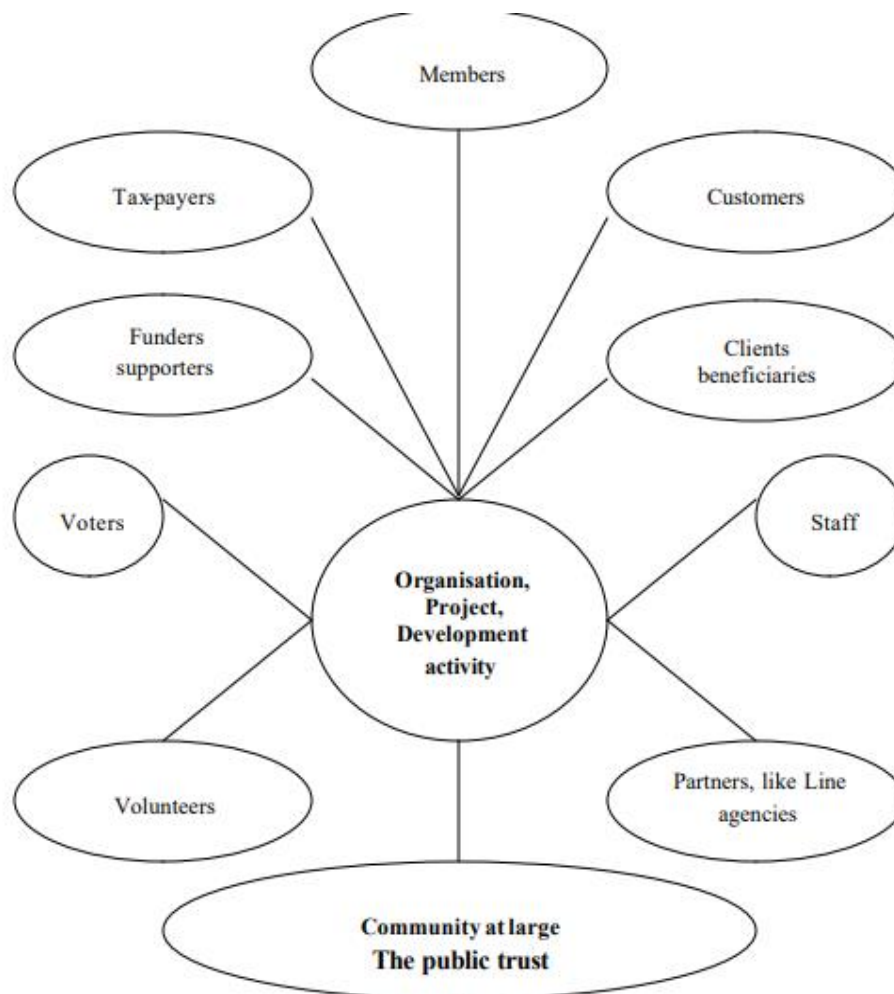


Fig.1.1: Complex web of stakeholders and players of the participatory development and management process

PHILOSOPHY OF THE PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

The effectiveness of the participatory approach to management and development depends on the tools we use. Communities cannot be lectured about participation. They know when they are excluded. So for development workers, for a more meaningful and sustainable relationship with the poor, listening to what the poor have to say,

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allowing to make them sense the reality, enabling them to put it in a shape what is workable and supporting the actions they decide to take, is part of the development workers' job today. Since it is different from the development work of the past, it requires other skills and tools. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) are among the basic methods, which are commonly used in the participatory development and management. These methods make use of specific tools to enable people to analyse their situation. The tools of PRA and PLA come with a philosophy, which ensure that knowledge of the people is used to empower them, rather than the development worker. Both together form part of the participatory process towards involving people in their own development. PRA has been discussed in detail in the sections to follow.

A Model of Governance and Participatory Development

Governance models vary according to how a board is structured, how responsibilities are distributed between various stakeholders, like board management, and staff, and the process used for board development, management and decision making. The strongest model proponents are those who adhere to a view of voluntary sector governance conceived by JOPJ Carver. Carver, a consultant and author on governance issues, made a very important contribution to thinking about governance by developing what he called the "policy governance" model. But the policy governance" model, like all other management models, is not without problems. Critics of this model object to the notion of a universally applicable approach to governance and development management. According to them, a model does not take into account the realities of human nature and the inherent problems of managing a voluntary organisation. Also, some feel that the model makes the organisation staff and board members too remote from the activities of their organisation, and that it discourages teamwork between board members and staff.

ROLE OF PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT

Application of various participatory management models of development intends to promote the condition of the humanity at-large, with a special focus on the conditions of the poor and marginalized groups of the society, through establishing a just, equitable, and secure social system. The matter of the fact is that such social system may not be established without good governance. So, before discussing and analyzing various models of the participatory management and their application in the South Asian countries, it deems fit to have a look on the concept of good governance and its basic principles. This discussion would also provide a framework to understand and analyses the application and functioning of various models in the South Asian countries.

USE OF PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

The participatory methods are used in every activity associated with social mobilisation, group organisation and planning, operation, and management. You may wish to start with a community mapping exercise to become familiar with the place, the people and the issues. But give farmers the lead.

Walk, talk and draw a transect map, to focus attention on resource issues and their management. Let them make the maps and lead the discussion. Collect information for community profiles. Learn the community. Put the communities-first. All decisions about forming an association, how to run it, and how to manage the watercourse resources must be the decisions of the community members. Encourage and enable them take action to address local issues, solve their problems and manage their resources. Our goal is formation of community based associations that are community-led and self-sufficient. As a facilitator, guide and catalyst, you encourage innovation. The more the rural development is conducted by, with and for communities, the more sustainable it becomes. Development by intervention is directed by the outsiders, and for outsiders. Communities have little say in the matter. This old-style development promotes dependence on outsiders and outsider solutions. Perpetuating dependent beneficiaries should not be the goal.

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Participation encourages innovation. Innovation promotes positive development. In innovative development, progressive ideas and actions are based upon local experience, local leadership and local management on what works, locally! Innovative development reduces dependency. In fact, it empowers. Ultimately, mobilization will be successful and development sustainable when the farmers say in a positive voice, with conviction: “This is our association - we will run it!” “This is our watercourse - we will manage it!” “These are our resources - we must look after them!”

CONSTRAINTS FOR PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

The participatory development workers and management experts have normally experienced the following constraints and barriers in the process of participatory management and development work:

- Constraints related to the goal and the objectives of the organization or project;
- Process versus product;
- Community related constraints or citizen involvement;
- Language, semantics, titles all represent constraints;
- Holistic versus traditional approach;
- Allocation of resources;
- Resources and Processes;
- Constraints related to the project scope; and
- Profit motives.

Other barriers, which slow down or prohibit the participatory management and development, include:

- Psychological barriers;
- Sociological barriers;
- Economic or financial barriers; and
- Technical barriers.

Check Your Progress 2

Note : i) Use the space given below for your answers.

i) Explain the concept and significance of role models.

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i) Write a note in your own words on a model of governance and participatory development.

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11.4 RIGHTS BASED APPROACH

Every decade of development practice, brings up some newer approaches to development, which adds perspectives to development practice, and

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offers new insight to the way we understand development. Rights, human rights, and rights-bases are relatively recent 2 additions to the development lexicon. Development thinkers always seek to redefine development as being about more than economic growth; talking about human rights is one way to construct a more holistic definition. Interest in shifting to a “rights-based approach” to development has intensified in recent years. International development agencies have increasingly begun to frame their work in terms of rights. Similarly, human rights organizations have been exploring concepts and strategies of participation and how to apply them to their work. Yet while there is a great deal of “rights talk” and “participation speak” at the international level, what exactly is a “rights based approach” all about and how does it link with what is being done in the name of “participation”? To what extent are development organizations changing their practices from the fulfillment of needs to engagement with rights issues? To what extent are human rights groups incorporating participation into their work? What are some of the contextual factors driving these shifts? And what new practices are emerging in which rights and participation come together? These are some of the points we shall deal with in this Unit.

Development is not a theoretical exercise to transform a certain amount of money into some other commodity, or some more money. Development is about people and deals with people’s lives. 2.8 billion of these people have to survive with less than \$2 a day, most of them being women, who live in Asian Region. The responses of poor people are extremely 3 important for development practice. Our engagement with villages clearly points out that poverty is not merely absence of commodities and services to meet basic needs, but rather a question of powerlessness. Aside from the importance of material assets, health and education in improving people’s lives, the poor mentioned the influence of factors such as emotional integrity, respect and dignity, social belonging, cultural identity, organizational capacity, and political representation and accountability. Power relations and discrimination have a major influence on the production and reproduction of

deprivation. The gender dimensions of poverty highlights this relationship.

11.4.1 Meaning

We noted that the absence of realization of fundamental human rights and freedom is the basic premise that made way for rights-based approach to development to emerge. Rights based approach views development as the process of realizing fundamental human rights and freedoms, thus expanding people's choices and capabilities to live the lives that they value. Upholding human rights is crucial for guaranteeing people's well-being and securing a humane and non-discriminatory society – and for enabling an active and engaged citizenry. Consequently, a rights-based approach integrates human rights concepts in the development process to effectively target human freedom. Specifically, it integrates human rights principles, the normative content of human rights, and human rights obligations, particularly state obligations, in development policies and programs. A rights-based approach puts the poor, marginalized, vulnerable groups at the core of policy and the focus of capacity development strategies. Gender analysis is an intrinsic part of a rights-based approach to development, not an add-on. Human development is concerned with the fulfillment of basic human rights and fundamental rights. The relationship between human rights and sustainable human development is twofold: First, the process of development can be seen as an expansion of human freedoms. Human development is concerned with the fulfillment of basic human rights and fundamental human freedom. Secondly, human rights play an instrumental role in the process of development. They express goals to be achieved, and provide development workers with effective tools designed to eradicate poverty.

11.4.2 Principals of Rights based approach

We noted that a rights-based approach to development is a conceptual framework for the process of human development that is normatively

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based on international human rights standards, and operationally directed to promoting and protecting human rights. There are four fundamental principles that should guide an empowering development process in the realization of human freedoms:

1. The human person is the central subject, active participant, owner, director and beneficiary of development.
2. All stages in the development process should be based on human rights principles that:
 - a. Define development objectives
 - b. Guide the formulation of policies, laws, strategies and other appropriate measures in the administrative, budgetary, judicial, educational, political, social and other fields.
 - c. Direct the establishment of corresponding benchmarks and indicators; and are integrated within every stage in the development processes.
3. Development – and all stages in the development process – should respect the normative content of human rights.
4. Development should be coherent with the levels and nature of human rights obligations, particularly States obligations.

11.4.3 Features of Rights Based approach

Human rights perspectives play two roles in the development process. They are:

- (a) Evaluative role, and
- (b) Instrumental role. In the process of trying to understand these two roles, we can derive the salient features of the rights-based approach.

(A)Evaluative Role: Development should be assessed in terms of its success in improving the human rights and freedoms of the members of the society, particularly the most vulnerable and disadvantaged. The progressive realization of human rights for all members of society gives a unique and precise criterion for development.

(B)Instrumental Role: Human rights increase the effectiveness of development programmes.

- (i) A human rights perspective helps identify the root causes of poverty by providing a holistic picture of development and the connections between the economic, social, cultural and political dimensions of the problem.
- (ii) A human rights perspective brings the gender dimensions of development to the forefront. We have already mentioned that gender analysis is an intrinsic part of a human rights perspective, not an add-on.
- (iii) A human rights perspective sees development as an empowering process. It highlights human beings as agents of change and not as passive recipients of charitable development programs. With adequate social opportunities, individuals can effectively shape their own destiny and help each other. By ensuring the development contributes to strengthening the ability of people to help themselves and influence the world, development programs contribute to human freedom in outcome as well as in process, and therefore become more sustainable.
- (iv) A human rights perspective removes arbitrariness from development programs and objectives, because it provides a basis to assess the “developmental” contribution of a particular intervention. Design of development programs can be done on a more rational basis due to the greater normative clarity provided by national and international human rights norms.

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- (v) A human rights perspective provides objective standards that can be used as a guide in a dynamic process, as they include guidance for „immediate“ and „progressive“ realization.
- (vi) A human rights perspective strengthens accountability in the development process by highlighting the fact that human rights imply human duties. The improvement of quality of life and the eradication of social injustices are tasks that everybody has - individually and collectively - the right and duty to pursue. Human Rights obligations may lie on the State, non-State actors and individuals, and the international community as a whole.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i. Use this space given below to answer the question.

1. What is the two roles human rights perspectives play in the development process?

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2. Can you recollect the basic premise or the foundations upon which the rights-based approach stands?

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11.5 LET US SUM UP

Whether a model would help in achieving "the goals of development management or improve the governing of an organization is debatable. A model may be defined as a representation of a set of components of a

process, system or subject area, generally' developed for understanding, analysis, improvement or replacement of process: or it may be conceived as a systematic way of representing the purpose of reproducing, simplifying, analyzing or understanding it.

A rights-based approach can be traced back to the UN Charter and is linked to the Right to Development and the Sustainable Human Development Programme. It is consistent with the human rights mandate of all UN Agencies. A rights-based approach to development views development as the process of realization of fundamental human rights and freedoms. It understands poverty as a question of powerlessness rather than mere lack of commodities and services, and consequently recognizes the need to bring political, economic, social and cultural dimensions into the analysis of poverty.

11.6 KEY WORDS

Budget: A statement of financial position (e.g. of an organisation) for a definite period of time (e.g. the following year) based on estimates of expenditure, and income during the period.

Bureaucracy: The term bureaucracy has been derived from the word 'bureau' which means an office or post. Hence bureaucracy refers to officials holding a post or office exercising their power to carry on their constitutional duties and obligations.

Participatory Democracy: Participatory democracy emphasizes the broad participation of constituents in the direction and operation of political systems. Etymological roots of democracy imply that the people are in power and thus that all democracies are participatory.

Rights: Rights are legal, social, or ethical principles of freedom or entitlement; that is, rights are the fundamental normative rules about what is allowed of people or owed to people, according to some legal system, social convention, or ethical theory.

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Sustainable development: Sustainable development is the organizing principle for meeting human development goals while simultaneously sustaining the ability of natural systems to provide the natural resources and ecosystem services upon which the economy and society depend.

Covenants: A promise or a legal agreement, mostly between and among countries to undertake something with a view to respecting the general human values and long-term welfare of humans.

Rights-holder: In a conceptual sense all people, men, women and children regardless of any other consideration. In development analysis, human rights concerns are identified in situations where it is some peoples' fundamental human rights being affected: those people are called rights-holders.

Duty-bearers: Duty bearers include a range of actors, from individuals to private sector and the international community, although the main subject of human rights obligations is the State.

Delegation: Grant or conferment or giving of authority, or a part of work or responsibility to someone else so that they can act on your behalf.
Incentive: motive for acting in a certain way.

Staff agency: Staff agency refers to any individual, officer or unit which provides help.

Assurance: advice and information to the chief executive.

11.7 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

- Define a model. Why are models needed? Are models helpful or not? .
- What is the role of Participatory Management models in good governance?

- What is Right based approach to thi administration?
- Illustrate the premise for emergence of the rights-based approach.
- Define the rights-based approach and explain its meaning.

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11.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

Check Your Progress 1

Check your answer with unit 11.2

Check Your Progress 2

Check your answer with unit 11.3

Check Your Progress 3

Check your answer with unit 11.4

UNIT 12: EMERGING ISSUES: PUBLIC CHOICE

STRUCTURE

- 12.0 Objectives
- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Methodological Individualism, Rationality and Economic
 - 12.2.1 Analysis of Politics
 - 12.2.2 Methodological Individualism and Rationality
 - 12.2.3 Political Economy and the Economic analysis of Politics
- 12.3 Some Basic Elements of the Public Choice Approach to the
 - 12.3.1 State and Politics
 - 12.3.2 Nature and Origin of State
 - 12.3.3 Social Choice and Voting
- 12.4 Analysing Bureaucracy and Administration using Public Choice
 - 12.4.1 Functioning of bureaux
 - 12.4.2 Provision of and public goods and services
- 12.5 New Public Management
- 12.6 Feminism
 - 12.6.1 Origin of Feminism
 - 12.6.2 History and Theory of Feminism
- 12.7 Post Modernism
- 12.8 Comparative Public Administration
- 12.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 12.10 Key Words
- 12.11 Questions for Review
- 12.12 Suggested readings and references
- 12.13 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

12.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading the unit, you shall be able to:

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- Explain the concepts of rationality and methodological individualism;
- Discuss the basic ingredients of the Public Choice approach to political processes and institutions;
- Define public goods and club goods;
- Analyse the functioning of the bureaucracy, including provision and delivery of public goods and regulation activities, using the public choice approach;
- Describe the characteristics of rent-seeking behaviour; and
- Critically examine the relevance and analytical power of the public choice approach to bureaucracy.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

In your previous units, you have been exposed to various approaches to the study of bureaucracy. In this unit, we discuss a fresh approach to political economy and public administration, an approach that has a radically different view about people, their motivations and actions in the arena of politics and administration. This approach is called Public Choice, and the present unit deals with how this approach studies bureaucracy and administration. For a long time, those who studied bureaucracy assumed that while bureaucracies display the behaviour of any formal organisation, what characterised these and set these apart from other formal organisations like business firms, was that bureaux functioned keeping the public interest in mind. The personnel and staff of public administration agencies were motivated to work for implementing, as efficiently as possible, the overall policies and strategies of the government. In actual practice, bureaux and development administration agencies often display behaviour that has prompted many to ask: "is their behaviour consistent with actions and tactics which will efficiently and effectively implement government policies?" Are there delays, inefficiencies, and sub-optimal behaviour? Are some of the officials venal? Are the policies which are being implemented the best policies to begin with? The question is, if such behaviour is sometimes seen, why are these sort of behaviour displayed? Is it a problem of motivation, of incorrectly devised incentive system?

Why is there often a deviation from the official policy line? These are serious questions that any student of public administration is confronted with. Public choice theory sought to provide a different way of approaching the study of administration. Basically the theory suggested that when we study any organisation or institution, we should look at the behaviour of the people, that is, the individuals constituting the organisation or institution.

12.2 METHODOLOGICAL INDIVIDUALISM, RATIONALITY, AND ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF POLITICS

Let us begin the discussion by first looking at the two words, ‘public’ and ‘choice’. As the first word makes clear, the approach focuses on the activities of, and processes in, public organisations, like bureaucracy, legislature, executive, or other organs of the State. It is not concerned with the actions of private individuals except as members of a collective, like voters or members of an interest group. We mentioned in the previous section that the Public Choice approach avers that to study the functioning of any public organisation, one needs to look at the behaviour of people in that organisation. The word ‘choice’ suggests that behaviour or actions of people in public organisations or activities is to be understood in terms of a single dimension, that of the choices the individuals make from the available alternatives and within constraints. We shall elaborate on this in subsection below.

12.2.1 Methodological Individualism and Rationality

The methodology of Public Choice consists of two related elements. The first is methodological individualism. Methodological individualism rejects viewing the society as an organism, and considers a holistic approach misleading. Public Choice theorists argue that even when studying collective entities and groups, the individual should be the unit of analysis, both as the basic unit of decision-making as well as the unit

for whom the decision is made. Groups, organisations, or even societies, are nothing more than the (sum of the) individuals comprising them.

12.2.2 Political Economy and the Economic Analysis of Politics

Public Choice theory is the application of economics to the study of political processes and institutions. This is not so much the assertion that economic events or forces or processes influence political events and activities, but the application of the methodology and tools of economics to the study of political science. Public Choice is an approach and a methodology. It does not have its own separate topics. Its topics are the same as those of political science. Public Choice studies processes by which people indicate preferences and choices in the political sphere. It urges that social scientists who study political and bureaucratic activities should not think that politicians and bureaucrats act out of benevolence or that they have the 'public interest' in mind. Rather, politicians and bureaucrats have self-interest uppermost in their minds when they undertake actions. Politicians may think of taking actions that would help them to get re-elected or win an election ticket.

Market failure and Government Failure

Let us look at some concepts from standard economics that public choice uses that are employed in public choice analysis. Standard economics suggests that provided certain assumptions are met, people entering into voluntary exchange with one another, each pursuing his or her self-interest independently ensure that competitive markets are the most efficient institutions for allocating resources. A situation of Pareto-optimality will be reached, which means a point will be reached where no one can be made better off without at the same time someone else being made worse off. This is so called after the economist and sociologist Vilfredo Pareto. The price system will take care of resource allocation. The notion of competition in standard economics, when it

speaks of competitive markets, is a situation where no producer or consumer is able to take control of the market or rig it. Competition is so severe that no one has it in his or her power to set a price that would guarantee extra gains for that individual or organisation. Everyone sells homogeneous goods or services and sellers can enter or leave the markets with ease. Perfect competition means a situation where paradoxically there is no rivalry. Every one has equal power (or lack of it). 'Big business' is absent.

12.3 BASIC ELEMENTS OF THE PUBLIC CHOICE APPROACH TO STATE AND POLITICS

12.3.1 Nature and Origin of State

In addition to providing insight into how public decision-making occurs today, public choice analyses the rules that guide the collective decision-making process itself. These are the constitutional rules that are made before political activity gets underway. Public Choice theorists argue against adopting an organic view of the state and society. A society is merely the collection of individuals who constitute it. Similarly, the state is not a homogeneous organic entity. It is a collection of politicians, administrators and other official and personnel. Social Scientists should look at the structure within which political decisions are made. Before looking at the effects of alternative economic policies within a given set of rules, social scientists should analyse the structure of the state and political apparatus.

12.3.2 Social Choice and Voting

One of the chief underpinnings of public choice theory is the lack of incentives for voters to monitor government effectively. Anthony Downs, in one of the earliest public choice books, *An Economic Theory*

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of Democracy, pointed out that the voter is largely ignorant of political issues and that this ignorance is rational. Even though the result of an election may be very important, an individual's vote rarely decides an election. Thus, the direct impact of casting a well-informed vote is almost negligible; the voter has virtually no chance to determine the outcome of the election. So spending time following the issues is not personally worthwhile for the voter. Evidence for this claim is found in the fact that public opinion polls consistently find that less than half of all voting-age Americans can name their own congressional representative.

12.4 ANALYSING BUREAUCRACY AND ADMINISTRATION USING PUBLIC CHOICE

Now that you have been acquainted with the basic approach of public choice to political institutions and processes in general, we may look in greater detail specifically how public choice deals with bureaucracy and administration. The public choice approach is one of the late approaches in the line of inquiry into, and discourses on, the working of the bureaucracy and government administration. Till about 1965. The scholarly body of work on the bureaucracy was carried on in the spirit of Weber and Wilson, notwithstanding Simon who used the theory of decision-making to study among other topics, the functioning of bureaucrats. He put forward the idea of bounded-rationality, which you have no doubt studied in an earlier unit. In 1965 Gordon Tullock published his book *The Politics of Bureaucracy*. This book marked the beginning of work, within the public choice framework, on the analysis of bureaucracy. Till that time, the public choice literature had busied itself with analyzing and developing models of representative government and the State in general.

12.4.1 Functioning of Bureaux

At the heart of any understanding of the function and role of the bureaucracy is the fact that bureaux are engaged in the activity of

providing public goods and public services. Since these goods and services provided by the bureaucracy are not sold, a political process replaces the market process. The point of departure of the public choice approach is the assertion that although the structure of a political process is completely different from a market-based interaction process, the motivations and behaviour of the actors in the political arena are very similar to actors in the marketplace. In other words the dichotomy that sought to explain the behaviour of businessmen, entrepreneurs and suppliers as being motivated by self-interest while that of bureaucrats, administrators and politicians is motivated by 'the public interest' is a false one. The classic work in the public choice literature on bureaucracy is Niskanen (1971). This work started an onrush of future contributions on bureaucracy from a public choice perspective. Niskanen's theory is in an exchange paradigm. It talks of the exchange of output for a budget, between the individual bureau and the government. What is relevant is also how work is organised within the bureau. Niskanen formulated his theory in a framework of what economists call bilateral monopoly or a situation where there is a single seller of a product confronting a single buyer of the product.

12.4.2 Provision of Public Goods And Services

You might be thinking that public goods are goods provided by the public sector, that is, the state. While this is true in many cases, this is not always so. While the government largely provides public goods—and later we will discuss the reasons—this type of goods may be provided by the private sector. There are two characteristics that a public good possesses regardless of whether it is provided by the government or not. These two characteristics are non-rival consumption and non-exclusion.

Check Your Progress 1:

Notes:- i) List out the space below for your answers.

1. What is the Functioning of Bureaux?

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2. What is the Provision of Public Goods And Services?

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12.5 NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

The discipline and practice of Public Administration since 1987 has undergone several changes. The politics – administration dichotomy, propounded initially, by Woodrow Wilson, slowly gave way to a gradual recognition of the science of management. F.W. Taylor’s Scientific Management movement and Elton Mayo’s Hawthorne experiments in the 1920s, had subjected the structures and processes of public organisations to a critical analysis. Efficiency had become the key concern in public administration. Gradually, during the post-war period, concepts such as informal organisation, work group, team work, leadership, cooperation, etc. gained prominence. The need to gauge the influence of these concepts in organisations, thereby giving importance to the human element in the organisation was emphasised, especially by the protagonists of the Human Relations School.

12.5.1 NEW PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: EMERGENCE AND GROWTH

The American society, by the end of the 1960s was faced with a number of problems. They included dissatisfaction with the Vietnam war, population increase, environmental problems, increasing social conflicts and economic crisis which made the younger generation of intellectuals

question the efficacy and speed of the response of the political and administrative systems. Serious concerns were raised regarding the efficiency and economy in administration. It was felt that the dissatisfaction arising from the persisting turbulent environment calls for restoration of values and public purpose in government. Human and value-oriented administration was suggested. It was felt necessary to inject the goals of being responsive to the needs of clients and ensuring social equity in service delivery. This thinking led to the emergence of New Public Administration (NPA). It intended to provide a philosophical outlook for public administration. It was during 1967-68 that various efforts were initiated in the USA, with the aim of providing a multidisciplinary, public policy and social equity-oriented focus to public administration. The significant landmarks in this direction include:

1. The Honey Report on Higher Education for Public Service
2. The Philadelphia Conference on the Theory and Practice of Public Administration.
3. The Minnowbrook Conference – I
4. The Minnowbrook Conference - II The American Society of Public Administration (ASPA), for quite sometime was concerned about the growth of public administration as a discipline with distinct identity and enlarging its scope in the curriculum offered by university departments. In 1966, John Honey of Syracuse University undertook an evaluation of Public Administration as a field of study in the US universities.

Certain problems confronting the discipline were highlighted. These include:

- Uncertainty and confusion over the status of the discipline.
- Inadequate funds at the disposal of the university departments for promoting the discipline.

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- Institutional shortcomings; and
- Lack of communication between the scholars and practitioners of Public Administration.

It recommended generation of resources from government and business, encouraging higher studies in public administration, interlinking university departments and government through appointment of professors to positions in government and vice versa, and setting up of a National Commission on Public Service Education to provide leadership in the field. The report, inspite of its shortcomings, laid the basis for examining the role of Public Administration in generating social awareness.

12.5.2 NEW PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: AN EVALUATION

New Public Administration had a significant impact on the discipline and profession of public administration. In both the conferences, an attempt has been made to relate public administration with the prevailing socio-economic scenario and the dominant philosophical concerns of the times.

The second Minnowbrook Conference was held in a changed scenario, especially in American Public Administration. It was marked by cynicism towards big government and increasing public preference for less for government. The state underwent a change in nature from the welfare to the regulatory state. It has been characterized by more privatisation, outsourcing and predominance of private over public purpose values. In addition, there has been a change in the nature of the discipline of public administration. The field, which was an integral part of the political science in the 1960s, became more multi-disciplinary, analytical and theoretically sophisticated. There are variations in the mood and tone of the two conferences. While the 1968 conference was contentious, confrontational and revolutionary, the 1988 conference was more civil, and practical.

New Public Management

NPM, compared to other public management theories, is oriented towards outcomes and efficiency, through better management of public budget. It is to be achieved by applying competition, as it is known in the private sector, to organizations in the public sector, emphasizing economic and leadership principles. The public domain seems to have shrunk due to market forces. New public management addresses beneficiaries of public services much like customers, and conversely citizens as shareholders.

This has been the outcome of several changes embedded in the social as well as the political context in the western democracies. Major driving forces include – an overloaded welfare state and the resultant costs arising out of it prompted the taxpayers to question the rationale of the Public Sector. Resulting dissatisfaction in the welfare state led to the **New Right Economics** that formed the ideological basis for change. Entry of economic and managerial principles into the public sector affects not only the concerned public sector organizations, but also the nature of state as a whole.

The pro-market ideology that has reigned supreme since the 1980s, argues that the government is less efficient than the markets in providing services to individuals. NPE is formed on the basis of market emphasis of the following- downsizing the state, deregulation and withdrawal, privatization of institutions, progressive taxation and involvement of NGOs.

The basic hypothesis holds that **market oriented management** of the public sector will lead to greater cost-efficiency for governments, without having negative side-effects on other objectives and considerations.

This new theory of public management is very different from the traditional theory of public management. It has developed an analytical

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agenda based heavily on the concepts and theories of **Public Choice Economics** and standards of corporate managements.

TRADITIONAL THOERY OF MANAGEMENT	NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT
Promotes the idea of trust, accompanied by division of responsibilities between politicians and bureaucrats.	Emphasizes on efficiency. It promotes a new set of values- foster marketization and entrepreneurial skills. Autonomy, risk-taking, flexibility, rewards for a good performance.
There is a clarity regarding the concept of accountability. It is based on process, laws and hierarchical control intended to make the administration accountable. It made administration responsible through elected representatives.	Focuses more on outputs. Prominence to strategic role of policy makers. It comprises of varied independent, competing mechanisms and a number of independently operating accountability holders. Here the hierarchical accountability gets diluted.

New Public Management presents political theory of the state according to which,

- The state must become minimal in nature
- It must be considered as a simple organization, it's no longer the 'organizer of organizations'
- In accordance with the dicta of the new rights the state must provide minimal social assistance but it has no legitimate role in the quest for egalitarianism and social justice for this would undermine individual liberties and generate excessive public expenditure.
- State must be sensitive to the clients' needs like the private sector.

Politics is removed as an obstacle to good management.

Criticism

- Since the role of politics is made insignificant by NPM, it lacks a perspective on relationship between the influence of voters or citizens on politicians through election channels. According to **Fredrickson (1996)**, administrative reforms as per this model appear to be apolitical or even anti-political in nature. What NPM lacks as far as this model of state is concerned, is a perspective on the relationship between the influence of voters or citizens on politicians through the election channel on the one hand, and their more direct influence on public bodies as clients and consumers on the other.
- The relationship between the state and the citizen, which has always been dialectical, now appears to be morphing into a relationship between a producer of services and consumers. The goal of administration tends to be to satisfy the needs of these customers. According to **Pollitt (1990)**, public services are more distinctive than any other generic model of the consumer for two reasons
- The provider-consumer transaction in public services tends to be notably more complex than those faced by the consumer in the real market.
- Public service consumers are never merely ‘consumers,’ they are always citizens too, and this has a set of unique implications of the transaction.
- The NPM reform, which promoted market-oriented changes, according to critics, seems to be partial in nature, as they were too supplemented by basic institutional and political reforms. **Robert Dahl** was the first to question the validity of developing universal principles of administration.
- The NPM reforms basically originated on the western countries and the impact of the reform also varies. As **Caiden (1991)** remarks, “unless reconciled with local ecology, universal

formulae of administration reform based on western concepts were unlikely to work.”

Check Your Progress 2:

i) List out the space below for your answers.

1. Discuss the New Public management.

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12.6 FEMINISM

12.6.1 Origin of Feminism

The origins of the term feminism is not clear. There are several opinions, but the generally accepted version is that it was first used by the Utopian Socialist Charles Fourier in the 19th century, to refer to the question of equal rights for women. In the West, women emerged in the early 19th century as a distinct interest group, partly because by that time it was clear that the promise of equality by the bourgeois democratic revolutions of the 17th and 18th centuries excluded women, and partly because the Industrial Revolution had led to the increasingly visible presence for women in public employment.

12.6.2 History and Theory of Feminism

The term feminism can be used to describe a political, cultural or economic movement aimed at establishing equal rights and legal protection for women. Feminism involves political and sociological theories and philosophies concerned with issues of gender difference, as well as a movement that advocates gender equality for women and campaigns for women's rights and interests. Although the terms

"feminism" and "feminist" did not gain widespread use until the 1970s, they were already being used in the public parlance much earlier; for instance, Katherine Hepburn speaks of the "feminist movement" in the 1942 film *Woman of the Year*.

History

Simone de Beauvoir wrote that "the first time we see a woman take up her pen in defense of her sex" was Christine de Pizan who wrote *Epitre au Dieu d'Amour* (Epistle to the God of Love) in the 15th century. Heinrich Cornelius Agrippa and Modesta di Pozzo di Forzi worked in the 16th century. Marie Le Jars de Gournay, Anne Bradstreet and Francois Poullain de la Barre wrote during the 17th.

First wave

First-wave feminism refers to an extended period of feminist activity during the nineteenth century and early twentieth century in the United Kingdom and the United States. Originally it focused on the promotion of equal contract and property rights for women and the opposition to chattel marriage and ownership of married women (and their children) by their husbands. However, by the end of the nineteenth century, activism focused primarily on gaining political power, particularly the right of women's suffrage. Yet, feminists such as Voltairine de Cleyre and Margaret Sanger were still active in campaigning for women's sexual, reproductive, and economic rights at this time. In 1854, Florence Nightingale established female nurses as adjuncts to the military.

Second wave

Second-wave feminism refers to the period of activity in the early 1960s and lasting through the late 1980s. The scholar Imelda Whelehan suggests that the second wave was a continuation of the earlier phase of feminism involving the suffragettes in the UK and USA. Second-wave feminism has continued to exist since that time and coexists with what is

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termed third-wave feminism. The scholar Estelle Freedman compares first and second-wave feminism saying that the first wave focused on rights such as suffrage, whereas the second wave was largely concerned with other issues of equality, such as ending discrimination.

Third wave

Third-wave feminism began in the early 1990s, arising as a response to perceived failures of the second wave and also as a response to the backlash against initiatives and movements created by the second wave. Third-wave feminism seeks to challenge or avoid what it deems the second wave's essentialist definitions of femininity, which (according to them) over-emphasize the experiences of upper middle-class white women.

Third-wave feminism also contains internal debates between difference feminists such as the psychologist Carol Gilligan (who believes that there are important differences between the sexes) and those who believe that there are no inherent differences between the sexes and contend that gender roles are due to social conditioning.

Post-feminism

Post-feminism describes a range of viewpoints reacting to feminism. While not being "anti-feminist," post-feminists believe that women have achieved second wave goals while being critical of third wave feminist goals. The term was first used in the 1980s to describe a backlash against second-wave feminism. It is now a label for a wide range of theories that take critical approaches to previous feminist discourses and includes challenges to the second wave's ideas. Other post-feminists say that feminism is no longer relevant to today's society. Amelia Jones wrote that the post-feminist texts which emerged in the 1980s and 1990s portrayed second-wave feminism as a monolithic entity and criticized it using generalizations.

French feminism

French feminism refers to a branch of feminist thought from a group of feminists in France from the 1970s to the 1990s. French feminism, compared to Anglophone feminism, is distinguished by an approach which is more philosophical and literary. Its writings tend to be effusive and metaphorical, being less concerned with political doctrine and generally focused on theories of "the body." The term includes writers who are not French, but who have worked substantially in France and the French tradition such as Julia Kristeva and Bracha Ettinger.

Theoretical schools

Feminist theory is an extension of feminism into theoretical or philosophical fields. It encompasses work in a variety of disciplines, including anthropology, sociology, economics, women's studies, literary criticism, art history, psychoanalysis and philosophy. Feminist theory aims to understand gender inequality and focuses on gender politics, power relations and sexuality. While providing a critique of these social and political relations, much of feminist theory focuses on the promotion of women's rights and interests. Themes explored in feminist theory include discrimination, stereotyping, objectification (especially sexual objectification), oppression and patriarchy.

Movements and ideologies

Several submovements of feminist ideology have developed over the years; some of the major subtypes are listed below. These movements often overlap, and some feminists identify themselves with several types of feminist thought.

Anarcha

Anarcha-feminism (also called anarchist feminism and anarcho-feminism) combines anarchism with feminism. It generally views

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patriarchy as a manifestation of involuntary hierarchy. Anarcha-feminists believe that the struggle against patriarchy is an essential part of class struggle, and the anarchist struggle against the State. In essence, the philosophy sees anarchist struggle as a necessary component of feminist struggle and vice-versa. As L. Susan Brown puts it, "as anarchism is a political philosophy that opposes all relationships of power, it is inherently feminist".

Socialist and Marxist

Socialist feminism connects the oppression of women to Marxist ideas about exploitation, oppression and labor. Socialist feminists think unequal standing in both the workplace and the domestic sphere holds women down.[59] Socialist feminists see prostitution, domestic work, childcare and marriage as ways in which women are exploited by a patriarchal system that devalues women and the substantial work they do.

Radical

Radical feminism considers the male controlled capitalist hierarchy, which it describes as sexist, as the defining feature of women's oppression. Radical feminists believe that women can free themselves only when they have done away with what they consider an inherently oppressive and dominating patriarchal system.

Liberal

Liberal feminism asserts the equality of men and women through political and legal reform. It is an individualistic form of feminism, which focuses on women's ability to show and maintain their equality through their own actions and choices. Liberal feminism uses the personal interactions between men and women as the place from which to transform society.

Black

Black feminism argues that sexism, class oppression, and racism are inextricably bound together. Forms of feminism that strive to overcome sexism and class oppression but ignore race can discriminate against many people, including women, through racial bias. The Combahee River Collective argued in 1974 that the liberation of black women entails freedom for all people, since it would require the end of racism, sexism, and class oppression.

Postcolonial and third-world

Postcolonial feminists argue that oppression relating to the colonial experience, particularly racial, class, and ethnic oppression, has marginalized women in postcolonial societies. They challenge the assumption that gender oppression is the primary force of patriarchy. Postcolonial feminists object to portrayals of women of non-Western societies as passive and voiceless victims and the portrayal of Western women as modern, educated and empowered.

Multiracial

Multiracial feminism (also known as “women of color” feminism) offers a standpoint theory and analysis of the lives and experiences of women of color. The theory emerged in the 1990s and was developed by Dr. Maxine Baca Zinn, a Chicana feminist and Dr. Bonnie Thornton Dill, a sociology expert on African American women and family.

Libertarian

According to the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, "Classical liberal or libertarian feminism conceives of freedom as freedom from coercive interference. It holds that women, as well as men, have a right to such freedom due to their status as self-owners."

Standpoint

Since the 1980s, standpoint feminists have argued that feminism should examine how women's experience of inequality relates to that of racism, homophobia, classism and colonization. In the late 1980s and 1990s postmodern feminists argued that gender roles are socially constructed, and that it is impossible to generalize women's experiences across cultures and histories.

Post-structural and postmodern

Post-structural feminism, also referred to as French feminism, uses the insights of various epistemological movements, including psychoanalysis, linguistics, political theory (Marxist and post-Marxist theory), race theory, literary theory, and other intellectual currents for feminist concerns. Many post-structural feminists maintain that difference is one of the most powerful tools that females possess in their struggle with patriarchal domination, and that to equate the feminist movement only with equality is to deny women a plethora of options because equality is still defined from the masculine or patriarchal perspective.

Environmental

Ecofeminism links ecology with feminism. Ecofeminists see the domination of women as stemming from the same ideologies that bring about the domination of the environment. Patriarchal systems, where men own and control the land, are seen as responsible for the oppression of women and destruction of the natural environment. Ecofeminists argue that the men in power control the land, and therefore they are able to exploit it for their own profit and success. Ecofeminists argue that in this situation, women are exploited by men in power for their own profit, success, and pleasure.

Society

The feminist movement has effected change in Western society, including women's suffrage; greater access to education; more nearly equitable pay with men; the right to initiate divorce proceedings and "no fault" divorce; and the right of women to make individual decisions regarding pregnancy (including access to contraceptives and abortion); as well as the right to own property.

Civil rights

From the 1960s on the women's liberation movement campaigned for women's rights, including the same pay as men, equal rights in law, and the freedom to plan their families. Their efforts were met with mixed results. Issues commonly associated with notions of women's rights include, though are not limited to: the right to bodily integrity and autonomy; to vote (universal suffrage); to hold public office; to work; to fair wages or equal pay; to own property; to education; to serve in the military; to enter into legal contracts; and to have marital, parental and religious rights.

CEDAW

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) is an international convention adopted by the United Nations General Assembly. Described as an international bill of rights for women, it came into force on 3 September 1981. Several countries have ratified the Convention subject to certain declarations, reservations and objections. Iran, Sudan, Somalia, Qatar, Nauru, Palau, Tonga and the United States have not ratified CEDAW. Expecting a U.S. Senate vote, NOW has encouraged President Obama to remove U.S. reservations and objections added in 2002 before the vote.

Language

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Gender-neutral language is a description of language usages which are aimed at minimizing assumptions regarding the biological sex of human referents. The advocacy of gender-neutral language reflects, at least, two different agendas: one aims to clarify the inclusion of both sexes or genders (gender-inclusive language); the other proposes that gender, as a category, is rarely worth marking in language (gender-neutral language). Gender-neutral language is sometimes described as non-sexist language by advocates and politically-correct language by opponents.

Heterosexual relationships

The increased entry of women into the workplace beginning in the twentieth century has affected gender roles and the division of labor within households. Sociologist Arlie Russell Hochschild in *The Second Shift* and *The Time Bind* presents evidence that in two-career couples, men and women, on average, spend about equal amounts of time working, but women still spend more time on housework. Feminist writer Cathy Young responds to Hochschild's assertions by arguing that in some cases, women may prevent the equal participation of men in housework and parenting.

Religion

Feminist theology is a movement that reconsiders the traditions, practices, scriptures, and theologies of religions from a feminist perspective. Some of the goals of feminist theology include increasing the role of women among the clergy and religious authorities, reinterpreting male-dominated imagery and language about God, determining women's place in relation to career and motherhood, and studying images of women in the religion's sacred texts.

Theology

Feminist theology is a movement found in several religions to reconsider the traditions, practices, scriptures, and theologies of those religions from

a feminist perspective. Some of the goals of feminist theology include increasing the role of women among the clergy and religious authorities, reinterpreting male-dominated imagery and language about God, determining women's place in relation to career and motherhood, and studying images of women in the religion's sacred texts. In Wicca "the Goddess" is a deity of prime importance, along with her consort the Horned God. In the earliest Wiccan publications she is described as a tribal goddess of the witch community, neither omnipotent nor universal, and it was recognised that there was a greater "Prime Mover", although the witches did not concern themselves much with this being.

Architecture

Gender-based inquiries into and conceptualization of architecture have also come about in the past fifteen years or so. Piyush Mathur coined the term "archigenderic" in his 1998 article in the British journal *Women's Writing*. Claiming that "architectural planning has an inextricable link with the defining and regulation of gender roles, responsibilities, rights, and limitations," Mathur came up with that term "to explore...the meaning of 'architecture' in terms of gender" and "to explore the meaning of 'gender' in terms of architecture"

Culture

Women's writing

Women's writing came to exist as a separate category of scholarly interest relatively recently. In the West, second-wave feminism prompted a general reevaluation of women's historical contributions, and various academic sub-disciplines, such as Women's history (or herstory) and women's writing, developed in response to the belief that women's lives and contributions have been underrepresented as areas of scholarly interest. Virginia Balisn et al. characterize the growth in interest since 1970 in women's writing as "powerful". Much of this early period of

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feminist literary scholarship was given over to the rediscovery and reclamation of texts written by women..

Science fiction

In the 1960s the genre of science fiction combined its sensationalism with political and technological critiques of society. With the advent of feminism, questioning women's roles became fair game to this "subversive, mind expanding genre". Two early texts are Ursula K. Le Guin's *The Left Hand of Darkness* (1969) and Joanna Russ' *The Female Man* (1970). They serve to highlight the socially constructed nature of gender roles by creating utopias that do away with gender. Both authors were also pioneers in feminist criticism of science fiction in the 1960s and 70s, in essays collected in *The Language of the Night* (Le Guin, 1979) and *How To Suppress Women's Writing* (Russ, 1983). Another major work of feminist science fiction has been *Kindred* by Octavia Butler.

Relationship to political movements

Socialism

Since the early twentieth century some feminists have allied with socialism. In 1907 there was an International Conference of Socialist Women in Stuttgart where suffrage was described as a tool of class struggle. Clara Zetkin of the Social Democratic Party of Germany called for women's suffrage to build a "socialist order, the only one that allows for a radical solution to the women's question".

Fascism

Scholars have argued that Nazi Germany and the other fascist states of the 1930s and 1940s illustrate the disastrous consequences for society of a state ideology that, in glorifying traditional images of women, becomes anti-feminist. In Germany after the rise of Nazism in 1933, there was a

rapid dissolution of the political rights and economic opportunities that feminists had fought for during the prewar period and to some extent during the 1920s. In Franco's Spain, the right wing Catholic conservatives undid the work of feminists during the Republic. Fascist society was hierarchical with an emphasis and idealization of virility, with women maintaining a largely subordinate position to men.

Scientific discourse

Some feminists are critical of traditional scientific discourse, arguing that the field has historically been biased towards a masculine perspective. Evelyn Fox Keller argues that the rhetoric of science reflects a masculine perspective, and she questions the idea of scientific objectivity.

Biology of gender

Modern feminist science challenges the biological essentialist view of gender, however it is increasingly interested in the study of biological sex differences and their effect on human behavior. For example, Anne Fausto-Sterling's book *Myths of Gender* explores the assumptions embodied in scientific research that purports to support a biologically essentialist view of gender.

Evolutionary biology

Sarah Kember - drawing from numerous areas such as evolutionary biology, sociobiology, artificial intelligence, and cybernetics in development with a new evolutionism - discusses the biologization of technology. She notes how feminists and sociologists have become suspect of evolutionary psychology, particularly inasmuch as sociobiology is subjected to complexity in order to strengthen sexual difference as immutable through pre-existing cultural value judgments about human nature and natural selection.

Pro-feminism

Pro-feminism is the support of feminism without implying that the supporter is a member of the feminist movement. The term is most often used in reference to men who are actively supportive of feminism and of efforts to bring about gender equality. The activities of pro-feminist men's groups include anti-violence work with boys and young men in schools, offering sexual harassment workshops in workplaces, running community education campaigns, and counseling male perpetrators of violence.

Anti-feminism

Anti-feminism is opposition to feminism in some or all of its forms. Writers such as Camille Paglia, Christina Hoff Sommers, Jean Bethke Elshtain and Elizabeth Fox-Genovese have been labeled "anti-feminists" by feminists. Daphne Patai and Noretta Koertge argue that in this way the term "anti-feminist" is used to silence academic debate about feminism. Paul Nathanson and Katherine K. Young's books *Spreading Misandry* and *Legalizing Misandry* explore what they argue is feminist-inspired misandry.

Check Your Progress 3:

Note: i) List out the space below for your answers.

1. Enumerate the different types of feminism. What is common to different feminist positions?

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2. Explain the meaning of patriarchy with reference to the views of some feminist scholars.

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12.7 POST MODERNISM

In this chapter we shall examine the major characteristic features of postmodernism. We shall first of all examine the concepts of the human self-advocated by the proponents of postmodernism and then try to understand the different approaches adopted by some of the postmodern thinkers. Stuart Sims observes in *The Routledge Companion to Postmodernism*: In a general sense, postmodernism is to be regarded as a rejection of many, if not most, of the cultural certainties on which life in the West has been structured over the last couple of centuries. It has called into question our commitment to cultural 'progress' (that economies must continue to grow, the quality of life to keep improving indefinitely, etc.), as well as the political systems that have underpinned this belief.

General Features of Postmodernism

As mentioned above, the term postmodernism refers primarily to a variety of responses towards life, culture and values and therefore, it is easy to conceive it as a reaction against and rejection of some long established assumptions, particularly those which became prominent with the advent of modernity. It questions the enlightenment concept of progress and affirms a disbelief in the purity of knowledge. It proposes to examine the goals and aspirations of modernity and is visibly anti-authoritarian.

The Modern and the Postmodern

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Modernity was a reaction against the inadequacies of traditional worldviews. The modernists contended that all the traditional ways of understanding the world and society have become obsolete and there was an urgent need to come up with new moral, philosophical, cultural or political principles to understand and deal with the changing world. The (re)emerging idea of reason had provided them the hope for building a new world on universally objective foundations. The postmodernists in turn have argued that these modern attempts to reinvent humanity are insufficient and futile.

Some Postmodern Themes

Let us now discuss some important postmodern themes. We shall focus on four of them here.

1. Presence or presentation Vs. representation and construction

2. Origin Vs. phenomena

3. Unity Vs. plurality

4. Transcendence of norms Vs. Immanence of norms.

1. Denial of Presence

The idea of presentation refers to what is directly and immediately given in experience. For example, the epistemological tradition of modern philosophy has treated the perception or sensation or sense data as the directly given, which is more reliable or certain. Countering this, the postmodernists have emphasized the notion of representation and affirm that everything is mediated by the human factor. We employ the mediation of linguistic signs and concepts in order to construct them. They thus argue that nothing is immediately present.

2. Denial of the Notion of Origin

Both traditional and modern philosophies have subscribed to this notion of origin. In the modern period we have a rational and secular interpretation of this notion of origin. This refers to the idea of the ultimate source of meaning, of selfhood, of life, of reality found by reason. There is an attempt to understand the deeper realities of the phenomenal world.

3. Denial of Unity

The postmodernists have challenged the idea of unity manifested in the notions of meanings and conceptions of self. They assert that all cultural elements like words, meanings, experiences, human selves, societies etc. are constituted by relations to other elements. They maintain that nothing is simple, immediate or totally present. They also oppose the possibility of a complete analysis of anything and therefore argue against the idea of absolute meaning.

7. Transcendence of Norms Vs. Immanence of Norms

The postmodernists have opposed the notion of transcendence of norms and have argued that values like truth, goodness, beauty, rationality, etc. are not independent but are products of and are immanent in the processes they find application as norms. Every such norm is conditional to the time and place and serves certain interests. They depend on certain social contexts. From this radically different idea about meaning, the postmodernists have derived another important theoretical insight; the idea of constitutive otherness.

Check Your Progress 4:

Note: i) List out the space below for your answers.

1. Compare the modern and postmodern approach.

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12.8 COMPARATIVE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Dear student, comparisons of administrative systems has had a long tradition. But a focus on this aspect of administrative studies is about forty years old. Only after the Second World War and with the emergence of new nations in Asia and Africa, a vigorous interest in comparative studies of Public Administration has evolved. Comparative Public Administration, in simple terms, refers to a comparative study of government administrative systems functioning in different countries of the world. In comparative (public) administrative studies, the unit of analysis is an administrative system. Therefore, the focus is either on the .whole of an administrative system or on its various parts.

Briefly, the subject matter of comparison would be one or dl of the following phenomena:

- i) Environment of the administrative system.
- ii) The whole administrative system.
- iii) The formal structure of the administrative system with a focus on the pattern of hierarchy, division of work, specialization, authority-responsibility network, decentralization, delegation, control mechanisms, procedures, etc.
- iv) The informal organisational patterns existing in an administrative set-up, including the nature of human groups, the relationships among individuals, motivational system, the status of morale, patterns of informal communicator and the nature of leadership.
- v) The roles of the individuals.

- vi) The interaction between the personality of individuals and the organisational system.
- vii) The policy and decisional systems of the organisation that link its various parts.
- viii) The communicational system, which also involves the feedback mechanism.
- ix) The performance of an administrative system. You would notice from the foregoing discussion that an administrative system is not a simple entity. There are intricacies of its functioning which will be highlighted in any comparative analysis.

The range of Comparative Public Administration

Let us now briefly outline the types of comparative administrative studies. Broadly there, are five types of studies. They are:

1. Inter-institutional Analysis

It involves a comparison of two or more administrative systems. For instance, a comparison of the structure and working of the Home Ministry of the Government of India with the Defense Ministry will be a case of inter-institutional analysis. Such comparisons could involve the whole of an administrative organisation or its various parts.

2. Interpretational Analysis

When an analysis in a comparative perspective is taken up among various administrative systems functioning within a country, it would be an intra-national analysis. Comparison of district administration in Bihar and Punjab would be an example of such an analysis.

3. Cross-national Analysis

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When two or more administrative systems (or their parts) are compared in the settings of different nations, this would be cross-national analysis. For example, comparing the recruitment of higher civil service of China, Thailand and Tanzania will form an example of a cross-national analysis.

4. Cross-cultural Analysis

A cross-national analysis of administrative system involves countries forming part or different "cultures", this would be called a cross-cultural analysis. For instance, comparing the administrative system of the USSR (a socialist state) with the U.S. (a capitalist system) could be termed a cross-cultural analysis.

Nature of Comparative administration Studies

Some scholars believe that comparison is an inherent part of any social analysis and whenever we examine any social problem or issue, we cannot do so without employing the comparative approach. Famous social scientist, Durkheim, subscribed to this approach. Fred Riggs, the scholar of Comparative Administration had observed that there were three trends which were noticeable in the comparative study of Public Administration. These were:

- 1) "Normative" to "empirical",**
- 2) "Ideographic" to 'Nomothetic" and**
- 3) "Non-ecological" to "ecological".**

1. Normative to Empirical Traditional studies of Public Administration were very much influenced by the classical approach. These studies emphasized upon 'good administration' which was based on following certain ideal principles.
2. Ideographic to Nomothetic: The words "ideographic" and "nomothetic" have been used by Riggs in specific contexts. An

ideographic approach concentrates on unique cases, e.g. a historical event, study of single agency, single country or even a single cultural area.

3. Noa-ecological to Ecological: The traditional studies of Comparative Public Administration were mainly non-ecological. These studies mentioned about the environment of administrative system only in a casual manner. There was no serious attempt to examine the relationship between the administrative system and its environment, Thus, it had become very difficult to identify the sources of differences among various administrative systems.

12.9 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, you have been acquainted with a particular approach to bureaucracy and public administration, one that has been highly influential, the public choice approach. We saw that the public choice unit takes one particular aspect of human behaviour even in the arena of public administration and politics, namely the display of preference and the making of choices.

New Public Administration that evolved in 1960s in the aftermath of the first Minnowbrook Conference gave primacy to key concerns that had relevance during those times. They included social equity, policy issues, change, participative citizenry, etc.

12.10 KEY WORDS

Outcome Evaluations: Evaluations that focus on the results of program activity, the extent to which a programme meets its objectives in terms of impact on the environment.

Performance Measurement: Careful and detailed measurement of the achievement of programme objectives and outcomes by a programme or agency.

Affirmative Action: Use of positive, result-oriented practices to ensure that woman, minorities, handicapped persons, and other protected classes of people will be equitably represented in an organisation.

Environmental Sensitivity: Tuned into agency and its environment; awareness of importance of non-technical factors. Ombudsman: Permanent office that receives complaints and acts on behalf of citizens to secure information, request services, or pursue grievances.

12.11 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

- Explain the concept of rationality and methodological individualism as used by public-choice theorists
- What according to you should be the focus of public administration in present times? Prepare a brief note.

12.12 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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12.13 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

Check Your Progress 1

Check Your answer with unit 12.4

Check Your Progress 2

Check Your answer with unit 12.5

Check Your Progress 3

Check Your answer with unit 12.6

Check Your Progress 4

Check Your answer with unit 12

UNIT 13: CONCEPTS OF GOVERNANCE

STRUCTURE

- 13.0 Objectives
- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Good governance
 - 13.2.1 Concept of Good Governance
 - 13.2.2 Governance and Good Governance
 - 13.2.3 Significance of Good Governance
 - 13.2.4 Good Governance: Features
 - 13.2.5 Good Governance Initiatives: the Indian Context
 - 13.2.6 Promoting Good Governance
- 13.3 Corporate governance
- 13.4 E governance
- 13.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 13.6 Key Words
- 13.7 Questions for Review
- 13.8 Suggested readings and references
- 13.9 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

13.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the shift of focus in public administration from New Public Management to Good Governance
- Trace the genesis of Good Governance
- Throw light on the concept of Good Governance
- Distinguish ‘Governance’ from Good Governance
- Highlight the significance and key characteristics of Good Governance
- Discuss the ‘Good Governance’ strategies in the Indian context; and
- Analyse the important factors promoting ‘Good Governance’.

13.1 INTRODUCTION

Public administration, as we all are aware, is not a new activity. As a field, it has been there since time immemorial. Public administration is a major constituent of the State as it is an instrument through which the goals and objectives of the State are accomplished. The major goal of the State is and has always been 'governance'. Now the question that arises is: since 'governance' has always been crucial to the State's performance, why has it suddenly assumed a prominent place in recent times. Isn't governance the activity of the government and if we assume that it is, then how is it different from the traditional public administration? State has been undergoing many changes in terms of the structure, functions, processes, goals and orientation. The entire complexion and nature of public administration is undergoing a change in the present times due to the impact of 'globalisation'. The process of globalisation accompanied by removal of trade barriers, large-scale entry of multinational enterprises, and drastic developments in information technology, is affecting the different domains of our system, be it social, economic, political, or technological. The area of public administration is also not unaffected by this impact. The impact of globalisation is leading to new managerial orientation in administration. Along with the developed countries, the developing countries including India have introduced managerial reforms in the form of disinvestment, corporatisation, outsourcing of certain activities, reduction of subsidies, and shrinking of the government's sphere of activities, which is gradually concentrating on core activities. As you are aware, traditionally, the practice of public administration has been dominated by the government playing a key role in provision of goods and services. The instrument of bureaucracy has always occupied a predominant place in administration. Slowly, the inadequacies in governmental operations have started focusing attention on looking for alternative modes of service delivery. As a result, the 'publicness', which is distinct to public administration, is getting sidelined. Due to impact of market, a single mode of operational single good and services to the citizens, is giving way to a larger collaboration between government, market and civil society. The interaction between the various key actors has started influencing the

decision-making process, making it more broad-based. There has been a gradual shift from 'government' to a broader notion of 'governance'. Governance that encompasses the collectiveness of the State, Government, market and community has become dominant. The concept of Good Governance has also gained prominence. This has been a global phenomenon. In this Unit, we shall unfold the various facets of the concept of governance and good governance, by underlining its characteristics, components and key concerns.

13.2 GOOD GOVERNANCE

The recent accent on New Public Management (NPM) has, undoubtedly, triggered the intellectual discourse about evolving ways of optimising resources, and looking at alternative market mechanisms for delivery of public services with a focus on performance measurement, efficiency, economy, and value for money.

The State as we all know has come to be regarded as unaccountable and ineffective in discharging developmental activities. The plea for roll back of State, and an increased role of private sector have raised the fears of the skeptics who dread that social concerns and public welfare may be given a rhetorical regard now. But, it is early to give in to such an argument as the element of 'public interest' cannot be over looked. The earlier Minimalist State approach has slowly given way to establishment of complementary roles to government, market and the people in the form of civil society organisations. While government is much narrower in scope, which refers to a fixed agency, or department, governance is broad in nature. As Rosenau (1992) explains "Governance is a more encompassing phenomenon than government. It is not just about the organs of government, but is concerned more about the quality of the functioning of various governing organs. There is, no doubt, a distinction between NPM and governance approaches which needs to be put in a perspective. NPM focuses more on processes with a view to achieving efficiency and performance, while governance emphasises on interaction amongst government, market forces, civil society organisations, cooperative endeavours in realising desired outcomes. Both the

approaches, however, aim at improving quality aspects. While the former is narrow in focusing on service delivery aspects, the latter aims at enhancing the quality of life. NPM reforms focus on market led growth prescribed by international agencies. Here, the concern is to reform the State institutions but the citizens are considered consumers of services who are to benefit mainly through economic and efficiency concerns. The governance reforms, on the other hand, assign a significant position to the citizens, their collective participation in decision making processes, their experiments with several forms of public service provision and so on. The public management reforms focus on the achievement of the objectives of efficiency and economy and an explicit emphasis upon the dominance of individual over collective preferences, whereas governance is intended to reflect broader concerns over and above efficiency and economy.

This includes:

- Establishing accountability between the State and people
- Treating people not merely as customers or consumers, but as citizens who have the right to hold their government accountable for their actions
- Protecting citizens' rights, their voices, values and preferences
- Facilitating the participation of people in the governance processes
- Empowering people towards better development; and
- Ensuring responsiveness of public as well as private institutions to the people Governments have always been entrusted with the task of governing or managing.

The traditional approach to governance was based on the premise that the government was solely responsible for formulating and implementing policy decisions. There has been excessive reliance on bureaucratic

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forms of organisations, hierarchy, adherence to rules and regulations, notions of permanence and neutrality, and citizens have been treated as passive acceptors of goods and services. But the current notion implies greater participation by the citizens in the affairs of the government to strengthen the quality and effectiveness of policy making and outcomes. There is an increasing realisation that State power is immense and hence to check its abuse, effectiveness and efficiency need to be brought into the State institutions and processes. Governance intends to achieve this objective. Jamil Jreisat (2004) opines that governance refers to two of the most basic questions posed by political scientists since the foundation of their discipline: These are: 'who governs' and 'how well?' The first question focuses on the issues of distribution of power and resources in the society. The second question is primarily concerned with 'good government' judged by such elements such as effective institutions, efficient methods of operation, and equitable policy outcomes. Globalisation, which has ushered in changes in the economic, political and social systems the world over, has resulted in not only significant improvements in communications, information technology, science and technology, infrastructure development and so on, but has also led to certain uncertainties, finding manifestations in the form of unemployment, social security, widening gap between income and capabilities and so on. The role of the State has also been in question due to the failure of government in promoting certain priority areas. Hence, this has resulted in government enabling the private sector as well as the civil society organisations to expand their activities. Governance, which earlier remained a closed system, has acquired a wider connotation to take advantage of globalisation in making efforts to provide a stable and secure social and economic domestic environment.

13.2.1 Concept of Good Governance

The concept of governance, which assumed significance since 1989 with the advocacy by the World Bank, is considered by some as not a new term. Pierre and Peters (2000) consider that the term was first used in France in the 14th century where it meant 'a seat of government'. The World Bank is said to have reinvented it, in a different context, as a new

approach to development. Globalisation has resulted in generation of global pressures exerted by institutions such as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF), in the form of economic reforms programmes to be adhered to, especially by the developing countries. The aid given to these countries is accompanied by certain market-oriented reforms. It has been observed that after a certain period of time, the results as expected out of this new thinking have not been forthcoming or the growth has been slower than originally anticipated.

The failure of Structural Adjustment Programme, ineffective utilisation of public funds, increasing corruption, the collapse of centrally planned economies, mounting fiscal debt etc. have raised critical questions about governance system. This has actually made the World Bank examine and publish its first major analyses based on the experience of Sub-Saharan Africa in 1989. The Bank published its document entitled “Sub-Saharan Africa: From Crisis to Sustainable Growth”, which brought to light the key factors that thwarted the implementation of successful market-oriented reforms. The major factor was considered to be the failure of public institutions, which has been responsible for weak economic performance. As a result, the need for Good Governance was emphasised. The Bank considered Good Governance as sound development management. It, as per the Bank, has four main dimensions:

- a) Public Sector Management,
- b) Accountability,
- c) Legal Framework for Development; and
- d) Transparency and Information Accessibility.

For the first time, the concept of ‘Good Governance’ was formulated by the World Bank in 1992. It was defined as the “Manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social resources for development”. In the Report titled ‘Governance and Development’, Good Governance was considered central to creating and sustaining an environment, which fosters strong and equitable

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development and is an essential component of sound economic policies.

Three distinct aspects of governance were identified:

- Form of political regime (parliamentary, presidential, military or civilian)
- Process by which authority is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources; and
- Capacity of governments to design, formulate and implement policies

The problems, faced especially by developing countries in the process of governance were highlighted. These include:

- Improper implementation of laws
- Delays in implementation of policies, programs and projects
- Lack of clarity about the rules, regulations to be adhered to by the private entrepreneurs
- Absence of effective accounting system; and
- Failure to involve beneficiaries and others affected in the design and implementation of projects leading to the substantial erosion of sustainability. The World Bank outlined the need for Good Governance, which is necessary for economic, human, and institutional development. This was to be achieved through key governance activities and processes.

Its conceptualization of Good Governance included:

- Political accountability
- Freedom of association and participation by different groups in the process of governance
- An established legal framework based on rule of law and independence of judiciary to protect human rights, secure social justice, and guard against exploitation
- Bureaucratic accountability with emphasis on openness and transparency in administration
- Freedom of information and expression needed for formulation of public policies, decision-making, monitoring and evaluation of government performance

- A sound administrative system leading to efficiency and effectiveness; and
- Co-operation between the government and civil society organisations.

The concepts of governance and good governance have gained prominence and presently occupy a key place in promotion of sustained all-round development. Let us now discuss the characteristic features of these concepts.

13.2.2 Governance and Good Governance

In general, governance is associated with efficient and effective administration in a democratic framework. It involves the exercise of political, economic and administrative powers in managing the country's affairs, and includes the processes of formulation as well as implementation of decisions. But as discussed in the preceding Section, over the past decade, the concept of governance has become wider in complexion integrating a number of key elements and principles. Governance is being propagated to promote good government. Government is considered to be effective and good if it is able to fulfill its basic commitments efficiently, effectively and economically. The basic goal of governance is to establish quality relationship between 'good government' and the 'governed' or citizens. Good government has been defined by John Healey and Mark Robinson as a high level of organisational effectiveness in relation to policy formulation and the policies actually pursued, especially in the conduct of economic policy and its contribution to growth, stability and popular welfare. Good government also implies accountability, transparency, participation, openness and the rule of law. 'Governance', in the present context is an attempt to widen the scope of public administration by stretching beyond formal 'governments'. It is broader in nature extending up to the private sector, non-governmental mechanisms along with governmental institutions. Collective problem-solving is taking the place of individualised decision-making.

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There are many forms of community organisations, voluntary, and collective self-help groups through which people are organising themselves to achieve common goals and objectives. It intends to make public administration more open, transparent and accountable. According to the UNDP (1994), the challenge for all societies is to create a system of governance that promotes supports and sustains human development especially for the poorest and the marginal. According to Kettl (2001), “Government refers to the structure and function of public institutions. Governance is the way government gets its job done. Traditionally government itself managed most service delivery. Toward the end of the 20th century, however, government relied increasingly on non-governmental partners to do its work, through processes that relied less on authority for control”. To Kettl, governance, as an approach to public administration, has primarily to do with contracting out and grants to sub-governments.

13.2.3 Significance of Good Governance

Good governance aims at achieving much more than efficient management of economic and financial resources or public services. It is a broad reform strategy to make government more open, responsive, accountable, democratic, as well as strengthen institutions of civil society and regulate private sector. Good Governance is a combination of efficiency concerns of public management and accountability concerns of governance. Good Governance as a prerequisite for promoting people-centred development is assuming importance. Good Governance aims at:

- Improving the quality of life of citizens
- Enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of administration
- Establishing the legitimacy and credibility of institutions
- Securing freedom of information and expression

- Providing citizen-friendly and citizen-caring administration
- Ensuring accountability
- Using Information Technology-based services to improve citizen-government interface
- Improving/enhancing the productivity of employees; and
- Promoting organisational pluralism – State, market and civil society organisations for governance. Good Governance, hence, relates to the quality of governance through attributes such as participation, empowerment, accountability, equity and justice. Adherence and promotion of these attributes provides avenues to the citizens, especially the poor and the marginalised to articulate their interests, to exercise their rights and improve their living standards. Good Governance includes the capacity to formulate and implement sound policies by the government with due respect for citizens. From this framework, governance can be construed as consisting of six different elements.

These are

- (1) Voice and accountability, which includes civil liberties and freedom of the press,
- (2) Political stability,
- (3) Government effectiveness which includes the quality of policy making, and public service delivery,
- (4) Quality of regulations,
- (5) Rule of law, which includes protection of property rights and an independent judiciary, and
- (6) Control of corruption (Jain, 2004). Good Governance aims at enhancing the quality of life and entails governing processes which strive for maximum good for the maximum number of people. Tony Bovaird and Loffler (2003) consider Good Governance as the negotiation by all the stakeholders in an issue (or area) of improved public policy outcomes

and agreed governance principles, which are both implemented and regularly evaluated by all stakeholders. Presently, efforts are on globally to provide for evaluation of Good Governance initiatives on several parameters. We shall be discussing this later in this Unit.

13.2.4 Good Governance: Features

The goal of governance initiatives should be to develop capacities that are needed to realise development that gives priority to the poor, advances women's issues, sustains the environment and creates necessary opportunities for employment and other livelihoods (UNDP, 1994). A strong viewpoint that has emerged is that globalisation could provide the necessary impetus for bringing about efficiency, effectiveness and accountability in the government and administrative system. Hence, efforts are on in several countries to reexamine, assess and remove dysfunctions threatening the governance system. Good governance relates to enhancing the quality of governance through empowerment, participation, accountability, equity and justice. Without transparent and accountable institutions and the capacity to develop the policies and laws to enable a country to manage its markets and its political life in an open but just way, development is not sustainable (Brown, 2000). Researchers, policy makers, international institutions have attempted to conceptualise the concept of governance and identify its basic characteristics.

These include:

Participation: This is considered to be the core of Good Governance. Governments aiming to ensure the requisite freedom to the citizens in order to participate in the decision-making process articulate and represent their interests, which get reflected in policies and programmes.

Rule of Law: Governance does not imply arbitrary use of authority. Any type of governance to be effective needs to be supplemented by a fair legal framework. This should be supported by appropriate enforcement

machinery, independent judiciary, which instills confidence in the people.

Transparency: This is based on the premise of free flow of information and its accessibility to those affected by the decisions taken in the governance process. People, especially shall be in a position to understand as well as monitor governmental and other sectors' activities, on the basis of information that is accessible to them within reasonable limits.

Responsiveness: The earlier governance mechanisms lacked in their approach of bringing all the stakeholders in their ambit. In the present times, the emphasis is more on institutions being responsive to the needs of all those who are going to be affected by their actions. **Equity:** Since governance structures and mechanisms aim at participation, they have to promote equity. A society's well-being and development depends on ensuring that all the members have a stake and role in it and are not excluded from the mainstream activities.

Effectiveness and Efficiency: Good Governance and, NPM need to aim at effectiveness and efficiency in usage of resources in consonance with the societal needs and demands. Result-orientation needs to be the key concern.

Accountability: This occupies a central place in Good Governance. The norm of accountability has to ensure answerability as well as proper enforcement of correct procedure in case of violation of certain laid down norms. Not only the public institutions, but also the private sector and the civil society organisations need to be accountable to the public at large and to the other related institutions and stakeholders.

These characteristics reinforce each other. A proper governance strategy needs to take cognizance of these features. Many countries in the present times, are trying to bring about administrative reforms to foster Good

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Governance. The World Bank has also outlined certain basics of Good Governance.

These include:

- Operation of rule of law, which involves adequate laws to ensure personal security and to facilitate the functioning of the market. The laws need to be adequately enforced through an independent and predictable judiciary in an ambience of absence of official corruption.
- A policy environment, which facilitates economic growth and poverty reduction. This includes sound macro-economic and fiscal policies, sound budgetary institutions and good prioritisation of government expenditure as well as predictable and efficient regulation of the private sector, including the financial sector.
- Adequate investment in people (particularly through public expenditures on basic health and education) and in infrastructure, involving good allocation of public expenditures between and within different sectors.
- Protection to the vulnerable through affordable and targeted safety nets and generally ensuring an appropriate ‘pro-poor’ emphasis in public expenditure.
- Protection of the environment assuring that economic growth does not cause environmental degradation (Shand, 2001). Governance, with its emphasis on rule of law, human rights, empowerment, and participatory development, attempts to provide a countervailing force to the excessive managerial orientation. The World Bank (1992) observes “Governance is a continuum and not necessarily unidirectional, it does not automatically improve over time. It is a plant that needs constant tending. Citizens need to demand Good Governance. Their ability to do so is enhanced by literacy, education and employment opportunities. Governments need to prove responsive to their demands. Neither of these can be taken for

granted. Change occurs sometimes in response to external or internal threats. It also occurs through pressures from different internal groups, some of which may be in the form of populist demands. Although lenders and aid agencies and other outsiders can contribute resources and ideas to improve governance, for change to be effective, it must be rooted firmly in the societies concerned and cannot be imposed from outside". In a UNDP Workshop on Governance for Sustainable Human Development, (1994) certain characteristics of Good Governance were identified.

These include:

- Participation
- Responsiveness to people
- Development of resources and methods of governance
- Mobilisation of resources for social purposes
- Operation by Rule of Law
- Enabling and Facilitative Environment
- Regulation rather than Control
- Service-orientation
- Sustainability
- Acceptability to people
- Promotion of equity and equality
- Promotion of gender balance

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- Accountability (Sobhan, 1998, paraphrased)

Bovaird and Loffler (2003) postulate ten characteristics of ‘Good Governance’ which have recurred frequently both in the literature and in the political and practitioner debates on the subject.

These include:

- Citizens’ engagement
- Transparency
- Accountability
- The equalities agenda and social inclusion (gender, ethnicity, age, religion, etc.)
- Ethical and honest behaviour
- Equity (fair procedures and due process)
- Ability to compete in a global environment
- Ability to work effectively in a partnership
- Sustainability; and
- Respect for the Rule of Law

13.2.5 Good Governance Initiatives: the Indian Context

In India, efforts are afoot and have also in some respects gained momentum in the direction of Good Governance reforms. The major administrative reforms in our country during the 1950s and 1960s were basically structural in nature with a view to improving the administrative machinery. With the nature of administration undergoing a change in the 1990s (from traditional bureaucratic to responsive, citizen – oriented), the reforms are also now geared in this direction. Evolving a citizen-centred bureaucracy, ensuring transparency and right to information, streamlining the public grievances machinery, providing for code of ethics, and citizens’ charters are some landmarks in this effort. The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments are important reform measures

fostering empowerment and participation of people in the governance process. The current changes in government under the impact of reinvention are often considered to be the market-oriented neo-liberal approach, and initiatives towards furthering this are visible in both developed as well as developing countries. The role of the government, which was earlier direct in nature, is now assuming a facilitating and indirect role. Good Governance, as a strategy in the context of managerial reforms, assigns a steering and regulating role to the government vis-à-vis the private sector and a productive partnership between the government and societal organisations.

These reform measures basically attempted to look into the structural changes that were desired at that time to strengthen and streamline the administrative machinery. As we have discussed in the earlier sections, since the '80s, globally, many changes have taken place in social, economic and political spheres. Even in India also, the realisation has dawned that the bureaucracy is inaccessible and indifferent to common citizens and is more bothered about adherence to procedures, rules and regulations. Hence, there is a need for administration to be more efficient, responsive and accountable for promoting Good Governance. It is now perceived that governance structure has to extend beyond traditional bureaucracy and involve citizens, consumer groups, local bodies, etc. The Conference of Chief Secretaries and Chief Ministers of all the Indian states and Union Territories in 1996 and 1997 deliberated on the issue of improving governance, and an action plan was formulated to bring about accountable and citizen-friendly government. In accordance with this, several initiatives were taken by the Union and state governments. Let us highlight some of these measures in the following section:

4. Citizens' Charters

Citizens Charters are formulated by all those public organisations providing different kinds of services to the people. These Charters are statements that provide information to the general public about the nature

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of services being provided by that organisation, procedures, costs involved, mechanisms for lodging complaints in case the citizens are not satisfied, time taken for its redressal and so on. Nearly 68 organisations at the Central government level in India have formulated Citizens' Charters. These are being done by state governments also. Next time you visit any government organisation, including a hospital, municipal body, you can have a look at their Citizens' Charters.

5. Redressal of Citizens' Grievances

The machinery for getting redressal of any grievance that the citizen has against any government organisation has been strengthened. A Directorate of Public Grievances has been set up in the Cabinet Secretariat in 1988 to examine complaints relating to various ministries and departments which have direct public dealings. Also, the organisations keep a track of the complaints or grievances the citizens have lodged. You can also notice certain counters set up by government organisations as Information and Facilitation Counters (IFCs) including "May I Help You" counters. These help the citizens get the necessary information to facilitate their work done.

6. Use of Information Technology

Good Governance gives importance to use of Information Technology (IT) for efficient and effective service delivery. As you know, train, airline, bus reservations are now computerised and at the village level also computerisation of land records, registration of births, deaths, and application for necessary documents from district headquarters is making the tasks easier for the community. For example, in the State of Madhya Pradesh, the Gyandoot Programme launched in Dhar District has been a tremendous success. It has even won the Stockholm Award in 2000. Under this, initially, computers in 31 villages have been set up in Gram Panchayats which provide user-charge based services to the people. The services include agriculture produce, auction centre rates, and online public grievance redressal information regarding the government

programmes. Also, one-stop services are being offered to the people in some state governments where supply of ration card, registration of vehicles, payment of property tax, electricity bills, issue of land holding certificates, etc. are done at one place. The Government of Andhra Pradesh has started many 'e-seva' centres. Maharashtra has set up Setu Project in Thane for this purpose.

Right to Information

It has been increasingly felt that secrecy and lack of openness in government operations results in administration using powers arbitrarily in their dealings with people. Hence, efforts have been on in recent years to ensure and bring about greater transparency in administrative decisions to enable people to have an easy access to information except those related to national defence and security. After several efforts, a "Freedom of Information Bill" was introduced in the Parliament, which aims to provide freedom to every citizen to secure access to information under the control of public authorities. This Bill has been passed by the Parliament in 2001 and several state governments including Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Karnataka have passed the Right to Information Acts. At the central a averment level the, Right to Information Act 2005 was passed by the Parliament on 11 may, 2005 You will be learning more about the Right to Information Act in Course (013) on Public Systems Management.

People's Participation and Decentralisation

The government is ensuring people's participation in governance through the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments by which Constitutional status is conferred on rural and urban local bodies. These bodies are given necessary powers and authority to function as institutions of self-government. State governments have passed necessary legislation to this effect by providing for the constitution of these bodies, functions, conduct of elections, devolution of resources, etc. These are, in brief, some of the key initiatives taken by Indian government in fostering

responsive governance. Any reform measure to be effective, has to be sustained in the long run. Similarly, Good Governance can bring results by concentrating on certain key concerns that can ensure its longevity and success. Let us now throw light on these issues.

13.2.6 Promoting Good Governance

Good Governance, in the context of market-oriented reforms, assumes a new form that harnesses the efforts of varied economic, political, social, and administrative players in the society, which strive to create something new by establishing a balance between different problems and desired ways of resolving them. Governance has assumed a prominent place in the present changing scenario. It involves, as we have discussed earlier, not just the executive, legislature and judiciary, but also the private sector and civil society organisations. The objective of Good Governance is to promote an effective framework which is democratic, participative and responsive. Modern government is striving towards not just achievement of economic objectives but also attempting to bridge the gap between citizens and administration. Governance, to be effective, needs Good Government. It has to pay attention to several key issues in political, economic and civil spheres. Political governance needs to be strengthened through appropriate decentralisation measures, making elected representatives responsive and accountable to the citizens, increasing their capacities through education, awareness and training, holding regular periodic and fair elections, ensuring an impartial judiciary as well as improving the functioning of the civil service. NP Economic governance needs to be given importance through sufficient budgetary allocations to socially prioritised areas such as education, health, housing, appropriate taxation and subsidy systems. This also requires the government to promote private sector development through sound business practices, creation of stable economic environment, appropriate regulatory framework and protection of interests of all concerned including employees, consumers and society at large. Civic governance includes harnessing the self-initiatives of people, improving their capacities to govern their lives; creating awareness in them, and

enabling them to play an active role in democratic governance processes. Pursuing Good Governance by any country requires measures in ensuring a proper balance in the role of public, private and civic sectors, economic development and social justice. The State, private sector and civil society, in pursuit of Good Governance, need to strike an appropriate balance in their roles in order to ensure people-oriented development.

Good Governance requires reforms on several fronts such as political, economic, social, and administrative. Pursuing of Good Governance is a multi-pronged strategy, which includes:

- Reorienting the priorities of State through appropriate investment in the human needs, provision of social safety nets for the poor and marginalised
- Strengthening the State institutions
- Introducing appropriate reforms in the functioning of parliament and increasing its effectiveness
- Enhancing the civil services' capacity through appropriate reform measures that matches performance and accountability
- Forging new alliances with the civil society; and
- Evolving a new framework for government-business cooperation. Good or effective governance being pursued by several countries at different levels for the last few years is raising certain key concerns. Measuring the quality of governance is assuming importance; while New Public Management is considered to focus on processes of public service delivery, good governance is said to ensure effective outcomes. Governance outcomes are basically intended to be measured, to assess the policy outcomes, whether they have made any difference to the quality of life of all involved stakeholders. This could include several

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issues such as health, social well-being, environment, conditions of work and so on.

An important approach, in this direction is the Human Development Report which since 1990s has developed important composite indices for human development that include Human Development Index (HDI), Gender Related Development Index, Gender Empowerment Measure and the Human Poverty Index. Similarly, Transparency International brings out the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) which ranks countries on the basis of prevalence of corruption. Another organisation, Governance International, has introduced the governance international health check, which involves an assessment by organisations and their key stakeholders in the public and non-profit sectors, and evaluation of the achievement of key governance principles and policies on the basis of focus group sessions with key stakeholders such as citizens, politicians, third sector representatives, business sector, media, etc.

The State, private sector and civil society with their strengths and weaknesses, in pursuit of Good Governance, need to strike an appropriate balance in their roles to strive toward people-oriented development. Good Governance attempts to integrate political elements, economic aspects and social processes to foster holistic development. If managed well, the interplay between globalisation and Good Governance could become a transformative process to stabilize society. Such type of stabilisation can be achieved through:

- Improvement in public security, economic management and public administration
- Shared system of values through core public and private sector institutions
- Development of civil society and indigenous executive, legislative, judicial and administrative institutions; and

- Good governance, democratic development and an effective capacity for development (Kiggundu, 2002).

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers

1. Define Good Governance.

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2. Compare governance and good governance.

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3. Write the features of good governance.

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13.3 CORPORATE GOVERNANCE

Corporate governance is the structure and the associations which govern corporate direction and performance. The board of directors have dominant role in corporate governance. Its relationship to the other primary participants, typically shareholders and management, is critical. Other members include employees, customers, suppliers, and creditors. The corporate governance framework also depends on the legal, regulatory, institutional and ethical environment of the community. Usually, corporate governance is described as the host of legal and non-legal principles and practices affecting control of publicly held business

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firms. Broadly speaking, corporate governance affects not only who controls publicly traded corporations but also the allocation of risks and returns from the firm's activities among the various contributors in the firm, including stockholders and managers as well as creditors, employees, customers, and even societies.

Concept of governance:

Many management scholars have recognized that strong corporate governance is vital to resilient and vibrant capital markets and is an important tool of investor protection. According to The Institute of Company Secretaries of India, "Corporate Governance is the application of best management practices, compliance or law in true letter and spirit and adherence to ethical standards for effective management and distribution of wealth and discharge of social responsibility for sustainable development of all stakeholders". Cadbury Committee (U.K.), 1992 has defined corporate governance as "Corporate governance is the system by which companies are directed and controlled. It encompasses the entire mechanics of the functioning of a company and attempts to put in place a system of checks and balances between the shareholders, directors, employees, auditor and the management."

Other group of scholars explained the term corporate governance as "process and structure by which the business and affairs of the company are directed and managed in order to enhance long term shareholder value through enhancing corporate performance and accountability, whilst taking into account the interests of other stakeholders".

Firms at global level recognizing that better corporate governance adds substantial value to their operational performance in the following ways:

1. It improves strategic thinking at the top by inducting independent directors who bring a wealth of experience, and a host of new ideas.
2. It justifies the management and monitoring of risk that a firm faces globally.

3. It limits the responsibility of senior management and directors, by carefully articulating the decision making process
4. It assures the integrity of financial reports.
5. It has long term reputational effects among main stakeholders, both internally and externally.

Objective of corporate governance:

The fundamental objective of corporate governance is to boost and maximize shareholder value and protect the interest of other stakeholders. World Bank described Corporate Governance as blend of law, regulation and appropriate voluntary private sector practices which enables the firm to attract financial and human capital to perform efficiently, prepare itself by generating long term economic value for its shareholders, while respecting the interests of stakeholders and society as a whole. Corporate governance has various objectives to strengthen investor's confidence and intern leads to fast growth and profits of companies. These are mentioned below:

1. A properly structured Board proficient of taking independent and objective decisions is in place at the helm of affairs.
2. The Board is balanced as regards the representation of suitable number of non-executive and independent directors who will take care of the interests and well-being of all the stakeholders.
3. The Board accepts transparent procedures and practices and arrives at decisions on the strength of adequate information.
4. The Board has an effective mechanism to understand the concerns of stakeholders.
5. The Board keeps the shareholders informed of relevant developments impacting the company.
6. The Board effectively and regularly monitors the functioning of the management team.
7. The Board remains in effective control of the affairs of the company at all times.

Elements of good Corporate Governance:

It has been established in various management reports that aspects of good corporate governance comprise of transparency of corporate structures and operations, the accountability of managers and the boards to shareholders, and corporate responsibility towards stakeholders. While corporate governance basically lays down the framework for creating long-term confidence between companies and the external providers of capital.

There are numerous elements of corporate governance which are mentioned below:

- i. Transparency in Board's processes and independence in the functioning of Boards. The Board should provide effective leadership to the company and management to realize sustained prosperity for all stakeholders. It should provide independent judgment for achieving company's objectives.
- ii. Accountability to stakeholders with a view to serve the stakeholders and account to them at regular intervals for actions taken, through strong and sustained communication processes.
- iii. Impartiality to all stakeholders.
- iv. Social, regulatory and environmental concerns.
- v. Clear and explicit legislation and regulations are fundamentals to effective corporate governance.
- vi. Good management environment that includes setting up of clear objectives and suitable ethical framework, establishing due processes, clear enunciation of responsibility and accountability, sound business planning, establishing clear boundaries for acceptable behaviour, establishing performance evaluation measures.
- vii. Explicitly approved norms of ethical practices and code of conduct are communicated to all the stakeholders, which should be clearly understood and followed by each member of the organization.

- viii. The objectives of the corporation must be clearly recognized in a long-term corporate strategy including an annual business plan along with achievable and measurable performance targets and milestones.
- ix. A well composed Audit Committee to work as liaison with the management, internal and statutory auditors, reviewing the adequacy of internal control and compliance with significant policies and procedures, reporting to the Board on the key issues.
- x. Risk is an important component of corporate functioning and governance, which should be clearly acknowledged, analysed for taking appropriate corrective measures. In order to deal with such situation, Board should formulate a mechanism for periodic reviews of internal and external risks.
- xi. A clear Whistle Blower Policy whereby the employees may without fear report to the management about unprincipled behaviour, actual or suspected frauds or violation of company's code of conduct. There should be some mechanism for adequate safeguard to personnel against victimization that serves as whistle-blowers.

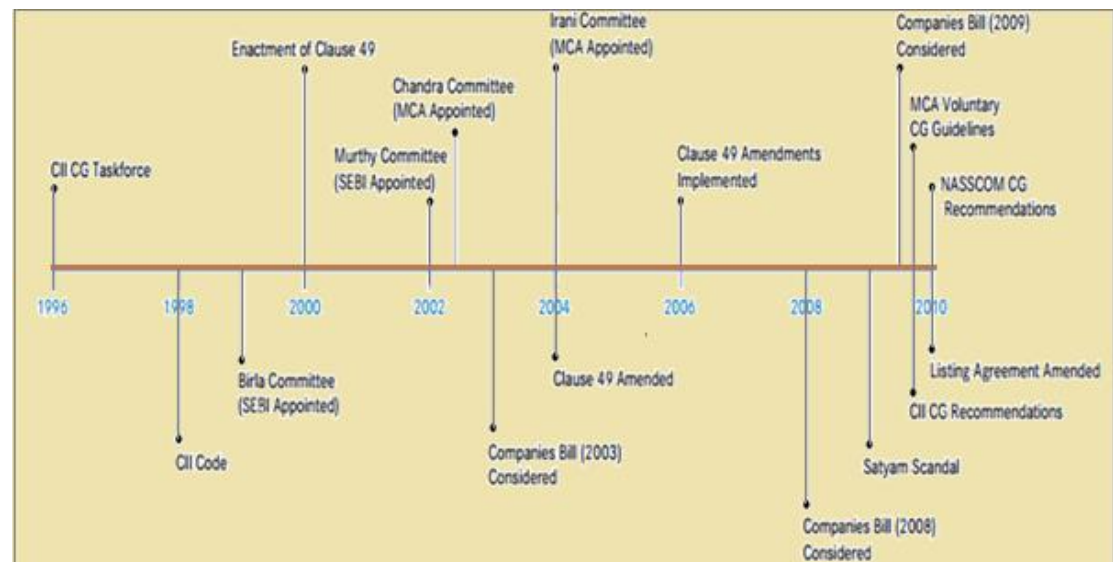
Review of corporate governance in India:

The notion of corporate governance has been incepted with major objective of significant disclosure of information to the shareholders. Since then, corporate governance has steered the Indian companies. As the time changed, there was also need for greater accountability of companies to their shareholders and customers. The report of Cadbury Committee on the financial aspects of corporate Governance in the U.K. has given rise to the discussion of Corporate Governance in India. Corporate governance has been since olden times but it was in different form. During Vedic times, kings used to have their ministers and used to have ethics, values, principles and laws to run their state but today it is in the form corporate governance having same rules, laws, ethics, values, and morals which helps in running corporate bodies in the more effective ways so that they in the age of globalization become global giants.

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There have been numerous corporate governance initiatives launched in India since the mid-1990s. The first was by the Confederation of Indian Industry (CII), India's major industry and business association, which emerged with the first voluntary code of corporate governance in 1998. The second was by the SEBI, now enshrined as Clause 49 of the listing agreement. SEBI in 2000 introduced unparalleled corporate governance reforms via Clause 49 of the Listing Agreement of Stock Exchanges. Clause 49, a seminal event in Indian corporate governance, established a number of governance requirements for listed companies with a focus on the role and structure of corporate boards, internal controls and disclosure to shareholders. The third was the Naresh Chandra Committee, which submitted its report in 2002. The fourth was again by SEBI the Narayana Murthy Committee, which also submitted its report in 2002.

Corporate Governance Development in India: A Timeline



India's corporate governance reform efforts did not stop after implementation of Clause 49. In January 2009, the Indian corporate community was astounded by enormous accounting scandal involving Satyam Computer Services (Satyam), one of India's largest information technology companies. As a result of the scandal, Indian regulators and industry groups have promoted for a number of corporate governance reforms to address some of the concerns raised by the Satyam scandal.

Some of these responses have moved forward, mainly through introduction of voluntary guidelines by both public and private institutions.

Generally, India's corporate governance transformation efforts reflect the following:

1. Significant industry involvement in assisting the government with crafting corporate governance measures.
2. Substantial focus to enhance the function and structure of company boards, including (i) emphasis on the independence of the board of directors, and (ii) an increased role for audit committees.
3. Noteworthy increase in disclosure to public shareholders.

Several Indian Companies such as PepsiCo, Infosys, Tata, Wipro, TCS, and Reliance are some of the global giants which have their flag of success flying high in the sky due to good corporate governance.

Importance of corporate governance:

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) highlights the significance of good corporate governance in the global and domestic economic environment. According to OECD, if countries are to reap the full benefits of the global capital market, and if they are to attract long-term “patient” capital, corporate governance arrangements must be credible and well understood across borders. Even if companies do not rely primarily on foreign sources of capital, adherence to good corporate governance practices will help to improve the confidence of domestic investors, may reduce the cost of capital, and ultimately induce more stable sources of financing (Principles of Corporate Governance, 1990).

Important issues in corporate governance:

There are number of important issues in corporate governance. All the issues are interring related and interdependent to deal with each other.

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Each issues linked with corporate governance have different priorities in each of the corporate bodies.

The issues are mentioned below:

1. Value based corporate culture
 2. Holistic view
 3. Compliance with laws
 4. Disclosure, transparency, & accountability
 5. Corporate governance and human resource management
 6. Innovation
 7. Necessity of judicial reforms
 8. Globalization helping Indian companies to become global giants based on good corporate governance.
 9. Lessons from Corporate failure
1. Value based corporate culture: For smooth operation of any firm, it is necessary to develop certain ethics, values. Long run business needs to have value based corporate culture. Value based corporate culture is good practice for corporate governance. It is a set of ethics, principles which are inviolable.
 2. Holistic view: This holistic view is religious outlook which helps for effective operation of organization. It is not easier to adopt it, it needs special efforts and once adopted it leads to developing qualities of nobility, tolerance and empathy.
 3. Compliance with laws: Those companies which really need advancement, have high ethical values and need to run long run business they abide and comply with laws of Securities Exchange Board Of India (SEBI), Foreign Exchange Regulation Act, Competition Act 2002, Cyber Laws, Banking Laws.
 4. Disclosure, transparency, and accountability: Disclosure, transparency and accountability are important feature for good governance. Timely and accurate information should be disclosed on the matters like the financial position, performance. Transparency is needed in order that government has faith in corporate bodies. Transparency is needed towards corporate

- bodies so that due to tremendous competition in the market place the customers having choices don't shift to other corporate bodies.
5. Corporate Governance and Human Resource Management: In corporate culture, employees are vital for success of firms. Every individual should be treated with individual respect, his achievements should be recognized. Each individual staff and employee should be given best opportunities to prove their worth and these can be done by Human Resource Department. Thus in Corporate Governance, Human Resource has a great role.
 6. Innovation: Every corporate body must involve in innovation practices i.e. innovation in products, in services and it plays a critical role in corporate governance.
 7. Necessity of Judicial Reform: There is requirement of judicial reform for a good economy and also in today's varying time of globalization and liberalization. Judicial system of India though having performed salutary role all these years, certainly are becoming obsolete and outdated over the years. The delay in judiciary is due to several interests involved in it. But then with changing scenario and fast growing competition, the judiciary needs to bring improvements accordingly. It needs to promptly resolve disputes in cost effective manner.
 8. Globalization helping Indian Companies to become global giants based on good governance: In today's competitive environment and due to globalization, several Indian Corporate bodies are becoming global companies which are possible only due to good corporate governance.
 9. Lessons from Corporate Failure: Corporate body has certain policies which if goes as a failure they need to learn from it. Failure can be both internal as well as external whatever it may be, in good governance, corporate bodies need to learn from their failures and need to move to the path of success.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit

10. What is the concept of corporate governance?

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13.4 E GOVERNANCE

Electronic governance or e-governance is the application of information and communication technology (ICT) for delivering government services, exchange of information, communication transactions, integration of various stand-alone systems and services between government-to-citizen (G2C), government-to-business (G2B), government-to-government (G2G), government-to-employees (G2E) as well as back-office processes and interactions within the entire government framework. Through e-governance, government services are made available to citizens in a convenient, efficient, and transparent manner. The three main target groups that can be distinguished in governance concepts are government, citizens, and businesses/interest groups. In e-governance, there are no distinct boundaries.

E-governance has gained more popularity in convoluted business world. Many management scholars have described the concept of e governance which is emerging as an important activity in the business field. It is established that E-governance is the application of information and communication technologies to transform the efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and accountability of informational and transactional exchanges with in government, between government & govt. agencies of National, State, Municipal and Local levels, citizen & businesses, and to empower citizens through access & use of information (Mahapatra, 2006).

World Bank explained the E governance as the use by government agencies of information technologies (such as Wide Area Networks, the Internet, and mobile computing) that have the ability to transform relations with citizens, businesses, and other arms of government. These technologies can serve a variety of different ends: better delivery of government services to citizens, improved interactions with business and industry, citizen empowerment through access to information, or more efficient government management. The resulting benefits can be less corruption, increased transparency, greater convenience, revenue growth, and or cost reductions."

According to international organization, UNESCO, "Governance refers to the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs, including citizens' articulation of their interests and exercise of their legal rights and obligations. E-Governance may be understood as the performance of this governance via the electronic medium in order to facilitate an efficient, speedy and transparent process of disseminating information to the public, and other agencies, and for performing government administration activities". The Council of Europe elaborated e-Governance as "the use of electronic technologies in three areas of public action such as relations between the public authorities and civil society, functioning of the public authorities at all stages of the democratic process (electronic democracy) and the provision of public services (electronic public services).

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

ii) Check your answers with those given at the end of the unit

- 1. Write about the e- Governance?

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13.5 LET US SUM UP

The concept and practice of governance, with several interpretations including Good Governance has gained prominence over the past decade. While, in a narrow sense, it focuses on improving public administration structures, processes, institutional development, broadly speaking, it places emphasis on qualitative improvements in the administration. Hence, principles such as accountability, transparency, participation, and empowerment are emphasised to make governance good or effective, to enable the development move towards new and productive directions. Good Governance, as we have observed, is bringing about creative intervention, and participation by not just a sole actor, but by various key players to enhance the legitimacy of public realm. Good Governance emphasises the involvement of institutions, actors from and beyond government, encouraging flexibility in public service provisions and cost-effective policy outcomes.

To summarize, corporate governance encompasses systems and procedures designed to structure authority, balance responsibility and provide accountability to stakeholders at all levels. Fundamentally, corporate governance is about harmonizing success with sustainability. Management literature have shown that corporate Governance is a set of ideas, innovation, creativity, thinking having certain ethics, values, principles which gives direction and shape to its people, personnel and possessors of companies and help them to succeed in global market.

13.6 KEY WORDS

Human Development Index: Measurement of human progress introduced by the United Nation Development program (UNDP) in its Human Development Report 1990. By combining indicators of real purchasing power, education and health, the Human Development Index provides a more comprehensive measure of development than does the Gross National Product alone

Organisational Pluralism: It is a multi-paradigmatic approach to organisation's functioning. It talks of multiple organizations in a specific area and the impact of varied organisations on a particular field. It all organizations ranging from government private sector, NGOs and other non-state actors pursuing development objectives.

User Charges: These are charges imposed for providing services or sale of products in connection with government activities. These are paid by the citizens for consumption of goods and services and do not include capital fees.

13.7 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Write the Concept of Good Governance.
2. Compare Governance and Good Governance.
3. What is the Significance of Good Governance?
4. What are the features Good Governance?
5. Write the Good Governance Initiatives: the Indian Context.
6. Write about the Promoting Good Governance

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13.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

1. Check Your Progress 1

Check your answer with unit 13.2

2. Check Your Progress 2

Check your answer with unit 13.3

3. Check Your Progress 3

Check your answer with unit 13.4

UNIT 14: PUBLIC POLICY

STRUCTURE

- 14.0 Objectives
- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Public Policy: meaning, nature and significance
 - 14.2.1 Nature of Public Policy
 - 14.2.2 Significance of Public Policy
- 14.3 Evolution of policy studies
- 14.4 Formulation of policies, techniques and conditions for successful implementation
- 14.5 Policy evaluation and impact assessment
- 14.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 14.7 Key Words
- 14.8 Questions for Review
- 14.9 Suggested readings and references
- 14.10 Answers to Check Your Progress Exercises

14.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- To understand public policy, and its significance;
- To describe the nature, types, and scope of public policy;
- To discuss and distinguish between policy, decision, plan, goals, policy analysis, and policy advocacy; and
- To explain the terms policy input, policy output, and policy outcome.

14.1 INTRODUCTION

'Public Policy', as an academic pursuit emerged in the early 1950s and since then it has been acquiring new dimensions, and is now attempting to acquire the status of a discipline. As a shady of products of

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government, policy forms a significant component in several social science disciplines like political science, public administration, economics, and management. So rapid is the academic growth of public policy that many researchers, teachers, and public administrators now feel that it is becoming increasingly complex. The disciplines associated with public policy cut right across the old academic lines of demarcation. Indeed, it is this interdisciplinary quality, which makes the field of public policy interesting and thought-provoking.

The foundation of public policy is composed of national constitutional laws and regulations. Further substrates include both judicial interpretations and regulations which are generally authorized by legislation. Public policy is considered strong when it solves problems efficiently and effectively, serves and supports governmental institutions and policies, and encourages active citizenship.

Other scholars define public policy as a system of "courses of action, regulatory measures, laws, and funding priorities concerning a given topic promulgated by a governmental entity or its representatives." Public policy is commonly embodied in "constitutions, legislative acts, and judicial decisions."

- Public policy making can be characterized as a dynamic, complex, and interactive system through which public problems are identified and countered by creating new public policy or by reforming existing public policy.
- Public problems can originate in endless ways and require different policy responses (such as regulations, subsidies, import quotas, and laws) on the local, national, or international level.
- Government holds a legal monopoly to initiate or threaten physical force to achieve its ends.

- Public policy making is a continuous process that has many feedback loops. Verification and program evaluation are essential to the functioning of this system.
- The public problems that influence public policy making can be of economic, social, or political nature.
- Each system is influenced by different public problems and issues, and has different stakeholders; as such, each requires different public policy.
- In public policy making, numerous individuals, corporations, non-profit organizations and interest groups compete and collaborate to influence policymakers to act in a particular way.
- The large set of actors in the public policy process, such as politicians, civil servants, lobbyists, domain experts, and industry or sector representatives, use a variety of tactics and tools to advance their aims, including advocating their positions publicly, attempting to educate supporters and opponents, and mobilizing allies on a particular issue.
- Many actors can be important in the public policy process, but government officials ultimately choose public policy in response to the public issue or problem at hand. In doing so, government officials are expected to meet public sector ethics and take the needs of all project stakeholders into account.
- Since societies have changed in the past decades, the public policy making system changed too. In the 2010s, public policy making is increasingly goal-oriented, aiming for measurable results and goals, and decision-centric, focusing on decisions that must be taken immediately.

Furthermore, mass communications and technological changes such as the widespread availability of the Internet have caused the public policy system to become more complex and interconnected. The changes pose new challenges to the current public policy systems and pressures leaders to evolve to remain effective and efficient. In this Unit, we will discuss the meaning, nature, scope, types and significance of public policy. In addition, attempts will be made to explain the changing conceptualizations of 'public' and 'private' domains in the study of public policy.

14.2 PUBLIC POLICY: MEANING, NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE

Public policy is a commonly used word in our daily life and in academic literature, where we often make the references to national health policy, education policy, wage policy, agricultural policy, and foreign policy and so on. It is an area, which had to do with those spheres that are labeled as public. The concept of public policy presupposes that there is a domain of life that is not private or purely individual, but common. In the previous era, studies on public policy were dominated by researchers and students of political science. They broadly concentrated on the institutional structure and philosophical justifications of the government. The focus was rarely on the policies themselves. Political science was to some extent preoccupied with the activities of the various political institutions and groups in relation to their- success in the pursuit of political power it is hardly organized with the sole, which such organizational played towards the formation of policy as one of its main concerns. Yet, policy is an important element of the political process. Dye, a leading scholar of policy analysis, observes, "Traditional (political science) studies describe the institutions in which public policy were formulated. But unfortunately, the linkages between important institutional arrangements and the content of public policy were largely unexplored." He further notes that today the focus of political science is shifting to public policy, that is, to the description and explanation of the causes and consequences of government activity. While the concern of political science about the processes by which public policy is

determined has increased, most students of public administration would acknowledge that the public servants themselves are intimately involved in the shaping of the policies. The study of public administration has hitherto tended to concentrate on the machinery for the implementation of given policies.

It has attended to the organization of public authorities, the behaviour of public servants and increasingly, the methods of resource allocation, administration and review. With such an approach, it is difficult to determine much about the way policy is formulated, although it is generally contended that the experience of policy implementation feeds back into the further entrance of the policy-making process. It is an effort to apply political science to public affairs, but has concerns with processes which are within the of public administration. To be brief, the past studies on policy have been mainly dominated by scholars of political science and public administration and have tended to concentrate more on the content of policy and the process of its formulation and implementation. The study of public policy has evolved into what is virtually a new branch of the social science; it is called policy science. This concept of policy science was first formulated by Harold Lasswell in 1951.

14.2.1 Nature of Public Policy

A policy may be general or specific, broad or narrow, simple or complex, public or private, written or unwritten, explicit or implicit, discretionary or detailed and qualitative or, quantitative. Here the emphasis is on public policy, that is, what a government chooses as guidance for action. From the view point of public policy, the activities of government can be put into three categories. First, activities that are attached to specific policies; second, activities that are general in nature, activities that are based on vague and ambiguous policies. However, in practice, a government rarely has a set of guiding principles for all its activities. The Supreme Court of India may, through its decisions, gives new interpretations to some of the articles of the Constitution, which may

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amount to a new policy. A public policy may cover a major portion of its activities, which are consistent with the development policy of the country. Socio-economic development, equality, or liberty or self-reliance or similar broad principles of guidance for action may be adopted as a developmental policy or basic framework of goals. A public policy may be narrow, covering a specific activity, such as prevention of child labour or it may be broad, as women's empowerment. A public policy may be applied to a limited section of people of a country or to its entire people. Besides, each level of government - central, state and local - may have its specific or general policies. Then there are 'mega-policies'. General guidelines to be followed by all specific policy termed as 'mega policy'. According to Dror, 'mega policies' from a kind of master policy, as distillate from concrete discrete policies, and involve the establishment of overall goals to serve as guidelines for the larger sets of concrete and specific policies. The policies generally contain definite goals or objectives it is more implicit or explicit terms. Policies have outcomes that may or not have been anticipated.

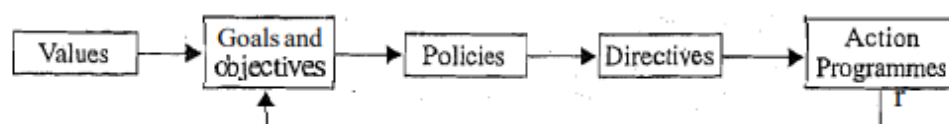
Public policies in modern political systems are purposive or goal-oriented statements. Again, public policy may be either positive or negative in form. In its positive form, it may involve some form of overt government action to deal with a particular problem. On the other hand, in its negative format, it involves a decision by public servants not to take action on some matter on which a governmental order is sought. Public policy has a legally coercive quality that citizens accept as legitimate, for example, taxes must be paid unless one wants to minimize the risk of severe penalties or imprisonment. The legitimacy of coercion behind public policies makes public organizations distinct from the private organizations. The nature of policy as a purposive course of action can be better or more fully understood if it is compared with related concepts.

a. Policy-Making and Decision-Making

Policy-making is closely related to decision-making. However, it is not the same as decision-making. Policy-making does involve decision-making, but every decision does not necessarily constitute a policy. Decision-making often involves an identification of a problem, appropriate analysis possible alternatives and the selection of one alternative for action. Generally, decisions are taken by the administrator in their day-to-day work within the existing framework of policy. The policy decisions eventually taken, thus, provide a sense of direction to the course of administrative action. Anderson says, "Policy decisions are decisions made by public officials that authorize or give direction and content to public policy actions". These may include decisions to issue executive orders, promulgate administrative rules, or make important judicial interpretations of laws.

b. Policies and Goals

Policies are distinct from goals and can be distinguished from the latter as means from ends. By goals or objectives, one means the ends towards which actions are directed. It is reasonable to expect a policy to indicate the direction from which action is sought. Policies involve a deliberate choice of actions designed to attain those goals and objectives. The actions can take the form of directives to do or refrain from certain actions. Public policy is about means and ends, which have a relationship to each other, To say that policy-making involves a choice of goals or objectives is to argue that, it deals with values. The choice of policies as well as objectives is often influenced by values. Decision-makers, including judges of the apex courts, often act on the basis of their values, beliefs or perceptions of the public interest concerning what is a proper or in orally calculate the public policy. Thus, goals and objectives depend on the values of the policy-makers. This could be explained in the following manner:



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Many students of policy sciences would like to apply science or reason (making use of the rationality in the model) for the determination of policy objectives and goals.

c. Policy making and allocation

Often the goals or policies of a plan may not be clearly stipulated in the plan documents. They may be stated only in very general terms or may sometimes be internally inconsistent or contradict only. A national development plan, broadly speaking, is a collection of targets or individual projects which, when put together, It is not constitute an integrated scheme. Allocation of resources for investments and pinpointing of targets in different sectors of the economy are considered to be at the core of planning. However, it has been aptly stated that a plan needs a proper policy framework. Targets cannot be achieved just because investments are provided for. They have to be drawn within the framework of policies. Successful policies make for successful plans, and their implementation.

d. Policy Analysis and Policy Advocacy

A distinction may be drawn between policy analysis and policy advocacy. Policy analysis is nothing ignore than finding out the impact of policy. It is a technique to measure organizational effectiveness through an examination and evaluation of the effect of a program. Chandler and Plano opine that policy analysis is a systematic and data-based alternative to intuitive judgement about the effects of policy and policy options. It is used for problem assessment and monitoring before the decision; and for evaluation following implementation. Policy analysis is not the same as prescribing what policies government ought to pursue. Policy advocacy is concerned with what Government ought to do, or bringing about changes in what they do through discussion', persuasion, organization, and activism. On the other, policy analysis is concerned with the examination of the impact of policy using the tools of

systematic inquiry. Thomas Dye labels "policy analysis" as the "thinking man's response" to demands. Policy analysis has three basic concerns.

First, its primary concern is with the "explanation" of policy rather than the "prescription" of policy.

Secondly, it involves a rigorous search for the causes and consequences of public policies through the use of the tools of systematic inquiry.

Thirdly, it involves an effort to develop and test general propositions about the causes and consequences of public policies. Thus, policy analysis can be both scientific as well as relevant to the problems of society. The role of policy analysis is not to replace but to supplement political advocacy. As Wildavsky has argued, "The purpose of policy analysis is not to eliminate advocacy but to raise the level of argument among contending interests. The end result, hopefully, would be higher quality debate and perhaps eventually public choice among better known alternatives."

e. Policy Analysis and Policy Management

The distinction between policy analysis and policy management needs to be highlighted, though in practice these two related processes overlap to some extent. According to Dror, 'policy analysis' deals with the substantive examination of policy issues and the identification of preferable alternatives, in part with the help of systematic approaches and explicit methods. Policy management deals with the management of policy making and policy preparation process, to assure that it produces high quality policies. The interdependence of policy analysis and policy management can be seen in the necessity of assuring, with the help of appropriate policy management, that adequate policy analysis is undertaken as an integral part of management systems and, wherever necessary, by reinforcing innovativeness. Policy analysis covers several methods and concepts, some of which are quantitative in character, including methods like social experimentation, game simulation and

contingency planning. Despite such distinctions between policy analysis and policy management, both are interrelated aspects of policy-making and cover a major part of the tasks of senior administrators. Therefore, it is essential that these two processes should be treated jointly.

14.2.2 Significance of Public Policy

a. The Idea of Public

It is first important to understand the concept of 'public' for a discussion of public policy. We often use such terms as 'public interest', 'public sector', 'public opinion', 'public health', and so on. The starting point is that 'public policy' has to do with those spheres, which are so labeled as 'public' as opposed to spheres involving the 'private'. The public dimension is generally referred to 'public ownership' or control for 'public purpose.' The public sector comprises that domain of the activity, which is regarded as requiring governmental intervention or common action. However, there has always been a conflict between what is public and what is private. W.B. Baber (as quoted in Massey, 1993) argues that the public sector has ten key differences from the private sector that is:

- It faces more complex and ambiguous tasks.
- It has more problems in implementing its decisions.
- It employs more people with a wider range of motivations. It is more concerned with securing opportunities or improving capacities.
- It is more concerned with compensating for market failure.
- It engages in activities with greater symbolic significance.
- It is held to strict standards of commitment and legality.

- It has a greater opportunity to respond to issues of fairness.
- It must operate or appear to operate in the public interest.
- It must maintain minimal levels of public support.

Public administration emerged as an instrument of the state for securing 'public' interest rather than 'private' interests. Whereas for the political economists, only markets could balance private and public interests, the new liberalism is based upon a belief that public administration is a more rational means of promoting the public interest. For Max Weber, the growth of bureaucracy was due to the process of rationalization in industrial society. The civil servant is a rational functionary whose main task is to carry out the will of those elected by the people. Public bureaucracy is, therefore, different to that which exists in the private sector because the former is motivated to serve the public interest. The rational public interest argument started eroding after the Second World War. To Herbert Simon, bureaucracies exhibit a large measure of 'bounded rationality'. According to Mueller, bureaucrats do not always function in the public interest and display an inclination to have distinct goals of their own. In this connection, in his work on a comparative study of bureaucracy, Aberbach observes, "The last quarter of this century is witnessing the virtual disappearance of the Weberian distinction between the roles of the politician and the bureaucrat, producing what may be labeled a pure hybrid." The public and private sectors reveal themselves as overlapping and interacting, rather than as well-defined categories.

b. The Concept of Policy

Like the idea of 'public', the concept of 'policy' is not a precise term. Policy denotes, among other elements, guidance for action. It may take the form of: a declaration of goals; a declaration of course of action; a declaration of general purpose; and more an authoritative decision. Hogwood and Gunn specify ten uses of the term 'policy', that is policy as

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a label for a field of activity; an expression of desired state of affairs; specific proposals; decisions of government; frontal authorization; a programme; an output; an outcome; a theory or model; and a process. Unfortunately, the policy itself is something, which takes different forms. There is thrust to designate policy as the 'outputs' of the political system, and in a lesser degree to define public policy as more or less inter-dependent policies dealing with different kind of activities. Studies of public policy, on the contrary, have tended to focus on the evaluation of policy decisions in terms of specified values - a rational rather than a political analysis. The magnitude of this problem can be recognized from the other definitions, which have been added by scholars in this field. Y. Dror, a pioneer among scholars of the policy sciences, defines policies as general directives on the main lines of action to be followed. Similarly, Peter Self opines policies as changing directives as to how tasks should be interpreted and performed. To Sir Geoffrey Vickers, policies are "decisions giving direction, coherence and continuity to the courses of action for which the decision making body is responsible". Carl Friedrich regards policy as, "a proposed course of action of a person, group, or government within a given environment providing obstacles and opportunities which the policy was proposed to this and overcome in and the place to reach a goal or realise an objective or a purpose". James Antlerson suggests that policy be regarded as "a purposive course of action followed by an actor in dealing with a problem matter of concern". Taken as a whole, policy may be defined as a purposive course of action taken or adopted by those in power in pursuit of certain goals or objectives. It should be added here that public policies are the policies adopted and implemented by government bodies and officials. David Easton (1957) defines public policy as "the authoritative allocation of values for the whole society". Public policies are formulated by what Easton calls the "authorities" in a political system, namely, "elders, paramount chiefs, executives, legislators, judges, administrators, councilors, monarchs, and the like". According to Easton (1965), these are the persons who "engage in the daily affairs of a political system", are recognised by no other members of the system as having responsibility for these matters and take actions that are "accepted

as binding most of the time by most of the members so long as they act within the limits of their roles". Thornas Dye's definition states, "Public policy is whatever governments choose to do or not to do". Similarly, Robest Linebeny says, "it is what governments do and fail to do for their citizens". In these definitions there is divergence between what governments decide to do and what they actually do.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

1. What is the nature of Public policy?

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2. What is the significance of public policy?

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14.3 EVOLUTION OF POLICY STUDIES

Policy study is a sub discipline of political science that includes the analysis of the process of policymaking (the policy process) and the contents of policy (policy analysis). Policy analysis includes substantive area research (such as health or education policy), program evaluation and impact studies, and policy design. It "involves systematically studying the nature, causes, and effects of alternative public policies, with particular emphasis on determining the policies that will achieve given goals." It emerged in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s.

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Policy Studies also examines the conflicts and conflict resolution that arise from the making of policies in civil society, the private sector, or more commonly, in the public sector (e.g. government).

It frequently focuses on the public sector but is equally applicable to other kinds of organizations (e.g., the not-for-profit sector). Some policy study experts graduate from public policy schools with public policy degrees. Alternatively, experts may have backgrounds in policy analysis, program

evaluation, sociology, psychology, philosophy, economics, anthropology, geography, law, political science, social work, environmental planning and public administration.

Traditionally, the field of policy studies focused on domestic policy, with the notable exceptions of foreign and defense policies. However, the wave of economic globalization, which ensued in the late 20th and early 21st centuries, created a need for a subset of policy studies that focuses on global governance, especially as it relates to issues that transcend national borders such as climate change, terrorism, nuclear proliferation, and economic development. This subset of policy studies, which is often referred to as international policy studies, typically requires mastery of a second language and attention to cross-cultural issues in order to address national and cultural biases. For example, the Monterey Institute of International Studies at Middlebury College offers Master of Arts programs that focus exclusively on international policy through a mix of interdisciplinary and cross-cultural analysis called the "Monterey Way". Examples of academic programs in policy studies include the Harvard Kennedy School and the LBJ School of Public Affairs.

Public policy studies how individual administrative and political levels create, approve, apply as well as evaluate measures and programs aimed at resolving various social problems. Public Policy and Administration, as a field of study, is an interdisciplinary study program which draws from such fields as political science, management, economics, law and

sociology, but also from other social sciences. Its main objective is to prepare professionals who have the conceptual and analytical knowledge, as well as all the necessary skills to work in the area of public policy. Public policy can change the future of almost anything, even great wars. The participation of the United States in World War I and World War II reflected a dramatic shift in U.S. public policy, showing an expansion of U.S. policy influence. The evolution of public policy is marked by expansion of the power of the people as well as government.

Throughout history public policy leaders have contributed to the approaches now seen in modern government. History takes place every day. People with a master of public administration and policy develop the skills and experience necessary for the analysis and administration of local and world-changing policies.

The History of Public Policy

There are many major historic public policy documents that helped shape the modern approach to how policy is created. The Magna Carta and the U.S. Constitution, among several, show how the world changed toward modern ideals.

- **Magna Carta:** Today, the Magna Carta stands as one of the most prominent and longstanding pieces of public policy in history. Proposed by England's King John I and signed in 1215 CE, the Magna Carta first introduced the idea that there should be checks on government power. The primary target for Magna Carta was the king himself, promoting the idea that he could no longer claim to be above the law. The Magna Carta is now more than 800 years old.
- **U.S. Constitutional Ideals:** 550 years later, the U.S. Constitution codified this principle for an enlightened age and a new land. America was founded on the assumption that people deserved to participate in the creation of laws that influence

public policy and their rights. This was a new form of government, which used the balanced creation of laws instead of aristocratic power to dictate policy. This representational form of government allowed the people to elect the public policy leaders who would define policies.

- **Modern Approach:** At present, the most fundamental distinction between modern American public policy and its ancient predecessors may be the expansion of bureaucracy. The U.S. president still has veto power over legislation, but the creation of policy is a far more negotiated institution than it was in centuries past. At its simplest, the American modern approach includes the public discussion of how policies will be carried out, debates over accessibility, and existing policy revisions.

14.4 FORMULATION OF POLICIES, TECHNIQUES AND CONDITIONS FOR SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION

Some social scientists and scholars have attempted to discuss the typologies of policy issues towards the policy techniques and its successful implementation. These are noted with its success to the appropriateness and aptness to the social policy understanding and techniques. These facilitate comparison between issues and policies. Lowi, for example, suggests a classification of policy issues in terms of being:

- ii) Distributive,
- iii) Redistributive,
- iv) Regulatory Policy and
- v) Constituent policy issues.

14.4.1 Distributive Policy Issues

Policy issues concerned with the distribution of new resources are distributive policies. Distributive policies are meant for specific

segments of society. It can be in the area of grant of subsidies, loans provision of education, welfare or health services or other public assistance schemes. Some more examples of distributive policies are adult education programme, food security, social insurance, scholarships to students from disadvantaged social backgrounds, assistance to aged, physically challenged persons, etc.

14.4.2 Redistributive Policy Issues

Redistributive policy issues are concerned with changing the distribution of existing resources. Redistributive policies are concerned with the rearrangement of policies, which are concerned with bringing about basic socio-economic changes. Certain public goods and welfare services are disproportionately divided among certain segments of the society, these goods and services are- streamlined through redistributive policies. Income tax policies usually it's the elements of redistribution of incomes.

14.4.3 Regulatory Policy Issues

Regulatory policy issues are concerned with regulation and control of activities. They deal with legislation of trade, business, safety measures, public utilities, etc. This type of regulation is done by independent organisations that work on behalf of the government. In India, the Reserve Bank of India, the Telecom Regulatory Authority of India, the Controller of Drugs and Pharmaceuticals, (the Registrar. General of India, the Bureau of Indian Standards, Securities and Exchange Board of India (SEBI), the Board of Control for Cricket in India (BCCI), etc. are engaged in regulatory activities. Organisations like the university Grants Commission, the All-India Council of Technical Education, and the Central Board of Secondary Education perform both promotional and regulatory activities. The Indian Medical Council, the Bar Council of India, the National Council of Teacher Education, the Pharmacy Council of India, and the Nursing Council of India are examples of regulatory agencies intended to protect the standards of the respective professions. The policies are laid by the government, pertaining to the relevant

services, and organisations rendering these services are known as regulatory policies.

14.4.4 Constituent Policy Issues

Constituent policy issues are concerned with the setting-up or reorganization of institutions. Each of these policy issues forms a different power arena. However, it may be mentioned here that Lowi's view of politics as a function of policies has been criticized as oversimplistic, methodologically aspect, and of doubtful testability. Cobbe and Elder, for instance, observe that Lowi's typology has basic limitations. It does not provide a framework for understanding change as the categories suggested become less clear and more diffuse.

14.4.5 Conflict Policy Issues

Cobbe and Elder propose an alternative classification of policy issues in terms of conflict rather than content. Their focus is on the way in which conflict is created and managed. To them, a conflict may arise between two or more groups over issues relating to the distribution of positions. These may be created by such means and devices as presentation of an alternative policy by a contending party which perceives unfairness or bias in the distribution of positions or resources; manufacture an issue for personal or group gain; and the occurrence of unanticipated human events, natural disasters, international conflict, war and technological changes. Such issues then constitute The agenda for policy or decision-making and are known as the conflict policy issues.

14.4.6 Bargaining Policy Issues

Hogwood and Wilson use the criteria of costs and benefits from the point of view of the possibilities as different outcomes, forms of bargaining and conflict, and a range of alternatives. There are redistribution issues, which involve bargaining over who get what, who gets more, and who gets leis. For Wilson, criteria of costs and benefits may be concentrated

or dispersed. An issue, which may have very concentrated benefits to a small section of society but whose costs are widely dispersed, may not be appreciated by one who is in favour of "the greatest happiness of the greatest number". However, such typologies involving costs and benefits exclude important elements of complexity, and technical or expert knowledge. Gormley, for example, suggests (that the degree and kind of technical complexity will give rise to different forms of conflict.)

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

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14.5 POLICY EVALUATION AND IMPACT ASSESSMENT

Policy Evaluation

The CDC definition of "Policy" is "a law, regulation, procedure, administrative action, incentive or voluntary practice of governments and other institutions."1 Policies generally operate at the systems level and can influence complex systems in ways that can improve the health and safety of a population. A policy approach can be a cost-effective way to create positive changes in the health of large portions of the population. There are several types of policy, each of which can operate at different levels (national, state, local, or organizational)2 Legislative policies are laws or ordinances created by elected representatives. Regulatory policies include rules, guidelines, principles, or methods created by government agencies with regulatory authority for products or services. Organizational policies include rules or practices established within an agency or organization.

What Is Policy Evaluation?

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Policy evaluation applies evaluation principles and methods to examine the content, implementation or impact of a policy. Evaluation is the activity through which we develop an understanding of the merit, worth, and utility of a policy.

Standards for Conducting Evaluation

The Framework also includes the following four categories of standards for conducting evaluation to help guide choices along the process:

- Utility: Who wants the evaluation results and for what purpose?
- Feasibility: Are the evaluation procedures practical, given the time, resources, and expertise available?
- Propriety: Is the evaluation being conducted in a fair and ethical way?
- Accuracy: Are approaches at each step accurate, given stakeholder needs and evaluation purpose?

Policy Evaluation Vs. Program Evaluation

Although policy evaluation and program evaluation have many similarities, there are some important differences as well. Some of these differences include:

- The level of analysis required (e.g., system or community level for policy evaluation; program level for program evaluation).
- The degree of control and clear “boundaries” may be more challenging with policy evaluation.
- The ability to identify an equivalent comparison community may be more challenging with policy evaluation.
- The scale and scope of data collection may be greater with policy evaluation.
- Policy evaluation may require increased emphasis on the use of surveillance and administrative data.

- The type and number of stakeholders involved may differ.

Why Is Policy Evaluation Important?

Developing and implementing policy strategies is important in addressing injury and violence prevention at the population level. Although policy has been used effectively in some areas of injury and violence prevention, policy strategies in some areas lack a sufficient evidence base. Policy evaluation, like all evaluation, can serve important purposes along the entire chain of the policy process, including:

- Documenting policy development.
- Documenting and informing implementation.
- Assessing support and compliance with existing policies.
- Demonstrating impacts and value of a policy.
- Informing an evidence base.
- Informing future policies.
- Providing accountability for resources invested.

Policy Evaluation Challenges

While all evaluations encounter challenges, some are particularly relevant to policy evaluation, and some of these are listed below. Many of these challenges can be easily addressed by using an appropriate design, indicators, and methods. Specific solutions to many of these challenges are provided in Briefs 2–7.

Impact Assessment

Impact Assessment is a means of measuring the effectiveness of organisational activities and judging the significance of changes brought about by those activities. It is neither Art nor Science, but both. Impact assessment is intimately linked to Mission, and, in that sense, ripples through the organisation. Being able to assess and articulate impact is a powerful means of communicating, internally and externally, the contribution of activities to the Mission of IFRC and NS. Impact is seen

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as the positive and negative, intended or unintended long-term results produced by an IFRC operation or National Society, either directly or indirectly. Impact should be seen as the contribution of the intervention to the overall goal. The Problem of Impact assessment is straightforward in development projects.

There is a large literature underpinning impact, a wealth of experience and accepted norms and practices. This is not the case for the humanitarian sector. The rationale for impact arises from the introduction of Results Based Management techniques and a mindset that sees impact practice in the developmental sector as transferable to the humanitarian sector. It is not. And this is the nub of the problem. Until there are agreed norms and standards across the humanitarian sector then impact assessment will remain a contentious issue. A start has been made with SPHERE. And how should this problem be addressed? Firstly both the donor community and the humanitarian sector have to recognise the problem and agree to look at impact from a different perspective. Given the difficulty of measurement in complex and chaotic environments a more intuitive approach is needed. Impact is a function of the effectiveness, relevance and sustainability of the intervention. Evaluation for impact should be directed at looking across projects as a whole and asking, quite simply, "Did it meet real needs?" This raises the problem of verification and brings me to the second point.

The simplest way of verifying is to ask the beneficiaries. Participatory approaches must be embedded within the humanitarian sector, but done in a way that gives confidence to donors. This raises the problem of norms and standards. Humanitarian organizations could demonstrate this by showing how much of the budget is used to develop this capacity. But in the longer term a standardized approach to training with external accreditation would give confidence to both donors and the humanitarian sector. Trained field workers will have the confidence and ability to make project changes as and when needed. Evaluation will then be able to verify the efficacy of changes. Impact assessment comes down to developing two proxies. The first is asking if the intervention met real

needs and the second is accredited training in participatory techniques for field workers. Impact assessment is concerned with making judgments about the effect on beneficiaries of humanitarian interventions. It is a function of the results chain and is an integral part of Monitoring and Evaluation and should be incorporated into the design of a Monitoring and Evaluation framework. In order to consider the full extent of impact, questions have to be raised internally and externally.

Evidence-based policy (EBP) is a term often applied in multiple fields of public policy to refer to situations whereby policy decisions are informed by rigorously established objective evidence. Underlying many of the calls for evidence-based policy is often a (stated or unstated) concern with fidelity to scientific good practice, reflecting the belief that social goals are best served when scientific evidence is used rigorously and comprehensively to inform decisions, rather than in a piecemeal, manipulated, or cherry-picked manner. The move towards evidence-based policy has its roots in the larger movement towards evidence-based practice.

Some have promoted particular types of evidence as 'best' for policymakers to consider, including scientifically rigorous evaluation studies such as randomized controlled trials to identify programs and practices capable of improving policy-relevant outcomes. However, some areas of policy-relevant knowledge are not well served by quantitative research, leading to debate about the methods and instruments that are considered critical for the collection of relevant evidence. For instance, policies that are concerned with human rights, public acceptability, or social justice may require other evidence than what randomized trials provide, or may require moral philosophical reasoning in addition to considerations of evidence of intervention effect (which randomized trials are principally designed to provide). Good data, analytical skills and political support to the use of scientific information, as such, are typically seen as the important elements of an evidence-based approach.

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Although evidence-based policy can be traced as far back as the fourteenth century, it was more recently popularized by the Blair Government in the United Kingdom. The Blair Government said they wanted to end the ideological led-based decision making for policy making For example, a UK Government white paper published in 1999 ("Modernizing Government") noted that Government must "produce policies that really deal with problems, that are forward-looking and shaped by evidence rather than a response to short-term pressures; that tackle causes not symptoms".

Evidence-based policy is associated with Adrian Smith because in his 1996 presidential address to the Royal Statistical Society, Smith questioned the current process of policy making and urged for a more “evidence-based approach” commenting that it has “valuable lessons to offer”.

Some policy scholars now avoid using the term evidence-based policy, using others such as evidence informed. This language shift allows continued thinking about the underlying desire to improve evidence use in terms of its rigor or quality, while avoiding some of the key limitations or reductionist ideas at times seen with the evidence-based language. Still, the language of evidence-based policy is widely used and, as such, can be interpreted to reflect a desire for evidence to be used well or appropriately in one way or another - such as by ensuring systematic consideration of rigorous and high quality policy relevant evidence, or by avoiding biased and erroneous applications of evidence for political ends.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Use the space given below for your answers.

1) What is known as Impact Assessment?

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14.6 LET US SUM UP

Public policy is the principled guide to action taken by the administrative executive branches of the state with regard to a class of issues, in a manner consistent with law and institutional customs. There has recently been a movement for greater use of evidence in guiding policy decisions. Proponents of evidence-based policy argue that high quality scientific evidence, rather than tradition, intuition, or political ideology, should guide policy decisions.

On the basis of conversation in this Unit, it can be censured that the field of public policy has assumed considerable importance. It is not only concerned with the description and explanation of the causes and consequences of government activity, but also with the development of scientific knowledge about the forces shaping public policy. Although the subject is of recent foundation, it has combined many modifications in the conceptual and methodological tool, thereby enabling it to meet the requirements of theoretical depth and logical rigor.

14.7 KEY WORDS

Policy sciences: Policy sciences are the discipline concerned with explaining the policymaking and policy-executing processes; and with locating data and providing explanations that are relevant to policy analysis.

Operation Research: It is used to describe the discipline of applying advanced analytical techniques to help make better decisions to solve problems. The prevalence of operations research in the Nation's economy reflects the growing complexity of managing large organizations, which require the effective use of money, materials, equipment, and people. Operations research analysts help to determine better ways, to coordinate these elements by applying analytical methods from mathematics, science, and engineering.

14.8 QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

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1. Write about Public Policy: meaning, nature and significance.
2. Briefly discuss on Evolution of policy studies.
3. Write on Formulation of policies, techniques and conditions for successful implementation.
4. Write in details on Policy evolution and impact assessment.

14.9 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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14.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EXERCISES

Check Your Progress 1

Check your answer with unit 14.2

Check Your Progress 2

Check your answer with unit 14.4

Check Your Progress 3

Check your answer with unit 14.5